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Effects and the Possible Remedies of Students' Truancy in Secondary Schools in Meru South Sub County, Kenya

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Abstract

Truancy is deliberate absence from school on the part of learners without the knowledge and consent of parents or absence of learners from school for which no reasonable or acceptable excuse is given. Truancy is a major challenge in Kenyan secondary schools. Truancy may have adverse affect on students, the school and the society at large. The purpose of this study was to establish effects and the possible remedies of secondary school students' truancy in Meru South District, Kenya. The study elicited views from principals, class teachers, counseling teachers and form two students, purposive and simple random sampling method was used to select 298 Form 2 students 8 Principal 8 counseling teachers and 8 class teachers. Questionnaire was used to collect data. Data was analyzed quantitatively and presented using frequency distribution table, bar charts and percentages. The study identified the effects of truancy as poor academic performance for the truants, their class and school, wastage of learning time, dropping out of school, poverty to the individual and family in future, involvement in delinquent behavior, family instability, social maladjustment and insecurity in the family. The suggestions for the remedies truancy were strengthening of peer, joint, group and individual counseling in secondary schools, involving parent and the surrounding school community in developing attendance and anti truancy policies, effectively monitoring of the truants, creating a friendly school culture, developing attractive co-curricular activities, holding regular motivation talks, organizing career guidance right from when students are in Form 1 and helping the students set and remain focused on clear goals in live.

Keywords: truancy. Effects of Truancy, Remedies of Truancy, Secondary school Truancy

INTRODUCTION

Truancy can be defined as "any absence from school not authorized by the school" (Bicknell, 1999). It could also be defined as the 'persistent, habitual and unexplained absence from school of a child of compulsory school age' (House of Representatives Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training, 1996 Truancy and Exclusion from School (TAEFS Report)

Le Rich (1995) defined a truant as a student who might be absent from school altogether or from a particular lesson or lessons with or without parental knowledge. According to Reid (2000:7) the prospective high risk truancy cases are learners who have experienced any of the following severely punished or bullied recently. Unduly moody or fearful; been under pressure from examinations; quarreled seriously with an educator; has become withdrawn and has overreacted to teasing or other classroom situations. All these are warning signs that a student could be on the way to becoming a truant. These could also be linked to emotional stress and psychological difficulties suffered by all learner occasionally. It could also be a manifestation of

severe traumatic encounters that learners may experience in their broader social context from time to time (Maynard, 2006)

Reid (2001) States that a higher proportion of truants than the normal school age population portray the following characteristics: They have higher levels of anxiety when in school and about school work in general; Tend to have fewer friends in school; Fail to undertake their home work when it is given; Have lower long term career aspirations; enjoy school life less; are prone to periods of absence from school due to ill health, and prefer fewer and different subjects to learners from similar social economic backgrounds who are good attendees.

The effects of truancy are enormous. According to Bimler and Kirland (2001) 40% of all street robberies in London, 33% of car thefts, 25% of burglaries' and 20% of cases of criminal damage were committed by 10 to 16 year olds in 1999 and are blamed on truants. Reid (2003) listed truancy as the greatest predictor of juvenile and adult crimes and of psychiatric problems. Reid further suggests that two thirds of offenders begin their criminal activities while truanting. Maynard (2006) observes that the implications of non school attendance become more worrying when concern is drawn to instances of truancy leading to delinquency, social disorder and education failure. According to Rayner and Riding (1996) Truancy leads to criminality or social alienation. According Reid (2002), Other difficulties in adult life which can be linked to truancy include: The inability to settle into routine work and or marriage, frequent job changes, isolationism, pathological disorders, poverty, higher separation and divorce rates, living upon income support, illiteracy, depression, temper tantrums and involvement with social workers and social services. Truancy is also associated with a significantly higher likelihood of becoming a teenage parent and of being unemployed or homeless in latter life. Males who truant are more likely to marry girls who played truant at a similar age at school. These truant families tend to have sons and daughters who also play truancy hence perpetuating a truancy syndrome into the next generation (Maynard, 2006).

Kenya Vision 2030 set an overall goal to reduce illiteracy by increasing access to education, improving the transition rate from primary to secondary school and raising the relevance of education (Republic of Kenya, 2007). In Session Paper Number 1 of 2005 the Government of Kenya committed itself to improve the transition rate from primary to secondary schools to 70% by providing Free Secondary Education (FSE). In pursuance of this commitment the Ministry of Education (2008) issued a circular on introduction of Free Secondary Education in which the Government pledged to pay ksh.10, 265 per child per year in all public secondary schools. All this was geared towards having secondary school education especially in day secondary schools affordable by majority of Kenyans and the government then expected more enrolment and retention of students in secondary schools (Ministry of Education, 2008). These very good plans and objectives by the government can easily be jeopardized by truancy.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study was guided by the following objectives
  I.   **To determine the effects of truancy in Meru South Sub county secondary schools, Kenya**
  II. **To establish the remedies of truancy in Meru South Sub county secondary schools, Kenya**

LITERATURE REVIEW
According to Dupper (1993) the most serious implication of truancy is its correlation with dropout rates. Bell (1994) found a correlation of not less than 81% between truancy and

dropout rates. Maynard (2006) observes that it would appear there is a prognosis for truants in terms of completing their schooling, securing stable employment and fulfilling responsible citizenship, without being a burden to their future spouses, families, communities and the state, is uncertain. Maynard (2006) further observes that the phenomenon of truancy is serious enough to warrant a counseling program that will be effective in treating truants in the light of their difficulties in such a way that they will obtain a balanced perspective of the value of regular school attendance.

A research by Hosefield and Helmke (2004), studied the connection between well-being class climate and truancy rates and found that the higher the well-being of students and the better the relationship with teachers is rated, the lower the truancy rate. Lapan, Gysbers, and Sun (1997) surveyed a statewide sample of high school students and found that in schools where comprehensive guidance and counseling programs existed, several positive relationships between counseling programs and students existed.   These include: higher self-reported grades, student perceptions that they were being better prepared for their future, student perceptions that their schools were doing a better job providing information on post-secondary opportunities, and student perceptions that school climate was better.

Lifton (1994) identifies resilience as the human capacity of all individuals to transform and change, no matter what the risk; it is innate self-lighting mechanism (Werner and Smith 1992) according to Lifton (1994) resilience skill includes; teaching students to form relationships thereby gaining social competences, learning problem solving technique which incorporate meta-cognition, to develop a sense of identity whereby autonomy occurs and learning to plan and hope which translates into a sense of purpose and recognition of the future. To be able to teach resiliency skills, anyone involved with students must be able to recognize that everyone has innate resilience, and then the rebuilding of students resiliency can began.

Justin (2004) observed that attendance was greatly improved by interventions like a letter sent to parents informing them of their children's school attendance problem and a visit by school attendance officer. Difour (1983) outlined the following procedures used by west Chicago high schools regarding truancy. They include daily calls at home to parents of all those absent followed by forms to be completed, disciplinary actions against students for truanting, rewards and incentives for good attendance, graph chart showing students attendance and coordinating efforts of all individuals involved. Elburn (1983) found that when parents were contacted early, the incidences of truancy reduced.

Mason and Edie (1998) give a report on a program where a buddy system was developed in a Denver middle school. Thirty students with absentee problems selected a buddy forming a team. Teams were encouraged to call each other every night and agree to meet at a bus stop in the morning. The teams with an increased attendance were rewarded. This method of using students to monitor other students' attendance made significant strides in intervening in absence patterns of students and the middle school noted significant improvement in attendance rate by the end of the year.

Wheatly and Spillane (2001) suggests that schools need to develop an inclusive policy regarding attendance. That is a policy that includes students, teachers, administration, parents and the wider community in which the school is situated. Wheatly and Spillane (2001) further argues that without such a policy it is not uncommon to find that parents are often surprised and angry when they discover the broad discretion schools have in setting rules to punish

violators. Elburn (1983) further asserts that effective schools with high attendance levels tend to have a clearly stated and agreed policy that is known to staff, students and parents and is uniformly implemented.

According to Wheately and Spillane (2001) some schools have chosen to respond to truancy in a punitive manner, making little attempt to understand the antecedents of truancy. Ryan (1998) notes that such responses prove to be both ineffective and alienating for most truanting young people who are already experiencing problems with authority figures, this brief critical action only serves to confirm the students view of teachers and other adults as hostile adversaries.   Dryfoos (1990) concludes that misbehavior is not reduced by practices of suspension, detention, expulsion or employment of security guards. Gitonga (1997) observed that learners who admitted that they have once engaged in serious levels of truancy were likely to report low levels of exam performance. Eshiwani (1984) concluded that truancy in Kenyan schools affected truants academic performance.

Afande and Mathenge (2015) found that the approaches used in the management of truancy in secondary schools in Nyamira North district in kenya include the following: safe learning environments; Individualized Instruction; early childhood education; availability of truancy; early literacy development; using reinforcement and reward systems; effective monitoring, registration and recording of attendance; mentoring/tutoring; systemic renewal; family engagement; acting fast on learning absence; ordinances; school - community collaboration; after- school opportunities; using a variety of instructional approaches; welcome back to school; learning communities within schools; career and technical education; student welfare; personalized learning; life-skills education; tutoring and mentor systems; counseling and therapy; in-service training; and alternative schooling.

METHODOLOGY
Research design
This study adopted descriptive survey research design. A descriptive survey design attempts to describe what is in the social setting like the school in the current study, the dependent variables were the effects of truancy while the independent variables are the remedies of truancy.

Study Population.
 The study population included 1,650 form two students, 30 principals, 30 class teachers and 30 counseling teachers from 30 schools in Meru South District Kenya. Form two students were selected for this study because they are at the prime of adolescence stage. This is a volatile stage and they are likely to get involved in truancy as they attempt to experiment their sexuality, cognitive development, drug abuse, interests in firms and movies which would negatively affect their academic performance.

Sampling Procedure and Sample size
Stratified random sampling was used to select public secondary schools. Secondary schools were therefore stratified into three categories namely Boys schools only, Girls schools only and co-educational schools. Kathuri and Pals (1993) formula was used to calculate the number of selected form two students. In each of the schools selected data was collected, principals, counseling teachers and form two class teachers for the purpose of triangulation. Therefore, 298 Form 2 students from 8 schools, 8 Principals 8 Counseling teachers and 8 form 2 class teachers participated in the study.

Data Analyses

Data was analyzed quantitavely using descriptive statistics like percentages, frequency count, pie chart and bar charts. Data was manually analyzed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first objective of the study was to establish the effects of truancy. Respondents were given a questionnaire with suggestions of the possible effects as well as open ended questions to enable them list other effects outside the suggested ones. The responses they gave on the effects of truancy are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Effects of truancy

	Effects of truancy		Student %	Class Teachers	GSC Teachers	Principals
1	Poor academic performance	258	86.6	100	100	100
2	Wastage of learning time	251	84.2	87.5	87.5	100
3	Poor class & school performance	248	83.2	75	37.5	100
4	Poor relationship with teachers and Parents	245	82.2	87.5	75	100
5	eventually dropping out of school	234	78.5	75	87.5	100
6	Poor health	183	61.4	62.5	87.5	75
7	Poverty to ……. & family in future	174	58.4	50	37.5	62.5
8	Involvement in delinquent behavior	168	56.4	50	87.5	87.5
9	Family instability in future	156	52.3	62.5	37.5.5	67.5
10	Social maladjustment	138	46.3	50	75	50
11	Stealing % robbery in later life	129	43.3	62.5	37.5	37.5
12	Insecurity in the society	118	39.6	50	37.5	37.5

From table 2, 88.6% of students, 100% class teachers, counseling teachers and principals indicated that truancy affects academic performance. Responses on that truancy affects learning time was students 84.2, class teachers 87.5 counseling teachers 87.5 and principals 100%. On poor class and school performance responses were students 83.2% class teachers 75% counseling teachers 37.5% and principals 100%. The selection for poor relationship with teachers and parents was student 82.2, class teacher 87.5 counseling teacher 75% and principals 100%. Responses that truants eventually drop out of school were 78.5% from students, class teachers' 75% counseling teachers 87.5% and principals 100%. That truancy can eventually lead to poor health responses were 61.4 from students, 62.5 class teachers, 87.5 counseling teachers and 75% from principals. Responses that truancy would lead to poverty to individual and family in later life were as follows students 58.4 class teachers 50%, Counseling teachers 37.5 % and principals 62.5%. Involvement with delinquent behavior was selected by 56.4%, students 50% class teachers, 87.5% counseling teachers and 87.5 principals. Responses for family sustainability in future were students 52.3%, class teachers 62.5%, counseling teachers 37.5% and principals 75%. Social maladjustment responses were students 46.3%, class teachers 50%, counseling teacher 75% and principals 50%. 43.3% students, 62.5% class

teachers, 37.5% counseling teachers and 37.5% principals selected stealing and robbery in later life. Lastly, responses to insecurity in the society were students 39.6, class teachers 50%, counseling teachers 37.5% and principals 37.5.

The second objective of the study was to establish the possible remedies to truancy. A questionnaire was given to the respondent with suggestions on the possible remedies to truancy for them to select the suggestion they agree with. The questionnaire also had open ended questions to allow the respondents make their own independent suggestions. The responses are shown in table 2.

Table 2: Remedies of Truancy

			students	Class teachers	Counsel teachers	Principals
1	Regular class meetings with class teachers	246	82.6	87.3	75	75
	Suspension of truants	233	78.2	50	37.5	75
	Strengthening guidance and counseling	228	76.5	50	75	87.5
	Encouraging truants to join groups of hard working focused students	224	75.2	62.5	87.5	67.5
	Involving parents in joint counseling	222	74.5	87.5	50	100
	Regular motivation talks involving parents teachers and students	219	73.5	87.5	75	87.5
	Involving peers in peer counseling	193	64.7	75	100	100
	Individual counseling	185	62.1	87.5	87.5	87.5
	Developing exciting co-curricular activities that interest the students	164	55	62.5	75	87.5
	Sitting exams on arrival form holidays	158	53	62.5	87.5	87.5
	Creating a friendly school atmosphere	154	51.7	75	62.5	100
	Training students on study techniques.	144	48.3	50	50	50
	Training students on personal organization	130	43.6	50	50	50

Table 2 shows that the responses on having regular class meeting as a remedy to truancy ranked highest with students having 82.6%, class teachers 87.5%, counseling teachers 75% and principals 75%. 78.2%, 50% class teachers, 75% counseling teacher and 87.5% principals suggested suspension of truants to curb truancy on strengthening guidance and counseling the responses were students 76.5%, class teachers 50%, counseling teachers 75% and principals 87.6%. Responded who suggested encouraging truants to join hard working and focused groups were 75.5% from students, class teachers 62.5% counseling teachers 87.5% and principals 67.5%. Involving parents in joint counseling attracted 74.5% student responses, 87.5% from class teachers, 50% counseling teachers and 100% from principals. 73.5% students, 87.5% principals selected regular motivation talks. Responses on involving peer counselors were as follows: students 64.7%, class teachers 75% counseling teachers 100% and

principals 100%, while 62.1% students, 87.5% class teachers, 87.5% counseling teachers and 87.5% principals suggested individual counseling. Responses that favored the development exciting co-curricular activities were 55% students, 62.5% class teachers, 75% counseling teachers and 87.5% principals. The responses for sitting for examination on arrival from holidays were students 53%, class teachers 62.5% counseling teachers 87.5% and principals 87.5%. Responses on creating a friendly school environment were students 51.7%, class teachers 75%, counseling teachers 62.5% and principals 100%. Training students on study techniques was selected by 48.3% students, 50% class teachers, 50% counseling teachers and 50% principals. The responses for training students on personal organization were 43.6 from students 50% class teachers 62.5% counseling teachers and 50% class teachers, 62.5% counseling teachers and 50% from principals.

DISCUSSION

Concerning effects of truancy, this study concurred with the findings of Glenn (2004) that truants are placed at a disadvantage both socially and academically because they miss a critical stage of interaction and development with peers whilst simultaneously minimizing the likelihood of academic progress and success. All the respondents in the study suggested that truancy not only affects the truants' academic performance but also their social life now and in future. The effects with high responses included poor academic performance, wastage of learning time, poor school and class performance, poor health, poverty to individual and family in future, involvement in delinquent behavior, family instability, social maladjustment, stealing and robbery as well as insecurity in the society.

These findings are also similar to the findings of Maynard (2006) who did his study in South Africa and concluded that truants tend to be shy, inward looking people, and many are grateful for any interests and assistance which they receive from empathetic sources. That truants know failure and like most humans yearn for success but their opportunities for success is limited because they come from low income families and usually do not have the intellectual capacity to succeed with academic tasks in school. Maynard (2006) further observes that truants feel confused, less part of a community, general helplessness at school and unable to influence decision making. It also appears they stay out of school for trivial reasons, are not liked much by other children, often appears miserable, tearful, unhappy or distressed. They have poor concentration or short attention span, are often disobedient, often tell lies and have stolen things on one or more occasions. Bimler and Kirland (2001) found that 40% of all street robberies in London, 33% of car thefts, 25% of burglaries and 20% of cases of criminal damage in 1999 were committed by between 10 to 16 year olds and are blamed on truants. This further agrees with Hearly (In Smith, 1996) that all misdemeanors like theft, running away from home, use and distribution of drugs, burglary, vandalism, assault and robbery are routed in truancy. The findings of this study reflect that truancy has far reaching effects on not only on the truants but on their future career and families as well as the entire society.

Concerning remedies the study suggested various interventions that can be used to mitigate on the challenge of truancy in secondary schools. Most of the remedies recommended are school based and they include; regular class meetings to discuss effects of truancy as well as give students opportunity to talk about their challenges and dissatisfaction with the school as well as make suggestion on ways of improving the school; strengthening of guidance and counseling to address truants needs, involving parents in joint counseling, regular motivation talks, developing peer counseling programs. Strengthening and making co-curricular activities more interesting and exciting for students, creating a friendly school atmosphere, training students

on study techniques as well as personal organization, sitting examination immediately students come back from holiday and punishing the truants by suspending them from school. These finding are in agreement with the finding of a research by Dwyer (1996) which pointed out the various methods that may be used by school communities to attach and connect students to the school. This can be done by building an environment that has all or some of the following features: a supportive school culture, friendly and mutually respectful teacher/student relationships, opportunities for cooperative learning, catering for diversity, options for practical and applied knowledge, smaller scale school structures, avenues for school participation, collaborative work by teachers in curriculum planning and practice, flexibility in timetabling, subject choice and school organization, work organization and articulated curriculum linking cooperative learning practices to more individualized and independent modes of study.

As a remedy to Truancy the study also found that the ministry of education had developed a policy of having a class attendance registers which expects students to be checked and marked in the morning and afternoon as the lesions began. Other schools had gone further to develop a lesson attendance register where attendance was checked in every lesson. This is in agreement with other research findings by Saunders (1979) that early identification and apprehension of persistent truants is essential and demands vigilance on the part of the teachers in indentifying truants at an early stage. After indentifying them the teacher should befriend them to form a relationship that can help the truant feel attached not only to the teacher but also to the school. This attachment may end up preventing further truanting.

CONCLUSION

With regard to the findings of the study, it is concluded that truancy is a challenge in secondary schools and it has adverse effects to the truants themselves, their school and the larger society. Respondents were able to identify the effects truancy on the individual which include; poor academic performance, wastage of learning time, poor relationship with teachers and parents eventually dropping out of school. Effects to the school include poor class and school performance and time wastage by teachers in following up truants and counseling them. Effects on the society include: Poverty to the truants family in future due to unemployment, family instability, insecurity as the truants go out stealing and committing other delinquent behavior both now as they truant and in future as they get involved in robberies and other crimes due to their social maladjustment

With regard to remedies, the findings of the study were that it is absolutely necessary that quick solutions to absenteeism be found to prevent its adverse effects. Respondents identified several remedial measures which include regular class meetings with the class teachers, regularly checking attendance through class and lesson attendance registers by class and subject teachers, strengthening group, individual, peer as well as joint counseling in secondary schools, regular motivation talks to students on study skills and personal organization and developing exciting co-curricular activities that will be attractive to the students including truants. The study recommends that class and subject teacher do the recording of absent students themselves. The findings were that in more than half the school studied attendance register were marked by the class monitors who are likely to cover their friends by marking them to be present when they are absent. School principals should regularly, at least once a week check the class and lesson attendance register and follow up those who missed lessons. The ministry should strengthen guidance and counseling in schools by having regular in-service training for counseling teachers; making it a policy that all school select and train peer counselors as well as substantially reduce the load for counseling teachers to give them more

time to organize guidance and counseling for students. Curriculum developers should also re-evaluate the school curriculum with a view to reduce the teaching and learning load in order to leave enough time for co-curricular activities as well as time for group, individual and peer counseling. Schools should hold regular parents teacher association meeting and involve the students in making jointly agreed policies on truancy. These meetings should also regularly address the effects of truancy. Truants lack goals in life so the study recommends that students be guided on careers from as early as form 1. Schools can organize career days where they invite professionals to give career information to students. Students need to be encouraged to set their goals that will guide their school life.

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Could We Catch a Glimpse of An Entrepreneurial Citizen? - A Qualitative Study in Upper Secondary School in Sweden.

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Abstract

For many years, educational curricula have been a tool for countries to foster the 'right' kind of future citizens. Since the 1980s, there has been an increasing global desire to create entrepreneurial citizens who possess certain abilities. This article will analyse what kind of citizen appears to be fostered when entrepreneurship is emphasised in school. The study is based on empirical research carried out in three geographically separated upper-secondary schools participating in an entrepreneurial program in Sweden. Interviews were performed with pupils in single-gender focus groups. Interviews with teachers were also completed with the help of cognitive maps. Furthermore, a framework was formulated for understanding the general abilities all pupils should develop according to secondary education curricula. These abilities formed four categories: factual knowledge/abilities, learning abilities, civic understanding/abilities and entrepreneurial abilities. When pupils' voices are heard, and when their stories and conceptions about their future abilities are defined, it is clear that stories about entrepreneurial abilities are predominant. However, no stories about civic understanding abilities or learning abilities are given, and this is the most interesting result of this study. Is this lack of pupils' understanding regarding the importance of civic abilities worrying and something to be concerned about when fostering future citizens through education?

Keywords: entrepreneurship in school; citizenship; abilities; secondary school,

INTRODUCTION

Schools and education have always played an important role in the development of future citizens. Educational curricula have therefore historically reflected various perspectives on how to foster the ideal citizen, with different abilities and skills desirable in particular time periods. In Sweden, the elementary school was created in 1842. At that time, the ambition was to create an obedient national citizenry through Christian education with a clear nationalist orientation (National Agency for Education, 2011b). After the World Wars, the focus in education shifted, moving towards the construction of democratic citizens with critical awareness, independence and willingness to cooperate (SOU, 1946:31). This was followed by a period in which the primary goal of education was to create equality and build a non-segregated society (Dahlstedt and Olson, 2014; Rothstein and Westehäll, 2005).

Globalisation and marketisation started to influence school policy more directly in the early 1990s, and organisations like the European Union and the Organisation for Economic and Co-operation and Development (OECD) came to play an active role in formulating curricula—not only in Sweden but also in Western countries (Olofsson, 2009; Sivesind, Van der Akker and Rosenmund, 2012). A noticeable example of this influence is the notion of 'lifelong learning', which originated from the international debate on economic growth and employment problems in the 1980s and was particularly significant in Swedish upper-secondary school curricula in 1994. Education was supposed to create employable citizens who were able to adjust to changes in working life, new technologies, internationalisation and a knowledge-based society. Around the same time, the ideas of fostering entrepreneurs and developing entrepreneurial abilities were introduced into policy as important pedagogical needs by OECD (1989) and the European Commission (1998). The European Commission stated that knowledge about entrepreneurship was beneficial for everyone since it would stimulate young people to become more creative and more confident in whatever they might undertake (Leffler and Mahieu, 2010).

Entrepreneurship in school as an approach to teaching and learning was introduced from two perspectives: a narrow and a broad perspective. Overall, the focus of the narrow perspective is on how to start and run businesses, whereas the broad perspective focuses on how to stimulate entrepreneurial abilities in every school subject. Thus, entrepreneurship in school became connected with a variety of teaching methods—activity-based teaching, working with problem-solving, authentic issues, working with surrounding society and teachers working as co-workers–with a primary focus on active learning (Backström-Widjeskog, 2010; Jones and Iredale, 2014; Leffler, 2009; Svedberg, 2007; Bager and Løwe Nielsen, 2009, Cope, 2005). In Swedish upper-secondary school curricula, both perspectives are included:

> *The school should stimulate pupils' creativity, curiosity and self-confidence as well as their desire to explore and transform new ideas into action, and find solutions to problems. Pupils should develop their ability to take initiatives and responsibility, and to work both independently and together with others. The school should contribute to pupils developing knowledge and attitudes that promotes entrepreneurship, enterprise and innovative thinking. As a result the opportunities for pupils to start and run a business will increase. Entrepreneurial skills are valuable in working and social life and for further studies. (National Agency of Education, 2011b:5-6)*

There has been considerable debate on entrepreneurship in school, both as a concept and as a phenomenon (Berglund and Holmgren 2013; Johannisson, 2010; Leffler, 2009). While the concept of entrepreneurship originated in the economic and financial sectors, much of the research on entrepreneurship education is related to the field of economics rather than the field of education (e.g. Hytti et al., 2010; Jones and Iredale, 2010; Lackéus, 2013; Sarasvathy and Venkataraman, 2011; Vaidya, 2014). Critics argue that increased marketisation and the ideology of neo-liberalism may have too much impact on education, and that the emphasis on entrepreneurship may become more essential than solidarity and democracy, raising questions as to what values entrepreneurship brings to education (e.g. Carlbaum, 2012; Dahlstedt and Hertzberg, 2011, 2014; Dahlstedt and Olson, 2014). Clearly, there are different beliefs and understandings about what entrepreneurship in school includes—and where and when it is possible (Svedberg, 2010, Leffler, 2014). Even so, considerable efforts have been made to implement entrepreneurship in Swedish schools (Holmgren and Berglund, 2007; Leffler, 2006; National Agency of Education, 2010), and different educational initiatives have been adopted in Sweden to educate teachers to work with entrepreneurship in school.

The present study is part of a three-year school improvement program on entrepreneurship in school, launched in Sweden in 2012 and funded and governed by an independent research institute, Ifous (Innovation, research and development in school). The program involves teachers and principals in secondary and upper-secondary schools from different parts of Sweden (27 schools in total). The overall aim of the program is to implement entrepreneurship in the participating schools, supported by the program.

AIM AND METHOD

Few studies provide empirical findings on pupils' experiences and voices regarding entrepreneurship in upper-secondary school in relation to their teachers' views. The aim of this article is to study what kind of citizen appears to be fostered when entrepreneurship is emphasised in school. We will discuss this through three perspectives: curricula, pupils' voices and teachers' voices. The article is organised as follows. We will start with the theoretical framework and then present the results in three steps: first there will be a description of what kinds of abilities must be brought forth as the overall task of upper-secondary schools; second, there will be an analysis of what kinds of abilities the pupils emphasise as important for their future lives; third, as the pupils almost entirely emphasise entrepreneurial abilities, there will be an analysis of teachers' views on entrepreneurial abilities. Finally, we will discuss entrepreneurship in school and its relation to the school's fostering mission.

The empirical material consists of curricula for upper-secondary schools, research materials, policy reports and interviews with pupils and teachers. The sampling of schools was done in two stages. The first stage was based on a questionnaire by which participating schools, which extensively indicated that they were working with entrepreneurship in school, were identified. In stage two, three of those schools, geographically separated in Sweden, were selected. A total of 90 pupils, ranging from 16–19 years old and derived from both vocational programs and programs preparing for higher education, were interviewed for about one hour in focus groups divided by gender (26 total groups). This design was chosen to allow for dynamic interactions in which the pupils' voices could come together to offer their perspectives about the abilities they believed to be important to their future lives (cf. Morgan and Kreuger, 1993; Tursunovic, 2002; Wibeck, 2010). In addition, 14 teachers (10 male and 4 female) were interviewed regarding entrepreneurial abilities in education, using cognitive maps (Scherp, 2002, 2013). According to Scherp (2013), a cognitive map can be seen as a graphical representation and an overview of an individual's mental landscape and his or her conception of a phenomenon, in this case, a teacher's conception about the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in school. The transcribed interviews were systematically organised with the help of NVivo, a data analysis software application designed for qualitative research.

In research as well as in practice, different concepts are used when discussing and defining entrepreneurship in a school context. In this article, three main concepts are used: entrepreneurial abilities, which refer to the entrepreneurial abilities used in the Swedish curricula; entrepreneurship in school, which aims to stimulate entrepreneurial abilities, both from broad and narrow perspectives; and entrepreneurial citizens, referring to someone who has developed and possesses the entrepreneurial abilities determined to be necessary in tomorrow's society.

FRAMEWORK

Entrepreneurial citizens

Studying how young people develop themselves as citizens is a complex task, but education and its relationship to the development of future citizens is an established area of educational research (e.g. Lister et al., 2007; Olson et al. 2014; Keating, 2014). However, few studies have aimed at problematising entrepreneurship in school and citizenship from different perspectives (e.g. Dahlstedt and Hertzberg, 2012; Deuchar, 2004, 2006; Holmgren and From, 2005; Korhonen et al., 2012).

Marshall (1950) established the long agreed upon definition of citizenship. This definition consists of three types of citizenship, which guarantee individuals a number of rights but also feature obligations: civil, political and social citizenship. Education is considered to be a part of social citizenship and entails rights for the people while guaranteeing that the nation is able to maintain the welfare state. Today's research takes a broader and more complex approach to citizenship, including issues about identity, social position, cultural beliefs and affiliation (Fejes, 2012; Keating, 2014). Since the late 1980s, there has also been discussion regarding active and passive citizenship (Hartsman and Persson, 2013; Irisdotter Aldenmyr et al., 2013). Active citizenship is defined by the European Commission in the following way:

> *Learning for active citizenship includes access to the skills and competences that young people will need for effective economic participation under conditions of technological modernization, economic globalization, and, very concretely, transnational European labour markets. At the same time, the social and communicative competences that are both part of new demands and which flow from changing work and study contexts are themselves of critical importance for living in culturally, ethnically and linguistically plural worlds. These competences are not simply desirable for some, they are becoming essential for all. (European Commission, 1998:12)*

The active citizen is described as someone who can actively participate in the labour market in a changing world and is also social and communicative to cope with social life. This definition of active citizenship is consistent with what Carlbaum (2012), Dahlstedt and Hertzberg (2011) and Dahlstedt and Olson (2014) argue emerges as the dominant civic discourse in the governing documents of Swedish upper-secondary schools. The definition of a citizen that Marshall presented in the 1950s seems to no longer be accurate; rather, a different view has emerged of a citizen who can no longer expect anything but is instead expected to be active, responsible and have the ability to quickly adapt to current circumstances (Carlsson, 2006; Nordin, 2012; Scourfield, 2005). Citizenship has become something that is constructed and created rather than something that people have and are (Chriushank, 1999). The fostering of children and young people in school is framed by the current dominant discourse regarding the qualities of an imaginary desirable future citizen. Education reforms, therefore, design and frame what is considered to constitute desirable citizenship in the future (Carlbaum, 2012).

However, in the dominant discourse as well as in policy, entrepreneurial abilities appear to be crucial for becoming an active citizen, and the desire to foster entrepreneurial citizens does not appear to be decreasing; in fact, it appears to be reinforced. The European Commission (2012) argues that the development of a citizen possessing entrepreneurial abilities is essential for domestic growth and vital for sustainable local and regional development as well as social cohesion. It can thus be argued that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial abilities are important concepts for defining what is considered essential to citizenship in our time—and in

future society—by the Swedish curricula. In many ways, it seems like the idea of an active citizen coincides with an individual that possesses entrepreneurial abilities.

Abilities

In recent years, empirical research has emerged regarding the abilities important for success later in life (e.g. Chuna and Heckman, 2010; Vestman and Lindqvist, 2012). According to Brunelli and Schlotter (2011), the entrepreneurial abilities presented in the EU key competences could be considered non-cognitive. Non-cognitive abilities refer to attitudes, behaviour and social emotions and include self-confidence, motivation, self-discipline and good manners, whereas cognitive abilities are linked to mental activity and can be measured via intelligence and knowledge tests (National Agency for Education, 2013). In practise, it can be difficult to distinguish between non-cognitive and cognitive abilities. Assessments in schools have traditionally been focused on cognitive abilities since they are easier to measure. Nylén and Skarin (2009) argue that extensive national and international measurement entails the risk that teaching will be based on what is to be evaluated. According to Lackéus and Moberg (2013), entrepreneurship in school is on a collision course with the prevailing social trend towards more centrally controlled schemes with several national examinations.

FINDINGS

The present study was conducted in three stages. The point of departure was an analysis of one part of the upper-secondary school curriculum, called Tasks of the School, in order to condense and crystallise which abilities are highlighted as the most important for a pupil to have acquired by the time his or her education is completed. The next step was to identify pupils' conceptions about their future abilities by conducting interviews and comparing the results with the abilities included in the curriculum. The last step was to review teachers' views of entrepreneurial abilities since the pupils were emphasising those abilities in the study.

Tasks of the school

School curricula represent society's demands for what education and training should contain and develop and also reflect what type of future citizen is desired. In the Swedish upper-secondary school curriculum, it is specified that education should transfer values, impart knowledge and prepare pupils to participate and work actively in the community. Necessary abilities for pupils to acquire are described in the curriculum under the heading Tasks of the school. The model shown in Table 1 illustrates how these abilities are analysed and categorised into four themes: Factual knowledge abilities, Learning abilities, Civic understanding/abilities and Entrepreneurial abilities. Factual knowledge abilities can be viewed as cognitive abilities, whereas the others are considered non-cognitive. These abilities are explicitly formulated in the curriculum. The first category is about equipping pupils with factual knowledge, which should provide them with a common framework of knowledge and references that mirrors the current society.

The second and third categories are about equipping pupils with certain artefacts so they can become active citizens in a changing society. Both categories are stated as fostering tasks. The fourth category is about developing entrepreneurial abilities so that pupils are prepared to be entrepreneurs in society, whether in the labour market or in further studies, and this category is also regarded as a fostering task. In the curriculum, no category of abilities is described as superior to any other category; all four categories are defined as equally important.

Table 1 Tasks of the school

Factual knowledge abilities	Learning abilities	Civic understanding/ abilities	Entrepreneurial abilities
All Subjects Health Lifestyle Consumer issues European Union	Lifelong learning Able to assimilate knowledge Critical thinking Dynamic thinking Personal standpoint	Democratic values Human Rights International solidarity Multiculturalism Future understanding Environmental awareness	Creativity Curiosity Self-Confidence Transform new ideas into action Solve problems Take initiative Responsibility Work independently Work with others Social competences Communicative competences
Cognitive abilities	Non-Cognitive abilities	Non-Cognitive abilities	Non-Cognitive abilities
Goal	**Goal**	**Goal**	**Goal**
Give the pupils a common frame of reference	The ability to live in a changing society	Create an engaged and active citizen	Create an entrepreneurial citizen, who is able to start a business, think innovatively and promote entrepreneurship The entrepreneurial abilities should also prepare pupils for labour market and further studies
Tasks	**Tasks**	**Tasks**	**Tasks**
Knowledge tasks	Fostering tasks	Fostering tasks	Fostering tasks

Pupils' voices

The following section presents pupils' views on which abilities they believe will be necessary in the future. The same categories as above, derived from the curriculum, were used as a framework for categorising the abilities pupils mentioned during the interviews. The numbers in parentheses show the number of groups who expressed the importance of the specific ability.

Table 2 Pupils' voices about needed abilities

Factual knowledge	Learning abilities	Civic understanding/ abilities	Entrepreneurial abilities
English (4) Mathematics (3) Electrical knowledge (3) Computer science (2) Swedish (2) Language (2) Religion (1) Economics (1) Psychology (1) Physics (1) Rhetoric (1) Leadership (1)			Social competence (12) Working with others (9) Responsibility (7) Working independently (6) Communicative competences (4) Self-confidence (3) Taking initiative (3)

Placing pupils' voices and their conceptions of future abilities into the four categories allows the pupils' statements to be clarified. As can been seen in Table 2, not a single pupil mentioned abilities that could be placed in the categories of civic understanding/abilities or learning abilities. On the other hand, entrepreneurial abilities were frequently expressed. However, as mentioned above, all four categories have the same importance and weight within the curriculum were Task of the school is presented. The pupils ranked some entrepreneurial abilities as having higher value than others, for instance, social competences, working with others and responsibility. Abilities such as curiosity, creativity, problem-solving and

transforming new ideas into action were not brought up at all. Other abilities not described in the curriculum—but closely connected to entrepreneurial abilities—were also mentioned, such as being proactive, being motivated and learning by doing. Additional abilities were also highlighted. Some of them related to practical matters like being able to pay bills, clean a house and being experienced:

> *You should not be afraid to make new contacts. I do not think it's so important that you are good at spelling. (Girl, 17 years)*

It is notable that factual knowledge is not a priority for young pupils when they consider the abilities they will need in the future. Understanding how to network, learning responsibility and daring to take initiative are more important than knowing how to spell or understanding integrals:

> *The most important thing you learn in school that really matters is responsibility and stuff. To solve the double integrals is perhaps not the most important. (Boy, 17 years)*

This is also visible in Table 2, where only a few groups believed that acquisition of knowledge in different subjects is important. Have non-cognitive abilities become more important as the curriculum presents them as essential for getting a job and coping with a changing society? This is in line with the previous ideas of Heckman et al. (2006), who state that non-cognitive abilities are important for pupils' chances to be attractive to the labour market:

> *Take initiative and therefore dare, dare to fail in order to succeed. (Girl, 18 years)*

The intense contemporary public debate on issues regarding international tests and international ranking (i.e. PISA) seems to have had little impact on the pupils, and Swedish students' test results have dramatically decreased during recent years. While pupils are talking about the need for entrepreneurial abilities, in the public debate regarding schools, the discussion is often centred on international knowledge measurements and the general position that pupils' knowledge of different subjects must increase. This highlights an interesting underlying contradiction between the view of the individual (what I benefit from in my future life) and the dominant discourse (what the future society benefits from). What discourse is dominant in the classroom? Which values and abilities are mediated and emphasised?

This underlying contradiction reveals the complexity of the fostering tasks for the entire school system, which in turn relates to the multiplex mission teachers have in schools and the inadequacy of strategic thinking regarding how the development of democratic abilities and values should permeate the whole of education (Broman, 2009; Englund, 2003). As a consequence, it appears that these abilities are not really visible or understandable for the pupils. At the same time, pupils and young people are often described as more individualistic, and therefore they do not see civic abilities as important (e.g. Beach and Dovemark, 2011; Dalton, 2006). Pupils do not view learning abilities as important either, and according to Boström (2011) and Jørgensen (2010), there is too little time devoted in schools to deepening those abilities.

When summarising pupils' conceptions about future abilities, it is obvious that they are closely connected to entrepreneurial abilities, and learning abilities and civic understanding/abilities are not mentioned at all. One explanation for the dominance of entrepreneurial abilities among

the pupils could be that the schools are participating in a school improvement program focused on entrepreneurship in school; thus, entrepreneurial abilities may have been emphasised in their education and presumably considered to be valuable. This school improvement program is conducted in an educational context, where the presumed benefit of developing young people's entrepreneurial abilities has been a dominating discourse for some time (Deuchar, 2006; Johansen, 2012; Jones and Iredale, 2010; Moberg, 2014; Otterborg, 2011). The presumed advantages of integrating entrepreneurship in school curricula have been discussed since the 1980s, and they have had an impact on education and debates regarding school improvement (Mahieu, 2006), which in turn may have affected teachers' and pupils' views of what is important to learn in school. In order to gain a deeper understanding of the complexity of the process of fostering future citizens, it therefore becomes relevant to analyse the teacher's views on entrepreneurial abilities.

Teachers' views on entrepreneurial abilities

As described above, teachers were asked to explain and discuss their views on entrepreneurial abilities and to present them in a cognitive map. In Table 3 below, the answers from the cognitive maps are condensed. The number in parentheses indicates the number of teachers who mentioned each of the abilities listed.

Table 3. Teachers' views on entrepreneurial abilities

Entrepreneurial abilities	
Creativity (6)	Working with others (3)
Responsibility (6)	Communicative competences (1)
Taking initiative (5)	Working independently (1)
Self-confidence (4)	Social competences (1)
Curiosity (3)	Solving problems (1)
Transforming new ideas into action (3)	

Table 3 illustrates that when teachers defined entrepreneurial abilities, they primarily talked about creativity, responsibility and taking initiative. They also mentioned other abilities not stated in the curriculum that they understood to be related to entrepreneurial abilities for instance, lust and needs, enthusiasm, motivations and the ability to become a proactive person. Some other abilities the teachers highlighted were learning abilities, such as boundless learning, interest in learning and hunger for knowledge. In teachers' statements about what characterised pupils who possess entrepreneurial abilities, learning and interest in learning appeared to be significant:

He has a hunger, he wants to learn, he really wants to learn. (Male teacher)

One would hope that all pupils would be interested to learn. It is clear that they are not interested in all subjects, but that an entrepreneurial pupil has a genuine motive to learn new things. I think that it is this kind of pupil. (Female teacher)

Active I think, interested I think, do not know if it's silly, but I think that if you work entrepreneurially, there is a greater chance that you become interested as a pupil and also active as well. That's what I think is the meaning of entrepreneurship in school, the pupil should be active and, not just sit and receive knowledge. (Female teacher)

Pupils possessing entrepreneurial abilities are thus pictured as pupils who have a great interest in school and are engaged, active and creative. However, these are not abilities that the pupils mentioned as important. In fact, pupils emphasised different entrepreneurial abilities

than the teachers, and they defined different abilities as entrepreneurial. For instance, pupils emphasised social competence, working together with others and working independently, whereas teachers highlighted creativity—an ability the pupils did not mention at all.

It is obvious that even though the pupils emphasised entrepreneurial abilities as important for their future, they did not agree with teachers as to which entrepreneurial abilities are important. However, there was a single ability that both teachers and pupils highlighted: responsibility. This is one of the most common abilities teachers mentioned when discussing which entrepreneurial abilities they thought were most important for pupils:

> *But I still think they will land in responsibility and some may not have a clue. I think, but I do not know how the allocation is but I have a feeling of that the majority will talk about responsibility. (Female teacher)*

> *They will talk a lot about responsibility. I believe that they will talk about things that can be put under the concept responsibility. (Female teacher)*

The concept of responsibility has become more evident in recent curricula in Swedish schools, but it can be tracked much further back in the educational discourse, with different content and different meanings. Since the 1960s and 1970s, the concept has changed from a sense of cooperative responsibility to an individual responsibility associated with flexibility, individualism and a desire to have an autonomous and responsible pupil who works toward established goals (Arnot, 2004; Sjöberg, 2006). According to Dahlstedt (2007), an active, self-conscious and responsible person represents an ideal citizen. Responsibility is an important issue when entrepreneurship is carried out in school because it is largely based upon the motivation of the pupils.

Thus, similar to the contradiction between the curricula and pupils' views, there is a contradiction between the pupils' views and those of their teachers. Research reported by Carlbaum (2012), Dahlstedt and Hertzberg (2011) and Dahlstedt and Olson (2014) indicates that there are two dominant discourses regarding citizenship in the Swedish upper-secondary school curriculum. One focuses on the entrepreneurial citizen, described as a citizen ready to actively take part in society, and the other is a more social and communicative citizen, ready to manage social life. Those discourses may be understood and interpreted differently by teachers and the pupils, where the teachers are trying to adjust to the entrepreneurial discourse and the pupils to the idea of social and communicative citizenship. This is in line with Ball (2010), who states that the mechanisms of an 'advanced' liberal society alter the very meaning of being a teacher, creating new teacher subjects that talk about and emphasise neo-liberal values—which are often referred to in education as connected to developing entrepreneurial abilities (Carlbaum, 2012; Dahlstedt and Olson, 2014; Komulainen et al., 2011).

CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

The aim of this article was to study what kind of citizen appears to be fostered when entrepreneurship is emphasised in school. To fulfil this aim, we analysed a part of the curriculum and interviews with both pupils and teachers. The result from the analyses of the curriculum indicated four main categories of abilities that pupils are supposed to develop during upper-secondary school. Three of those categories are considered fostering tasks: Learning abilities, Civic understanding/abilities and Entrepreneurial abilities. The goal of each

of these is to create citizens prepared for active and flexible lives after leaving school. The fourth category is a knowledge task, that is, giving pupils solid factual awareness about a range of different subjects. All the abilities described should transfer values, impart knowledge and prepare pupils to act and work in the community.

Fostering pupils' civic development in school is a multifaceted issue, but by taking an educational position the school is also, by extension, defining the meaning of a good citizen and what kind of society such a citizen is expected to join. This study highlights the complexity of the process of fostering future citizens, particularly in terms of the contradictions between the views of the curricula, the pupils and the teachers. Entrepreneurship in school appears to affect the way in which pupils relate to entrepreneurial abilities. It is possible to catch a glimpse of entrepreneurial citizenship in the pupils' conceptions regarding the abilities that they believe will be important to their futures. One interpretation for this is that the pupils have adapted to the prevailing entrepreneurial citizen discourse, and that they recognise some additional abilities as useful. It is essential to remember that a school can never be regarded as culturally self-contained, and pupils are always shaped and formed as citizens outside the school through friends, family, media, social media, regional, national and international discourses and so on.

Teachers in the study were asked to give their views about entrepreneurial abilities since those were dominant in the pupils' answers about necessary future abilities. However, the teachers emphasised other abilities than the pupils did. While the teachers expressed that their mind-sets were changing and that they used rhetoric connected to entrepreneurial abilities more frequently, there remains a gap between teachers and pupils. Teaching is all about the development of pupils' mind-sets and vocabularies, and an important objective for the school is to include students in different discursive communities—that is, to equip them with different concepts and ways of thinking (Dysthe, 2001). As the study shows, pupils consider some entrepreneurial abilities within the entrepreneurial discourse important for handling the future. Interestingly, the teachers were, to a large extent, emphasising creativity, whereas the pupils did not talk about it at all. The pupils did not talk about solidarity and social engagement either, and this leads to a question: What kind of entrepreneurial citizen is being shaped? Does a more social and communicative citizen emerge as the students talk to a great extent about social competences?

As Fernandez (2012) indicates, the fostering tasks for schools are composed both implicitly and explicitly, concerning different values and particular cultural characteristics, implying that some citizens/pupils are not fully included. In conclusion, there are concerns about highlighting entrepreneurial abilities. There are also class and gender perspectives (e.g. Beach and Dovemark, 2011; Carlbaum, 2012; Korhonen, Komulainen and Räty, 2011; Leffler, 2012; Sjöberg, 2011) as well as a concern that democratic values must stand back in education, as the results indicate in this case. The European Union has stressed the importance of citizens becoming more entrepreneurial in all walks of life. In many ways, it seems as if the concept of the active citizen coincides with the definition of the entrepreneurial citizen. Hence, the question is whether the desire to foster entrepreneurial citizens undermines other highly valued abilities connected to civic understanding/abilities, learning abilities and factual knowledge. Is there, as Irisdotter et al. (2013) discuss, a neo-liberal colouring of the concept of citizenship, moving away from democratic and solidarity values, gradually taking place in education? The challenge perhaps lies in achieving an educational balance that enables the fostering of cosmopolitan identity (Hargraves, 2003). It appears that schools and teachers must deepen their knowledge of how to use entrepreneurial abilities to widen and integrate both learning abilities and civic abilities in a common fostering task. The most important result

of this study indicates that we should reflect on what we value and what we emphasise in education. The lack of pupils' acknowledgment of and concern for civic abilities is worrying.

This study has also raised several questions requiring further investigation. For example, are pupils actually becoming entrepreneurial citizens or is this just rhetoric? What entrepreneurial abilities must teachers really talk about with their pupils in the course of their daily teaching practices? Does every pupil have access to entrepreneurship in school that will allow him or her the opportunity to 'qualify' in society and become an entrepreneurial citizen?

> *The relationship between enterprise and citizenship education is a close one, and it is possible that one may lend itself to the other. But the potential of enterprise education as a means of promoting the new expectations of the citizenship agenda will perhaps depend very much on how schools conceptualise their meaning of enterprise' to begin with. (Deuchar, 2004:238)*

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An Analysis of the Role of the Male and Female District Hearing Officers and the Effectiveness of this Role

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Abstract

The Texas Education Code (TEC) contains a provision called "Safe Schools" that holds that students who exhibit discipline and behavioral problems may be suspended from school, removed to a disciplinary alternative education program, or expelled and placed in a juvenile justice alternative education program. The TEC mandates that before students are subjected to these disciplinary measures, each student must be provided with a due process hearing. At most independent school districts (ISDs) in South Texas, the Hearing Officers are responsible for facilitating the due process procedures. However, one problem at hand is that there are no formal guidelines, legal or administrative, that clearly define the case management approaches to be followed by the Hearing Officer. Notably, such approaches can provide guidance to Hearing Officers about the appropriate measures to take in balancing discipline and the educational needs and outcomes of at-risk youths; in respecting and upholding the dignity of the student being disciplined; and in ensuring that such students learn from the consequences of their school violations. Using the single case study approach, this study analyzed Hearing Officers' duties, effectiveness in carrying out such duties, and whether gender had an impact on their performance.

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 37 of the TEC Safe Schools' provision holds that students exhibiting discipline and behavioral problems may be subjected to "suspension, removal to a disciplinary alternative education program, expulsion, or placement in a juvenile justice alternative education program" [1]. However, the TEC emphasizes that before students are subjected to these punishments by administrative decision, every student must be provided a due process hearing to ascertain whether the disciplinary decision is sound and in compliance with federal laws, particularly the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), while also ensuring that the constitutional rights of the student are upheld [1.2]. The responsibility for carrying out this requirement is given to the Hearing Officer who, to date, has maintained this responsibility for more than three decades.

At all independent school districts (ISDs) in South Texas, Hearing Officers are tasked with the enforcement of rules related to hearings of student disciplinary cases. Hearing Officers typically occupy a leadership position in ISDs in South Texas and are selected by the ISD based on educational and certification requirements, special knowledge and skills, and significant

experience in the area of student educational needs. At ISDs in South Texas, the setting of this study, the Hearing Officers needs Mid-Management Certification and a Professional Development and Appraisal System (PDAS) Certificate. The Hearing Officers are expected to have thorough knowledge and understanding of hearing proceedings and legal precedents affecting discipline cases. In addition to these, Hearing Officers should have excellent communication skills (verbal and written) with diverse groups of individuals utilizing diplomacy and tact, and must hold a master's degree.

At most ISDs in South Texas, the Hearing Officers seek to provide support to individual campuses as well as the community in the realms of "discipline, compulsory attendance, student enrollment, family code and safe schools" [3]. The mission of the Hearing Officers is to "support the efforts of the district and the community in providing a safe school environment for all our students and staff members [3]. The tasks of the Hearing Officers are based on state and federal laws, as well as the rules and regulations of local ISDs in South Texas.

The tasks required of the district Hearing Officers are challenging because of the various interests at stake. As such, there is a need to balance all factors that are involved in a student's case, so that Hearing Officers' decisions may be considered just and appropriate. To date, there is no single document that prescribes how this mission and these tasks should be carried out or how the interests of the various stakeholders should be balanced. A clear definition of priorities and considerations would inform Hearing Officers about the approaches that have to be taken in disciplinary cases, particularly in the context of balancing discipline and education; respect for, and dignity of, the student; and, the students' understanding of their negative actions.

One of the primary tasks of Hearing Officers is to conduct student hearings for alternative educational placements. In the facilitation of such hearings, Hearing Officers refers to the ISDs' Student Code of Conduct; Chapter 37 of the TEC known as Discipline Law and Order; and Title 5 Felony Offences of the Texas Penal Code for guidance [3]. However, Hearing Officers in the ISDs have historically had to depend on his or her own judgment in determining the cases of the student requiring discipline (SRD). Consequently, a question emerges about the effectiveness of Hearing Officers in cases such as these, considering that there is no standard guidance identifying the factors that must be considered in hearing of SRDs cases, against which their decisions may be evaluated. Whenever Hearing Officers have to make important decisions such as those involving possible expulsion of an SRD, again, the issue arises about the non-existence of guidelines pertaining to the appropriate approach that must be used. On the part of Hearing Officers, this could lead to moments of uncertainty about the appropriateness of decisions considering that they have no standard or guideline to consult.

The creation of safe learning environments is far from an easy task [4]. SRDs tend to exhibit behavioral problems that potentially lead to safety concerns. These actions include aggressive and violent behavior and coming to school under the influence of alcohol or illegal drugs while still expected to engage in learning [4]. The connection between educational concerns and deficiencies and coping mechanisms that may manifest in destructive and disruptive behavior constitute challenges for Hearing Officers. Skills in decision making and conflict resolution, compliance with relevant laws, abilities to look deeper into the rationales of behaviors, sensitivity to treat students with respect, as well as foresight needed to envision the potential impacts of disciplinary actions are all necessary tools for the effective execution of the Hearing Officer's duties. It must be emphasized that Hearing Officers have numerous responsibilities that are not only concerned with discipline, but also involve administrative and research

functions, as well as engagement with students' family members [5]. Hence, Hearing Officers significantly contribute to the creation of a safe school environment; and, if they are not effective in the execution of their duties, then the welfare of both individual students and the larger student population may be at risk.

However, in the case of ISDs in South Texas, no guidance has yet been provided regarding the appropriate approaches that Hearing Officers need to adopt in order to achieve these. Because no such guidance exists, there has been no means of measuring the effectiveness of Hearing Officers with regard to these factors. By extension, there have also been no measures to assess the actual contributions that Hearing Officers at the South Texas ISDs have made to facilitate the attainment of safety in schools.

Understanding that the effective execution of Hearing Officers' duties requires the use of both technical and interpersonal skills, it is notable that gender may impact the manner through which Hearing Officers make their decisions or approach their work in general. As it pertains to the ISDs in South Texas, it is important to mention that historically, the majority of Hearing Officers have been male, whereas at present, one of the Hearing Officers is female. It is important to discover through this study whether gender impacts Hearing Officers' (a) decision making and judgments, (b) attitudes toward work, (c) communication, and (d) emotions. In turn, decision making, attitudes toward work, communication, and emotions may potentially impact the effectiveness of Hearing Officers in their approaches. An equally important perspective here is whether gender may be a barrier to the effectiveness of Hearing Officers' execution of duties.

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to explore the experiences, challenges, and barriers that Hearing Officers within ISDs in South Texas have experienced in managing the cases of SRDs without a standard governance policy or procedure. The intent was to develop a clear description of the appropriate approach and actions Hearing Officers must adhere to in order to achieve a balance between discipline, educational needs and outcomes, consequences, and the maintenance of dignity for the SRDs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The creation of safe schools in which Hearing Officers are involved, is a complex and broad undertaking. When Hearing Officers deal with a disciplinary case, the focus is not always on the infraction of the student, although it is of utmost importance. The interests of different stakeholders have to be considered particularly since there could be times that Hearing Officers consult some of them when determining a disciplinary case. In this regard, a guideline pertaining to an appropriate approach to stakeholder engagement is important. There is no such existing guideline in the ISDs in South Texas.

By engaging with different stakeholders, Hearing Officers are able to deliver positive discipline rather than punitive ones [6]. The overarching goals of positive discipline are to keep students and staff safe as well as maintain a school environment that facilitates student learning and positive social-emotional-behavioral development [6]. Again, no such guideline exists pertaining to how Hearing Officers can ensure positive discipline and the appropriate approaches that could facilitate its achievement.

Male and Female Perspectives

The current Hearing Officer at one of the ISDs in South Texas is female, while the majority of Hearing Officers in the past have been male. Hearing Officers are expected to collaborate with parents, staff, and community members who may be male or female, so that they can contribute to the cultivation of safe learning environments. In the event that a female Hearing Officer is marginalized on account of gender, then these duties could not be carried out effectively, and it is possible that their level of authority would be reduced.

In a meta-analysis they conducted on gender and leadership style, Eagly and Johnson [7] noted that gender distinctions do not emerge in organizational studies pertaining to interpersonal vis-à-vis task-oriented style. However, there are stereotypic gender differences that emerge in laboratory experiments and assessment studies where participants were not recruited according to their leadership positions [7]. According to the meta-analysis, 92% of the included studies indicated that females tended to adopt a more collaborative style of leadership and less of the directive style when compared to their male counterparts [7]. Therefore, this could translate into differing perspectives between male and female Hearing Officers who are tasked with leadership duties such as directing the placement of students into alternative learning settings and planning materials related to discipline, admissions, dropouts, and school law [8].

Moreover, social perceptions and expectations impact leadership styles adopted by females such that as women leaders, they tended to be more relationship-based. In contrast, males tended to conform more to social norms of being more task-oriented, self-assertive, as well as motivated to master their environment. On the other hand, females tended to conform more toward "social stereotypes of being more interpersonal, selfless and concerned to others" [9]. Overall, female leaders were more people-oriented rather than task-oriented when compared to male leaders. According to Bass and Aviolio [10], this actually places females at an advantage in the context of leadership. These gender differences could impact the manner through which Hearing Officers engage with at-risk students and their families. For instance, there is a distinct possibility that male Hearing Officers would be less engaged with at-risk youth and their families or parents as compared to female Hearing Officers. In turn, this could impact the disciplinary decisions that they make as well as their approach to discipline of at-risk youth in general.

Indeed, there is strong evidence linking female leaders with the collaborative, cooperative, or democratic leadership style [9]. On the other hand, strong evidence also exist linking males with directive, competitive, or autocratic leadership styles [9]. In earlier studies, even through criteria for leadership positions even out gender differences, women appeared to have intentionally different approaches to leadership and preferred the collaborative style, largely because of differences in personality and social interpersonal skills [9].

For the female leaders, years had to be spent working hard to attain the respect that is "automatically given to their male counterparts" [11]. In light of these, it is evident that barriers stand in the way of female leaders in education. Among the most prominent of these barriers are cultural and structural in nature [12]. Cultural barriers are related to patriarchal ideologies that associate womanhood with unpaid work, home and hearth, as well as expectations that males are more suitable to higher management positions with greater authority and opportunities as compared to females [12]. Consequently, females are usually marginalized by a workplace environment that is dominated by male peers.

Such realities are not uncommon in the realm of education that has been defined as largely bureaucratic in structure. Indeed, the authoritarian perspective of bureaucracies ruins any prospective organizational benefits for females [12]. In academic institutions, bureaucracies have a span of control and a singular authority that adversely impacts females striving to take part of the decision-making process [12]. Alternatively, it has been noted that a flatter organizational structure that is less bureaucratic would provide greater leadership opportunities for female leaders. This can significantly impact female Hearing Officers. To note, not only do Hearing Officers at ISDs decide about disciplinary cases, they also resolve conflicts between stakeholders, such as conflicts between parents and schools [8]. Hearing Officers also investigate and resolve legal questions regarding school law and even serve as the Professional Development and Appraisal System (PDAS) appraiser [8]. In the event that the Hearing Officer is female, then there is the risk that her administrative decisions and general authority would not be given sufficient significance due to bureaucratic forces.

Van Emmerik, Wendt, and Euwema [13] noted that females tended to adopt transformational leadership styles compared to males and had the propensity to demonstrate more rewarding behavior. In contrast, males paid more attention to mistakes made by subordinates [13]. Transformational leaders focused on empowerment, shared purposes, and commitment to shared goals and objectives. Moreover, the transformational leader has characteristics defined by "vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what is popular or is acceptable according to established wisdom of the time" [14]. Transformational leadership has also been associated with personal consideration of others welfare, intellectual stimulation, inspirational leadership, as well as idealized influence [14-16]. Through individualized consideration, leaders placed importance on equality, individual needs, and talents. By means of intellectual stimulation, leaders succeeded in motivating others to "stretch the limits of what followers think they can accomplish in a specified set of circumstances" [14]. By being an inspiration to others, a transformational leader improved self-worth of others while through idealized influence, a transformational leader bred trust among stakeholders so that "they truly believe in and are inspired by the charisma, faculties, and vision of their leader" [14]. Transformational leadership competencies applied to different settings, regardless of whether the leader works with only one individual, an organization, or an entire culture [17]. In light of these, there is the possibility that male Hearing Officers could focus more on punishing mistakes rather than balancing discipline and educational needs of at-risk youth and less on inspiring behavioral change among at-risk youth with disciplinary issues. It is also possible that the male Hearing Officers would be less sensitive to self-worth of at-risk students so that respect for, and dignity of, said students could be adversely impacted.

It has been observed that in male-dominated sectors such as education, female leaders have tended to pattern their leadership styles, to a large extent, according to successful male leadership behaviors [13, 18]. Notably, many female executives seemed to have modeled their leadership styles after successful male role models in order to get into top management [18]. This is because many women vying for leadership positions have found themselves in a Catch-22 situation wherein they are devalued if they demonstrate feminine behaviors such as being nurturing, cooperative, passive, and they are chided if they show masculine traits including being assertive, independent, and aggressive [18]. Males tended to be more goal-oriented compared to females, who have a tendency to place more value on the facilitation of interaction [13].

METHODOLOGY

Data collection for this study was performed through the case study approach including participants' interviews. This research study on the Hearing Officers at ISDs in South Texas was both positivist and interpretivist philosophical in nature.   From this perspective, trust or validity is not grounded upon an objective reality. However, because of the need to substantiate the subjective quality of data collected in this study, it was necessary to use theories from the sciences to provide an objective perspective. For example, findings from earlier empirical research as well as theories on gender were used to analyze interview responses pertaining to roles of male and female Hearing Officers. Moreover, theories on social justice and legal frameworks were used in analyzing participant responses regarding appropriate charges meted out to disciplinary youth.

Population and Sample Homogenous purposive sampling was used for the study. Participants were selected according to their shared traits, which are also the inclusion criteria. These shared traits are (a) current or past Hearing Officers, (b) worked at different ISDs in South Texas for at least two years, (c) experience dealing with at-risk youth and SRDs, (d) female (three Hearing Officers), and (e) male (three Hearing Officers).

Procedures The instrument that was used in this study was a semi-structured interview. Participants were asked questions pertaining to their perceived roles as Hearing Officers; how they functioned as Hearing Officers even without clear descriptions of their roles; how they measured their effectiveness in their roles; and whether gender was a factor in the manners they played out in their roles as Hearing Officers.

After completing the interviews, all of the responses were analyzed against concepts discovered in a review of the literature. A second one-hour interview/meeting was set with each Hearing Officer for the purpose of analyzing and agreeing on data results as well as member checking.   After transcribing the interviews, coding was completed. After coding had been completed, the Hearing Officers' responses were analyzed to determine whether their findings related with one another and in so doing, identifying emergent themes.

RESULTS

Table 1 summarizes participants' background.

Table 1: Synthesis of Participant Backgrounds

Hearing Officer	Gender	Years Hearing Officer	Years in Education	Previous experience Education	Education
Lincoln	Male	11-20	30-35	Teacher	Master
Kevin	Male	1-10	11-20	Teacher	Master
Suzie	Female	1-10	21-30	Administration	Master
Mark	Male	1-10	11-20	Administration	Master
Malcolm	Male	1-10	01-10	Other	Master
Eva	Female	1-10	01-10	Administration	Master

Participant responses to interview questions were coded using the codes listed in Table 2 along with the criteria used for coding.

Table 2: Coding Summary

Codes	Themes	Description
Parents	Attitudes	Negative attitudes from parents.
	Communication	Communication gaps with parents, including, cultural barriers.
	Parental Involvement	Parents are part of day-to-day experiences.
Discipline	Goals	Focus on goals in disciplining students.
	Fairness	Make decisions regarding discipline.
	Consistency	Difficult to make effective decisions.
District Support	Collaboration	HOs do not receive support from stakeholders such as school personnel and parents.
	Lack of training	HOs have inadequate training.
	Inadequate information.	Constant research and search for updated information to serve as guidance on tasks.
	Multiple roles	HOs hold several tasks not just hearings.
	Conflict with Administrators	Conflicts arise with administrators due to lack of clarity about HOs roles.
Policies and procedures	Lack of policy updates	HOs do not have access to complete and updated information regarding policies.
	Lack of policy understanding	Administrators and other stakeholders lack understanding of policies.
	Lack of policy implementation	Policy implementation is hampered by lack of policy knowledge.
HOs Gender – Female Perspectives	No impact/not a factor	This code refers to the female HO perspectives of their roles.
		What matters are personal educational philosophies.
	Educational Philosophy	
	Knowledge and experience	Gender does not matter but there are stereotyped expectations according to gender.
HOs Gender – Male Perspectives	No impact/not a factor	This code refers to the male HO perspectives of their roles.
		What matters is that one follows guidelines.
	Facts/Guidelines	
	Fair/Consistency	What matters is fairness and consistency.
	Disposition	What matters is disposition.
HOs Gender - Differences	Differences	This code refers to differences between the male and female HOs regarding their roles.
	Discipline approach.	Yes, in approach to discipline.

Among the strongest themes are those related to parents, namely, parental involvement, parental attitudes, and communication. Parental involvement was discussed in the contexts of day-to-day experiences, challenges, barriers, roles and gender. The theme of parental attitudes was strongly represented in the collected data. Parental attitudes were mentioned in terms of barriers. However, parental attitudes overlapped with other themes, such as, training. Based

on the coded data, communication with parents represents challenges and barriers to some of the participants.

There were several Student Discipline themes that appeared in several contexts, including, day-to-day experiences, challenges, barriers, roles and gender. The themes in Student Discipline were goals, fairness and consistency. One of the emergent themes related to Student Discipline is the discipline process goal. The theme of goals in Student Discipline was related to consequences of misbehavior, discussed in the context of barriers. Student Discipline was also discussed in the classification of decision making. Fairness and consistency in Student Discipline were mentioned in the contexts of roles, challenges and day-to-day experiences. Fairness and consistency occur as themes of Student Discipline. Fairness and consistency were also mentioned in the context of roles.

District Support themes include collaboration with administrators, lack of training, mission/vision alignment, multiple roles, and conflict with administrators.

The participants' collaboration with administrators theme occurred in various contexts, it was mostly mentioned in terms of challenges and barriers. Collaboration with administrators was also regarded as an essential daily activity. Lack of training was mentioned the most in the context of barriers and challenges.

One theme to have emerged in relation to District Support is the lack of sufficient information, which pertains to lack of policy updates. Inadequate information regarding policies overlaps with the theme of Multiple Roles that participants play.

The participants all communicated how they have been taking on multiple roles that, in turn, stems from lack of District Support. It is notable that the theme of multiple roles is broad because the participants tended to enumerate the roles that they played and because the multiple roles were based on the experiences, barriers and challenges encountered by the participants. Some of the participants stated that their role is to make students see the consequences of their action, which overlaps with themes related to Student Discipline. Based on the participant responses, the theme of multiple roles overlapped with the theme of Conflict with Administrators. Some of the participants had highlighted conflicts with administrators mainly because of lack of clarity about roles.

There were three emergent themes related to Policies and Procedures, namely, lack of policy updates, lack of policy implementation and lack of policy understanding. This emergent theme overlaps with another theme in terms of lack of District Support. Themes related to Policy and Procedures generally occurred in the contexts of daily experiences, challenges and barriers.

Some of the participants emphasized the lack of policy knowledge among their colleagues and other stakeholders. It seems that because of lack of policy knowledge, there is a lack of policy implementation particularly in the context of making the right decisions.

The Lack of Policy Implementation has been related to the theme of lack of training.

Gender Perspectives. For female participants, these themes pertained to No Impact, Educational Philosophy and Knowledge and Experience. For male participants, these themes pertained to No Impact, Facts/Guidelines, Fairness/Consistency and Disposition

Female Perspectives. The majority of the participants stated that gender was not a factor in how they played their roles. For female participants, what mattered more than gender were characteristics like Educational Philosophy, Knowledge and Experience.

Male Perspectives. Most of the male participants explained the factors that did impact their roles instead of gender.

CONCLUSIONS
Daily Experiences

The functions of Hearing Officers include advising parents and administration, two of the most mentioned in the interviews. Due to the fact that many participants had emphasized the importance of consistency in their decisions and actions, it appears necessary that they be provided with training on how to deal with problematic, emotional reactions such as those coming from parents. Additionally, participants identified a lack of training as a major barrier.

Several participants had highlighted important associations between Parental Involvement (Theme), Student Discipline (Theme) and Daily Experiences (Research Question). A concern here was whether through the influence of parents, SRDs are able to realize their accountability.

Challenges

Participants stated their main challenge relates to parents' negative attitudes about disciplinary matters with which their children are involved. The participants also consider fairness and consistency as challenges because they simply have no guiding framework. Additionally, it was not uncommon for conflicts to arise because of lack of knowledge about policies. One of the biggest challenges for Hearing Officers is keeping up with legislative updates. Finally, challenges exist when Hearing Officers and administrators differ on the purpose of student discipline.

Barriers

The most important barrier was the lack of training and time. Another barrier identified by participants pertains to their conflicts with administrators. A constant issue seen as a barrier for the Hearing Officers is dealing with problematic attitudes of parents. For some participants, fairness is considered a barrier although it is typically associated with concepts such as being unbiased, and equitability.

Roles

The participants believe that their roles are played out according to their concern about the well-being of the SRDs. Results indicate that participants followed the process as described by the SWISD [3].

The participants play the roles of providing support service to administrators, parents, and students. They played the role of liaison because they resolve conflicts between all stakeholders, including conflicts between parents and schools as mentioned in SWISD [8]. They also have to advise the parents and SRDs.

Impact of Gender

An overwhelming majority of the participants in this study on Hearing Officers in ISDs in South Texas asserted that gender does not impact how they perform their roles. They perform their

functions consistently, placing importance on fairness and knowledge about using the policies and district's guidelines to eliminate the gender factor.

However, some of the participants believed that gender can impact the discharge of roles. It was noted that it is the student's gender that may impact the role of the Hearing Officer. The results of this study show that participants had mixed opinions about whether gender leads to a difference between female and male perspectives of the Hearing Officers' role. Some concur that people should not have different perspectives because of gender, but there are times when this happens.

Even though both female and male participants stated that there were no gender differences they described their roles in manners that reflect gender differences. For example, females believed that Educational Philosophy, Knowledge and experience are the most important characteristics while males perceived that the ability to follow policy and district guidelines, being fair and consistent as being the most important factors.

Scholarly Significance

Overall, there is a dearth of knowledge regarding discipline cases, the experiences of students involved in them, and the appropriate approaches of Hearing Officers from either the female or male perspective. This deficit has contributed to a lack of clarity in the duties of Hearing Officers.

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"Allowing Yourself to Sexual Freedom": Making Sense of Sexual Spontaneity with Disability

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Abstract

Constructions of sexuality and disability have been discussed widely by scholars across a number of fields. However, there has been relatively little research on how people with cerebral palsy construct their own sexuality and the salience of the socio-sexual schema which are involved in this process. One such sexual schema is that of sexual spontaneity. This research explored how people with cerebral palsy construct sexual participation particularly in relation to sexual spontaneity and the role it played in how they described their sexuality. This project utilized a hermeneutic phenomenological approach to explore these questions. Seven in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with five men and two women with moderate to severe cerebral palsy. Sexual spontaneity was primarily a derivative of sexual exploration. Furthermore, participants defined sexual spontaneity as liberating and allowed them to experience their sexuality with others relatively independent of normative sexual scripts. Participants also described their sexuality primarily in terms of major transitions and experiences which involved others. The findings emphasize that people with cerebral palsy are cognizant and intelligent agents in the construction of their sexuality. Their articulations, understandings and descriptions of their sexuality demonstrate their interest and awareness in their sexuality and issues related to it.

Keywords: Sexual spontaneity, disability, Australia, Canada, sexual satisfaction, cerebral palsy

INTRODUCTION

A large portion of research has explained sexual behaviour and sexual functioning using a medical model (i.e., Achtari & Dwyer 2005; Monyihan 2003; Schover 2000). However, human sexuality is also a product of cultural socialization. Studies in sexual psychology suggest that sexuality is constructed via the interaction of psychological and social processes within a particular culture (i.e., Leiblum 1990; Mona & Gardos 2000; Schooler & Ward 2006; Szasz 1998).

For instance, in their seminal work Simon and Gagnon's (1986, p. 98) sexual script theory posits that the way individuals express their sexuality is based on socially imprinted schemas which outline how they should sexually interact with others, with whom to interact (socially "appropriate" sexual partners), what sexual activities are socially permitted, where and when these activities can transpire and why it would benefit to act in accordance with these schemes (see also McVee, Dunsmore & Gavelek 2005). Sexual script theory proposes that sexual

behavioural dispositions are created through a person's involvement in cultural, interpersonal and intrapsychic schemas.

Script theory and sexuality
Public schemas guide the individual within collective life—meaning that they dictate the requirements needed to fulfill specific roles including the process by which a person enters those roles and how they should behave within them (Pryor & Merluzzi 1985; Ronen 2010; Serewicz & Gale 2008). Public events include the consumption and engagement of media. This includes the purchasing and reading of magazines, watching movies or television and using the internet. Public events, like cultural schemas, may impact the expression of sexuality as they expose people to images of what is sexually desirable and/or "appropriate." Public schemas therefore instruct individuals on the topics of time, place, gestures, utterance and what people engaging in sexual behaviour are supposed to be feeling; "qualities of instruction that make most of us far more committed and rehearsed at the time of our initial sexual encounters than most of us realize" (Simon & Gagnon, 1986, p. 105). For example, being a man in a Western culture may mean fulfilling the expectation that one is the sexual aggressor, knows what their partner enjoys, and is able to do so flawlessly (Kim, Sorsoli, Collins, Zylbergold, Schooler & Tolman 2007; Szasz 1998; Zilbergeld 1999).

Interpersonal schemas define people as being both the actors of scripts and agents of their formulation. Interactional events are characterized by the negotiation of interpersonal relationships (i.e., flirting, courting and dating). These events are important to expressions of sexuality as individuals may choose potential sexual partners based on their perceptions of what is socially acceptable. The construct of interpersonal schemas reinforces the relevance of public schemas because people act out their perceptions of appropriate identities and the desired expectations from playing such roles (Chapin 2000). By legitimizing and lowering uncertainty for oneself and others involved in a sexual encounter, a person who has been scripted as the sexual aggressor could be reinforced by his/her partner who is habituated to play the passive role (L'Engle, Brown & Kenneavy 2006). Although actors may experience sexual feelings throughout the interaction, they may only express or allow themselves to become aware of the feelings that are appropriate to the situation (L'Engle, Brown & Kenneavy 2006) which can cause "inappropriate" thoughts to halt, or be repressed. Presumably, individuals must think about how they are going to express and execute these scripts with others through the interplay of interpretation and mental rehearsal of sexual expectations.

Intrapsychic schema are a significant factor in personal mental processes which involve inner dialogue (Brown 2002; Emerson 1983). They influence the way individuals internalize the script of what is sexually desirable and how they fit into that scenario. As described by Simon and Gagnon (1986), intrapsychic schemas are "the symbolic reorganization of reality in ways that makes it complicit in realizing more fully the actor's many-layered and sometimes multicoated wishes" (p. 99; see also Markle 2008). Private events, like intrapsychic scripts, are characterized by the interplay between individual perceptions and mental rehearsals (i.e., fantasies) of sexual expectations (Sanders 2008). Private events impact sexual expression by consolidating or internalizing certain constructions of sexuality while rejecting others. Even through the mental world of private desires and wishes ones thoughts are socially bound (Kant 1958). For example, the same man who is expected to be sexually aggressive may wish to be cuddled and submissive but may not ask for such things (Markle 2008; Zilbergeld 1999). The influence the script of sexual spontaneity has on constructions of sexuality is of interest. While

many questions remain unanswered about how the script of sexual spontaneity is constructed significant issues within the script of sexual spontaneity itself must be addressed.

Public, interactional and private events and scripts influence individual constructions, and inevitably expression of sexuality (Barbour 2008; Caplan 1987; Simon & Gagnon 1986; Weeks 2010) and sexual spontaneity. Interpersonally, individuals try to act out what has been culturally scripted (Chiu, Gelfand, Yamagishi, Shteynburg, & Wan 2010). In thinking about their sexual experiences people may contemplate how they fit or do not fit into this expectation. To achieve ultimate sexual satisfaction through sexual activity the script of sexual spontaneity follows three basic "Acts":

Act I
- Boy encounters girl
- Communication of lust is instantaneous, simultaneous and reciprocal

Act II
- Sexual preparation
- Sexual intercourse
- Simultaneous orgasm

Act III
- Complete sexual satisfaction
- Cuddling
- Commentary on the preceding experience of ultimate pleasure
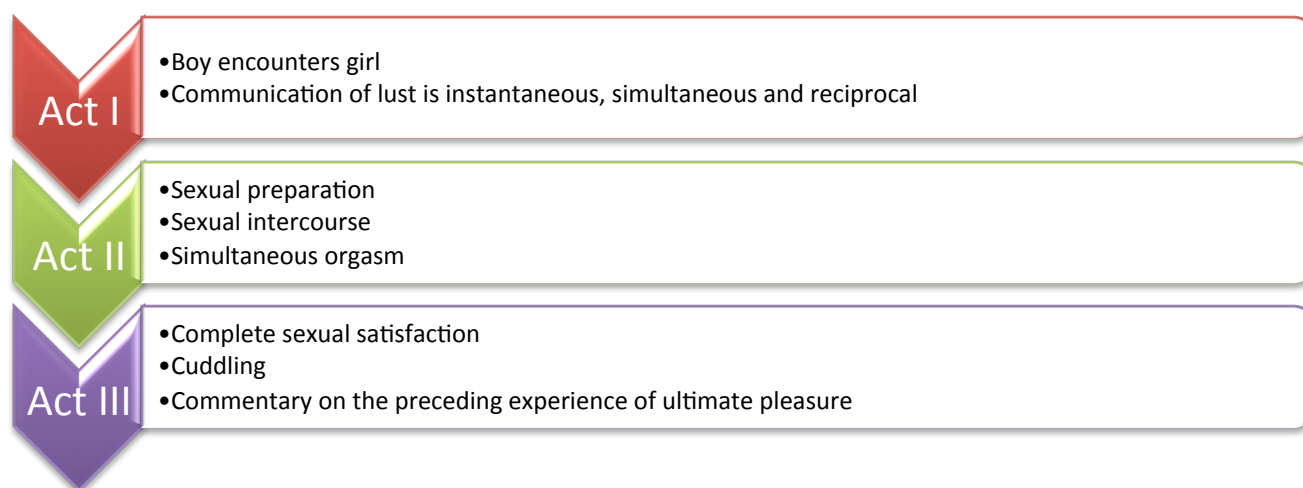
Figure 1. Script of Sexual Spontaneity (Dune & Shuttleworth 2009, p. 100)

Figure 1, illustrates the script of sexual spontaneity as characterized by three acts (much like the script from a play). In Act I, a heterosexual situation is set-up to facilitate the communication of instantaneous and simultaneous desire and arousal (lust) which is unquestionably reciprocated. Act II, begins with the actors preparing for sexual intercourse. Here the actors engage in flawless foreplay which includes kissing, fondling, heavy petting and possibly oral sex - only if their lust is patient enough to facilitate it. The foreplay is then followed by sexual intercourse in which both partners are in their favourite position which provides enough stimulation for both partners to experience simultaneous orgasm via vaginal penetration by an erect penis. Finally, Act III includes the feeling of complete sexual satisfaction followed by cuddling which is an indication of romance, love and intimacy as a result of an unspoken understanding between sexual partners which has been expressed through the preceding sexual experience. At the end, both partners breathlessly allude to one another how completely pleasured and sexually satisfied they are due to their sexual encounter. Although sexual gratification is presumed to be a linear process, people with cerebral palsy may conceptualize the public (see Dune 2014a), interactional (see Dune 2013) and private (see Dune 2014b) aspects of the script of sexual spontaneity in ways influenced by their atypical experience as social actors.

Considering Simon and Gagnon's sexual script theory, the myths surrounding sexual spontaneity as portrayed by popular media are internalized and perpetuated within a social context. However, much of the sexual behaviour the mass media presents is not necessarily representative of human diversity and the variance within people's actual sexual lives (Dune & Pearce 2010). As such, provisions are not adequately provided to include people with significant physical disabilities in the social or sexual arenas of everyday life. Socio-sexual

exclusion for this population thereby perpetuates the idea that they should not partake in mainstream social and sexual activities with others (Esmail, Darry , Walter & Knupp 2010).

When people with cerebral palsy do engage in sexual relations, contradictions between their experiences and internalized social scripts of idealized "appropriate" sexual relationships may occur. If social expectations of sexuality are internalized, then sexual difficulties may result. When expectations are not met people may experience a negative impact on their sexual health and well-being (Dune 2013, 2014a, 2014b). The influence of idealized sexual scripts is important to consider for people with cerebral palsy because expectations of normative function, bodily movement and the body beautiful can make access to sexual relationships difficult for many people in this group (Gossmann, Mathieu, Julien & Chartrand2003; Shuttleworth 2000; Shuttleworth 2006). As such, the specific ways in which people with cerebral palsy personalize sexual scripts is a matter for study.

Sexual spontaneity: Inherent tensions
Notwithstanding the influence of expectations of sexual spontaneity in the cultural context of instant gratification, there are some tensions inherent in this belief. For instance, tensions appear to arise from the contradiction between initiating sexual activity, which requires forethought to some extent, while maintaining an element of "surprise" for both partners. A study using the Sexual Initiation Scale explored this sexual expectation (Gossmann et al. 2003). These researchers studied the link between the initiation of sexual activity and other relationship factors. They defined the term sexual initiation as "the first step by one partner to convey verbally and/or non-verbally to the other partner an interest or desire for sexual activity" (p. 169).

The study by Gossmann and colleagues provided evidence to suggest that sexual initiation was to provide partners with a sense of sexual satisfaction and feelings of romance and intimacy. They further observed that couples who were dissatisfied with their relationship were less likely to initiate sex or respond to a partner's initiation of sexual activity. Since sexual spontaneity presumably requires initiation from one of the partners, those who feel like they cannot express their intimacy in this way may shy away from engaging in sexual activity (Dune & Shuttleworth 2009). Hence, emotional distress in regards to oneself or one's partner may impact the initiation of sex, sexual interactions, sexual satisfaction and therefore, sexual wellbeing (Zimmer 1987; Zilbergeld 1999; Yadav, Gennarilli & Ratakonda 2001). However, the full range of initiation behaviours is not known, particularly in atypical others. As such, this portion of the aforementioned doctoral work aimed to better understand: 1) how people with cerebral palsy construct the term sexual spontaneity, 2) how they conceptualize the script of sexual spontaneity in their lives and 3) what role their conceptualization of the script of sexual spontaneity play in their construction of sexuality?

METHODS
This paper presents an excerpt of results from a doctoral project which used a hermeneutic phenomenological approach to explore the salience of sexual scripts (public, interactional and private) in constructions of sexuality by people with cerebral palsy (see Dune & Mpofu 2015 for through description and testing of procedures and protocols used). In-depth interviews were conducted with duration of one to two and a half hours. A semi-structured interview guide was used for data collection and comprised of the following sections: demographics and severity of disability, private sexual scripts (see Dune 2014a), interactional sexual scripts (see

Dune 2013), public sexual scripts and reflective summary (see Dune 2014b). Interviews were conducted via email, telephone and/or face-to-face (based on participant preference).

Interview participants were asked questions related to sexual spontaneity to ascertain if any private, interactional and/or public constructions of sexuality influenced the way in which they understood and experienced sexual spontaneity. For example, participants were asked to reflect on their conceptualization and opinion about the term sexual spontaneity in order to ascertain whether people with cerebral palsy described their sexuality as inclusive of popular constructions of sexual spontaneity; "How would you define or explain the term sexual spontaneity?" and "How does your explanation of sexual spontaneity fit into your sexuality?" In addition, participants were asked to describe their perception of romance ("What is your idea of romance?") and satisfying sexual experiences ("What factors have influenced how you experience your sexuality?"). These questions were used to identify any aspects of sexual spontaneity within individual experiences of sexuality as well as gain information about the participant's perception of what their sexual partner would be like and/or look like.

The data were analyzed for content by identifying topics and substantive categories within participants' accounts in relation to the study's objectives. In addition, NVivo 9 was used to ascertain topical responses and emergent substantive categories, coding particularly for word repetition, direct and emotional statements and discourse markers including intensifiers, connectives and evaluative clauses. Due to the rich and contextual nature of the data, participant's responses have been presented in their conceptual entirety.

Participant recruitment

This study included seven participants; five men and two women. Four of the participants were from Australia and three from Canada (see Table 1). The study recruited from Canada and Australia in order to enhance the possibility of finding members of the target population to participate.

In Australia, participants were recruited through advertisements published in community newspapers, bulletins, through advocacy group and sexuality and/or disability focused newsletters and webpages. In addition, the snowballing technique was carried out at the end of participant interviews and required asking each participant if they knew someone who met the eligibility criteria and, if so, whether s/he would be willing to give that person a copy of the participant information sheet. The author did not know the identity of this person, and the interviewee did not know if that person agreed to participate in the project or not.

In Canada, participants were sought through the Attendant Care Program in Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. The Attendant Care Program services two of the major educational institutions in the city with round-the-clock provision of personal care for tertiary students with disabilities who live in the university residence buildings. The program which has been running for over 20 years services approximately 50 – 60 students per year with numbers increasing every year. Due to the client-directed style of the program clients are provided with the resources they need to live independently through the provision of dignity-focused care and accessible living arrangements. As the author was formerly employed by the service she forwarded the coordinator of the program the details of this project and was informally given permission to ask clients (the majority of whom had cerebral palsy) of the Attendant Care Program if they would like to participate.

Table 1. Participant Summary

Participant (Pseudonym)	Sex	Type of Cerebral Palsy	Assistive Devices or Services	Socio-economic Status, education and ethnicity	Medical Interventions	Living Arrangements	Sexual Profile
John	Male	Spastic Quadriplegic Cerebral Palsy (severe)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Upper-middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Australian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived with his mother in his family's home	Heterosexual, sexually active, no history of long term sexually intimate relationships
Mary	Female	Spastic Paraplegic Cerebral Palsy (moderate)	Occasional use of crutches	Middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Australian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived independently in an apartment with her partner	Heterosexual, in a long term sexual relationship at time of interview
Brian	Male	Ataxic Quadriplegic Cerebral Palsy (severe)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Australian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived in an independent living facility	Heterosexual, sexually active, no history of long term sexually intimate relationships
Leah	Female	Spastic Paraplegic Cerebral Palsy (moderate)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Lower-middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Australian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived in an apartment with her boyfriend.	Heterosexual, in a long term sexual relationship at time of interview
Ian	Male	Ataxic Quadriplegic Cerebral Palsy (severe)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Lower-middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Canadian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived in an independent living facility.	Heterosexual, sexually active, no history of long term sexually intimate relationships
Trevor	Male	Spastic Quadriplegic Cerebral Palsy (severe)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Upper-middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Canadian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived in an independent living facility	Heterosexual, in a long term sexually intimate relationship at time of interview

Alex	Male	Spastic Quadriplegic Cerebral Palsy (severe)	Mechanized wheelchair, daily personal assistance from others	Upper-middle class, tertiary education, Caucasian Canadian	Major musculoskeletal surgery during childhood and adolescence. Rehabilitative maintenance.	Lived in an independent living facility	Homosexual, high frequency of casual sexual encounters, no history of long term sexually intimate relationships

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In terms of sexual spontaneity, participant responses indicate that they had constructed it as a derivative of sexual exploration embedded within an interactional framework. Sexual spontaneity (as defined by respondents) included the spontaneous selection of a sexual partner or unscheduled sexual activity.

The Role of Sexual Exploration with Others

For several participants their perception of sexual experiences with others was influenced by their ability to explore their sexuality. Part of that process involved sexual spontaneity. Alex and Ian described what sexual spontaneity meant to them and how it influenced the construction of their sexuality.

> *Alex: Sexual spontaneity in my view means not to plan out the sexual activity—go with the flow. It means doing something without a lot of planning. So, I guess doing "randoms" is sexual spontaneity in some sense.*

> *Ian: Sexual spontaneity is the act of becoming sexually charged without planning or forethought. To me, it is the ability to go with the flow and be in the moment with your partner. Sexual spontaneity also means letting go of your inhibitions and allowing yourself to sexual freedom.*

Unlike the restrictive connotations discussed previously with regards to the (hetero)normative script of sexual spontaneity (Dune & Shuttleworth 2009; Sanders & Cairns 1987), this study's participants described sexual spontaneity as liberating: "Sexual spontaneity also means letting go of your inhibitions and allowing yourself to sexual freedom" (Ian). As such, it seemed to allow them to experience their sexuality without the pressure of following predetermined sexual scripts. For instance, in popular culture (public sexual scripts) sexual freedom is used as an incentive such that it becomes a reward for purchasing the right product at the right price. In this way, sexual activity as a means for pleasure, sexual expression and intimacy is rarely recognized (particularly in product advertisements) for marginalized populations in society. In his personal account of acquired physical disability, Tepper (2000) noted that "sexual portrayals of people who are older, who are larger, who are darker, who are gayer, who are mentally or physically disabled, or who just do not fit the targeted market profile have been conspicuously absent in mainstream media" (p. 285). Thus, when considering the script of sexual spontaneity (as sold by popular media) being free from planning is constructed as an unrealistic expectation. However, for the participants in this study being free from planning was not a hindrance to expressions of sexuality with cerebral palsy and instead a gateway to sexual freedom. In fact, Trevor felt that experiencing sexual spontaneity based on unscheduled sexual activities was integral to how he constructed his sexuality.

> *Trevor: It all goes back to my openness, and my newfound confidence with regards to sexuality. Sexual spontaneity is a big part of any relationship. My expression of who I am as a sexual being relies on sexual spontaneity. I think it plays a major role in the way that I perceive myself, but also in others' perceptions of me. Sexual spontaneity is a crucial element of my sex life, and therefore of my sexuality.*

Experiencing sexual spontaneity in this way also influenced Alex's construction of sexual freedom.

> *Alex: I am spontaneous in who I meet to sleep with. I cannot be spontaneous physically (much of what I can do sexually needs to be planned), but I can be spontaneous in who I choose.*

Alex's indication of sexual choice and decision-making indicate that people living with life-long disability are capable of being sexual agency – and rightfully so. As defined by the World Health Organization (2015) sexual agency is a basic sexual right and includes "the right to have one's bodily integrity respected and the right to choose—to choose whether or not to be sexually active, to choose one's sexual partners, to choose to enter into consensual sexual relationships, and to decide whether or not, and when, to have children" (Parker 2007, p. 973). Froyum (2009, p. 64) suggests that sexual agency as not only the right to choose but also to seek knowledge and assert sexual desires. In addition, Wilkerson (2002, p. 35) argues that sexual agency is not merely the capacity to choose, engage in, or refuse sex acts, but is a more profound good which involves a larger social dimension in which others recognize and respect one's identity. Wilkerson's conceptualization of sexual agency expresses the interdependence of public, interactional and private experiences of sexual expression and behaviour.

As such, through the process of exploring their sexuality through sexual encounters (i.e., the spontaneous choice of partner or behaviour) participants found that they had the chance to learn more about themselves. The consolidation of sexual identity and its place in relation to the sexual identity of others is mediated by public, interactional and private influences. It may be however that people with disabilities may construct their sexual selves (and perhaps their sexuality) differently than prescribed or expected. In this way sexuality for atypical populations may not exist as a script in which one must play a role but as an individual creation which is asserted, experienced, developed and negotiated through oneself and, potentially, others. Brian for instance, stated that sexual experiences with others facilitated learning.

> *Brian: I also learned a lot about sex from having it too.*

Ian also explained that exploring his sexuality helped him figure out what he liked and from whom.

> *Ian: Well he was my friend from up the road. We lived on a block of three acres and he was not next door but the house after. There was a lot of land. He came down one day and we were 16 and we spontaneously started to explore a bit. It was alright. We had fun the one time. It was alright. We were back to being friends after that.*

Some participants described sexual exploration as key to feeling sexually connected to themselves and others. Trevor described his ideal partner as someone who would join him on his journey of discovering his sexuality.

> *Trevor: My ideal sexual partner would be open and willing to explore their sexuality, as well as my own. My ideal sexual partner would be fun, spontaneous, and would be interested, as I am, in the edgier side of sexuality, and would be open to allow me to take them to those places. My ideal sexual partner, as cliché as this sounds, is embodied in my current girlfriend.*

In previous publications (Dune 2013, 2014a, 2014b), several participants felt that it was rare to find an individual who was willing to reconstruct typical sexual expectations with them. However, four of the seven participants were able to explore their sexuality and that of others without the restrictions (perceived or otherwise) perpetuated by normative sexual scripts and expectations. Thus, descriptions and conceptualizations of sexuality by people with cerebral palsy seems inextricably linked to interactional sexual experiences (i.e., sexual activity) and participant's perceptions about them (i.e., levels of sexual satisfaction, sense of sexual worth and feelings about peer acceptance) (see Dune 2013).

Although the consolidation of sexual identity and its place in relation to the sexual identity of others is mediated by public, interactional and private influences it may be that people with disabilities construct their sexual selves (and perhaps their sexuality) differently than prescribed or expected. In this way sexuality for atypical populations may not exist as a script in which one must play a role but as an individual creation which is asserted, experienced, developed and negotiated through oneself and, potentially, others.

CONCLUSION

Through the utilization of a hermeneutic phenomenological approach participant data was used to better understand what factors influenced how people with cerebral palsy constructed their sexuality. This paper presented data which helps to answer questions related to the relative salience of public, interactional and private sexual schema in the construction of sexuality for people with cerebral palsy, how people with cerebral palsy construct the term sexual spontaneity and how people with cerebral palsy describe their sexuality.

Sexual spontaneity primarily featured as a derivative of sexual exploration and was regarded key to being sexually connected to oneself and others. Furthermore, participants defined sexual spontaneity as liberating and allowed them to experience their sexuality with others relatively independent of hegemonic sexual scripts. Participants also described their sexuality primarily in terms of major transitions and experiences which involved others.

Participant's individual circumstances highlight the salience of demographics in understanding and contextualizing constructions of sexuality and perceptions of interactional sexual experiences with others. As such, sexual interactions with others seem to be of primary importance to conceptualizations of interactional, public and private sexual schema in people with Cerebral Palsy.

The results suggest that people with cerebral palsy may learn more about themselves and others in doing so. For instance, Esmail, Esmail and Munro (2001, p. 274) observed that people with disabilities who explore their sexuality are more in tune with it. In doing so, people with cerebral palsy and their partners can reconnect and liberate themselves from normative

expectations of sexual activity. Research in the forms of sexual exploration that work for people with cerebral palsy is required in order to provide more information about sexual participation with life-long disability. Doing so promotes the inherent sexuality of people living with disability and their desire for fulfilling, satisfying and exciting (in however they describe it) sexual lives.

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Gender and Acquisition of Entrepreneurship Education Skills in Nigerian Universities

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Abstract

For over a decade, Nigeria has been faced with unprecedented soaring rate of unemployment, and majority of the affected graduates are confused, discouraged, and deeply troubled about the future. Entrepreneurship education was introduced into University curricula to help solve this problem. This study investigates gender and acquisition of entrepreneurship education skills by undergraduate students in Nigerian universities. This survey design, utilized a validated questionnaire called "Entrepreneurship Education Skills and Self employment intentions from nine hundred (900) undergraduate students in three universities: Calabar, Port-Harcourt, and Benin. Multi-stage sampling technique was used. One hypothesis was stated and tested in the study using Independent T-test at α = 0.05. The result indicated a significant difference between male and female undergraduate in their entrepreneurship education skills. The result also shows that the male students showed superiority over their female counterparts only in their propensity to take risk and in ICT skills. The female students were better than the male students in sense of initiative, self efficacy, creativity, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship. Based on the findings of the study, recommendations were made.

INTRODUCTION

Many graduates are joining the Nigeria labour market at the end of every academic year. Okonjo-Iwela, (2014) notes that not less than 1.8 million graduates in the country join the labour market every year and that 5.3 million unemployed graduates had been accumulating over years.

Reacting to the above statement, Abdullahi (2013), notes that lack of jobs was not the problem in Nigeria, but lack of entrepreneurship education skills and entrepreneurial awareness to self employment.

Entrepreneurship is the discovery of business opportunities and how these opportunities can be translated into workable ideas and develop business concept, the interest in entrepreneurship among the government and other agencies has increased greatly because of its importance for economic development and employment creation. Thomasmore (2005) examined the interplay between enterprise skills, sex division and entrepreneurship in the execution of small and medium establishment belonging to women folk. Research revealed that

male and female role in business ventures and dexterity do not significantly influence the performance of female business skill and entrepreneurial interest rather the exercise of the skill acquired with astute management influence to a great extent the performance of any mode of business enterprise. A positive relationship between Social networking and creativity, risk taking and competitiveness was observed. This observation tends to agree with that of Zafar, Yasin and Ijar (2012) that social networking is important in developing entrepreneurial skills. The study showed that mass media is very useful in proving platform for entrepreneurship in the realm of networking

However, men and women have been seen as equally important in entrepreneurship for promoting economic growth and development, it is obvious that all should be involved in entrepreneurial process. Nwankwo, Kanu, Marre, Balogun and Uhirera (2012) studied gender-role orientation and potentials as correlates of entrepreneurship among students. The study showed that significant differences existed among the gender-role.

For this reason, Nigeria University Commission (NUC) in (2007) introduced entrepreneurship education into Nigeria Universities. The role of education in promoting entrepreneurship education skills like creativity, sense of initiative, self efficacy, risk propensity, social networking, knowledge of entrepreneurial, communication, information and communication technology skills will help University undergraduate students to develop their capacity, capacity building using the entrepreneurial knowledge will bring the necessary innovation for flexibility, autonomy, as well as the capacity to manage a project and achieve results.

However, with the introduction of entrepreneurship education at the university education level in Nigeria, there is the need to provide empirical data on the extent, to which entrepreneurship program offered by undergraduate students' impacts on their gender, in relation to the Federal Universities in South-South Nigeria. This study intends to investigate how undergraduate students' gender (i.e. being male or female) influences their acquisition of entrepreneurship education skills in Federal Universities of South-South Nigeria.

In other words, the research question investigated in the study:
> *To what extent does undergraduate students' gender influence their acquisition of entrepreneurship education skills in Federal universities of south-south Nigeria?*

Hypothesis
The hypothesis tested in this study is hereby stated in null form:
There is no significant difference between male and female undergraduate students in their acquisition of entrepreneurship education skills.

METHODOLOGY
The research area is the south-south zone of Nigeria. The South –South zones lies approximately; between latitudes 4020' and 5055' and longitudes 50 25' and 90 00'. It comprises States like: Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Edo, Delta and Rivers State. The total population for this research was made up of final year undergraduates of Federal Universities of: Calabar, Benin, Uyo, Port Harcourt, Federal University of Petroleum Resources Effurum and Federal University Otueke of 2012/2013 academic session, all of Federal Universities in South-South, Nigeria. With the population of nine thousand, nine hundred and twenty seven (9,927) sample for this study was Nine hundred (900), which represent 25 per cent of population The

data for this study were obtained by means of a questionnaire called "Entrepreneurship Education Skills and Self employment Intentions Survey Questionnaire (EESI).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

H0: There is no significant difference between male and female undergraduate in their acquisition of entrepreneurship skills.

Ha: There is significant difference between male and female undergraduate in their acquisition of entrepreneurship skills

Statistical tool: Independent T-test.

The independent variable in this hypothesis is gender (classified into male or female), also the dependent variable is students' acquisition of entrepreneurship skills. Eight entrepreneurship education skills (sense of initiative, risk propensity, self efficacy, creativity skill, social networking, ICT, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship) were identified and used for the analysis. Independent t-test statistic was used for the analysis.

Results of analysis in Table 1 show that the calculated t-values for sense of initiative (7.333), risk propensity (5.406), self efficacy (4.420), creativity (5.876), ICT (2.037), communication (3.779), and knowledge of entrepreneurship (4.074) are individually greater than the critical t-value of 1.96 at .05 level of significance with 751 degrees of freedom. This means that, for each of these variables, the result indicated a significant difference between male and female undergraduate in their entrepreneurship education skills. The result also show that the male students showed superiority over their female counterparts only in their propensity to take risk and in ICT skills. The female students were better than the male students in sense of initiative, self efficacy, creativity, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship.

TABLE 1: Independent t-test for the difference between male and female students' entrepreneurship education skills

S/No	Variable	Sex	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	T
1	Sense of initiative	Male	346	18.14	2.60	7.333*
		Female	407	19.39	2.09	
2	Risk propensity	Male	346	14.69	2.93	5.406*
		Female	407	13.57	2.75	
3	Self efficacy	Male	346	19.55	2.83	2.420*
		Female	407	20.01	2.40	
4	Creativity skill	Male	346	19.15	2.49	5.876*
		Female	407	20.14	2.13	
5	Networking skill	Male	346	16.28	3.33	0.934
		Female	407	16.51	3.43	
6	ICT skill	Male	346	25.40	5.10	2.037*
		Female	407	24.63	5.26	
7	Communication skill	Male	346	18.86	4.46	3.779*
		Female	407	20.05	4.23	
8	Knowledge of entrepreneurship	Male	346	21.60	5.80	4.074*
		Female	407	23.25	5.35	

* $p<.05$
Source: Author's field report, 2015.

The results show that for each of the entrepreneurship education skills (sense of initiative, risk propensity, self efficacy, creativity skill, networking, ICT, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship) the alternate hypothesis was upheld showing a significant difference between male and female undergraduate in their entrepreneurship education skills. This result is not surprising since male and female learners tend to acquire knowledge and skills differently. However, the result is not impressive, because entrepreneurship education like other interventions should be able to guarantee equality among learners irrespective of sex or background. Similar result was found by Macharia and Nyakwende (2011). Macharia and Nyakwende observed the gender differences on the impact of perceived ease of relevance of studies, and perceived ease of influence to a great extent significantly their entrepreneurial intentions for male and female shows a high interest for internet and networking.

The result also show that the male students showed superiority over their female counterparts only in their propensity to take risk and in ICT skills. This result is expected for the main reason that males tent to demonstrate dexterity in task that require skills in contrast to verbal tasks associated with females. In addition, women engage in risky behaviours less often because they are pessimistic, competing demands on time and access to finance and feel unlucky in some global sense. On the other hand, the female students were better than the male students in sense of initiative, self efficacy, creativity, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship. This result is in agreement with Syed, (2012), who observed that creativity skill, social networking and information and communication technology (ICT) affect positively and significantly to the success of women entrepreneurs in small business. The result also collaborate the findings of Thomasmore (2005), who observed that entrepreneurial competencies contributes more effectively to the productivity of small enterprise than business management skills and gender roles.

However, the results about networking showed that, male and female students did not differ significantly. Social networking is less technical than other entrepreneurship skills and so should not necessarily cause variation among male and females. It is therefore not surprising that male and female were not differentiated on the basis of this variable, because both male and female undergraduates have their own set of core competencies, the value of having social network of colleges for each depend on one another and they are both good in the usage of face book. Social media has become ubiquitous it seems like everyone has face book, twitter, email address and telephone where both male and female undergraduate students interact and communicate with friends, families as well as with businesses. This observation tend to agree with Zafar, Yasin and Ijaz (2012) that social networking influence the entrepreneurs to generate Entrepreneurial intention through which peer groups and educational institutions from similar interest groups and training institutions. The observation also agrees with that of Thomasmore (2005) who showed significant positive relationship between human resource management on one hand among women on the other hand. Significant relationships between marketing and creativity, a positive relationship between networking and creativity, risk taking, and competitiveness among women was also observed. These results suggest that women like men are associated with these and related skills.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

For each of the entrepreneurship education skills (sense of initiative, risk propensity, self efficacy, creativity skill, networking, ICT, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship) significant difference existed male and female undergraduate in their entrepreneurship education skills. Male students showed superiority over their female

counterparts only in their propensity to take risk and in ICT skills. Female students were better than the male students in sense of initiative, self efficacy, creativity, communication skill, and knowledge of entrepreneurship. However, the results about networking showed that, male and female students did not differ significantly.

From the research findings, it was concluded that entrepreneurship education programme in south-south universities in Nigeria is meeting the needs for which it was designed for, since a greater proportion of the student population might be having intentions to get self employed upon graduation from the University. This is also evidenced from the fact that the various dimensions of entrepreneurship education skills considered in this study significantly contribute to self employment intentions among University undergraduates.

Government and University management should commit more resources to the entrepreneurship education programme since it is meeting in part, the needs for which it was conceived.

The content could be reviewed and enriched with more practical content to ensure that the aims and objectives for the programme are fully realized.

Considering the fact that undergraduate students reported to the following skill areas: sense of initiative, self efficacy, creativity, ICT, suggest that training in entrepreneurship skills should focused more on these area to sustained these skills, which are equally important in functioning as entrepreneurs especially for those who may which to opt for self employment on graduation.

Centers for entrepreneurship development should be assisted with necessary materials to aid practical session.

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Turkish-Bulgarian Common Culture

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Abstract

The Turks and the Bulgarians lived together for centuries. The Ottomans brought the Central Asian and the Anatolian culture into Bulgaria. Naturally, the Turkish culture inevitably affected all the material and spiritual products of culture that the people of this geography produced. The spiritual influences can be seen in the field of habits, customs, and traditions. The products of language, literature and art reflect an expressionist material influence. The lifestyle of the Bulgarian people, along with their customs, traditions, and culture met a great change with the fast spreading of the Turkish language and with the rapid construction of works of art. The Bulgarian people who lived together with the Turks, Turkish language, and Turkish culture were influenced by the Turkish culture. Today, lots of Turkish proverbs translated into Bulgarian are in use. We observe lots of examples of Turkish folksong tunes in the Bulgarian songs. The most striking feature of the Turkish culture in Bulgaria is the existence of the Turkish words that are coined into the Bulgarian language. There are some four or five thousand Turkish words in Bulgarian language today. The influence in language is not limited to the words only; there are lots of common phrases and proverbs. On the other hand, the Turkish culture was influenced by the indigenous Bulgarian culture. Under the Ottoman rule lots of architectural works were built, and lots of important literary works, as well as other works of art were produced by numerous men of arts. This fact paved the way to the culmination of a great culture and to the cultural maturation of Bulgaria.

Key Words: The Turkish culture, Turkish language, the Bulgarian culture, the Bulgarian language, literature, art, custom tradition, proverb, architecture.

BULGARIA UNDER THE OTTOMAN RULE

The first contact of the Ottoman State with the Bulgarians, established as the "Great Bulgarian State" in 635 and accepted Christianity during Boris Khan's reign in 864, was realized during the reign of Orhan Bey. The first contact that started during Orhan Bey's reign developed rapidly in the following years. With Süleyman Pasha's – the elder son of Orhan Gazi, also known as the Rumelia Conqueror – setting foot on Gelibolu Peninsula by crossing the Çanakkale Strait in 1354 the age of conquest started. Turks crossing over to Balkan Peninsula via Gelibolu Peninsula conquered first Edirne in 1361 and defeated the feudal states and three small Bulgarian kingdoms. On the other hand, a Turcoman tribe under the leadership of Sarı Saltuk, one of the spiritual leaders of Horasan, fleeing away from the Mongolian invasions in the mid-XIIIth Century crossed over to the Balkans and settled in the environs of Dobruca (Dobrič-Tolbukhin) and established an Islamic community of 10-12 thousand people. The easy pace of the Balkan Peninsula accepting the Turkish sovereignty, and maintaining her sovereignty for a long period stems from the political, social, and cultural aspects. Bulgaria was the first region entering and remaining under the Turkish sovereignty in the Balkans.

Bulgaria had a special important geographical position for the Ottoman State with its closeness to Istanbul, being located on the road to Europe, strategic position, and with its agricultural production capacity. For this reason, she overthrew the feudalism in the region and relieved the villagers, accepted all the Bulgarian people as reaya disregarding all the beliefs, and Bulgaria became the first region to take part in the Janissary Corps. Thus, Bulgaria having

cherished commercial privileges and immunity from invasions made great developments under the Ottoman administration.

The Turkish sovereignty that was established in Bulgaria in the XIVth Century continued almost to the end of the XIXth Century, for 500 years. During this period the region was covered with thousands of social and cultural buildings; and the living conditions of the people were reassured regardless of race, language, and religion. In parallel to the sovereignty they established Turks established new areas of settlement and developed the existing towns and cities, and enriched their economic means. Bulgarian people lived under the exceptionally peaceful conditions granted by the strong and just Ottoman administration compared to their past and to their other European contemporaries. Under the Ottoman rule peace was secured, forced labor was abolished, heavy taxes were lifted; moreover, discretionary practices yielded before the laws.

Following the political development of the Ottoman State in Bulgaria cultural developments started to take place. In fact, the cultural developments follow the foot steps of the political developments from a distance. Cultural development of a city comes to life as a result of a well-developed politics. An intense architectural development was lived in Bulgaria during the Ottoman rule. Existing cities were developed and improved with a new understanding, and new settlements were established. In the Ottoman understanding the cities were made of districts that were formed with cultural, social, economic foundations clustered around a mosque – külliyes. The külliyes that were capable of meeting all the needs of the community maintained their existences with the wakfs founded by the wealthy people. This new cultural model relying on the power and wealth of the state which was converted to the charitable acts embraced all the people living within the Ottoman borders, may it be Muslim or non-Muslim. Turks established most of the towns and cities in Bulgaria, and developed them culturally by building bridges, mosques, madrasas, schools, inns, baths, imarets (soup kitchens), caravanserais, and clock towers. Thus, the Turks introduced a new lifestyle and civilization to the region by building religious buildings such as mosques, masjids, dervish lodges, and turbehs; commercial buildings such as inns, covered bazaars, caravanserais; social buildings such as imarets, baths, bridges, aqueducts, fountains, and clock towers, educational institutions such as schools, madrasas, and libraries; military buildings such as castles, city walls, and bastions. It is possible to see the traces of the Turkish rural culture in Filibe (Plovdiv) and Şumnu (Shumen).

Today, of the towns in Bulgaria: Yenipazar, Eskicuma (Ruscuk-Ruse), Osmanpazarı, Ruscuk (Ruse), Servi, Lom, Kızanlık (Stara Zagora)?, Yeniçağra (Nova Zagora)?, Çırpan (Chirpan), Tatarpazarcığı, Karlova (Karlovo), Sarımbeyli, İhtiman (Ikhtiman) , Köstendil (Kyustendil), Cumaibalâ, Eğripalanga, Kırcali (Kırdzhali), Eğridere (Village in Kırdzhali), Darıdere (Zlatograd), Koşukavak (Krumovgrzd), Mestanlı (Momchilgrod), Cisri Mustafapaşa (Svilengrad) and 60 % of the villages are all Turkish settlements.

In the XVIIth Century, Evliya Çelebi who traveled and collected valuable information on important parts of the Ottoman Empire in his famous Seyahatname gives detailed accounts of the town in Bulgaria. Sofia, the capital city of Bulgaria today was the administrative center of the Ottoman Rumelian Beylerbeyi.

Sofia, which the Ottomans seized from the Serbian Boyars, after achieving its status as the administrative center of the Beylerbeyi, during the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent, was

developed as an important center of trade but as of the XVIIIth Century it started to lose its importance. Main reasons this decline were the wars, and the changing of the trade roots.

Filibe, which was the center of the Eastern Rumelian Vilayet , and the neighboring Konuş village, as well as the Meriç Bridge were all filled with Turkish architectural works of art.

Considering the status of Eskizağra, which was a place of settlement with its 17 mosques, 42 schools, 5 baths, along with 855 shops, and 3.000 houses, and a large covered bazaar, Turks' bringing and introducing of the creature comforts to Bulgaria, at the same level they did in their own country, can easily be understood.

The old Cisri Mustafa Pasha town, which the Bulgarians named Svilengrad, was remembered with its 12-arched bridge as much as it did with its inns, baths, and imarets.

Turks called the Bulgarian city of Şumen, Şumnu. This city made a gradual progress and gained importance as of the XVIIIth Century.

Razgrad, which is famous with the mosque which Ibrahim Pasha had it built, the son-in-law of Suleiman the Magnificent; Rusçuk, which became an important commercial center as of the XVIth Century was founded by the Turks on the Danube; and Niğbolu (Nikopol), where the Ottomans gained an overwhelming victory was the threshold of Europe for the Ottomans, was the sanjack center with its 4.000 houses and 1.000 shops. Lofça was a Turkish city where 16 districts of out of 22 were populated by the Muslim Turks.

Ottomans gave priority to the charity foundations in Bulgaria. In the foundations Sultan Murat II had had them built in Filibe, and in Köstendil the passengers were treated for free.

THE ORIGINS OF THE BULGARIANS

The main reason of amalgamation of the Turks with the Bulgarians during the Ottoman reign, accepting each others' culture easily, and living together for hundreds of years lies their having similar Turkic origins. Analyzing the origins of the Bulgarians one will find that the Bulgarians have Turkic origins. The explicit proofs of the Bulgarians' Turkic origins lie in the archaeological findings, Proto-Bulgarian language studies, and in the tomb stones belonging to Idil Bulgarians.

Under the light of the latest archaeological discovered carried out in Tataristan, the roots of the Bulgarians extend as far back as the Usuns in Central Asia. Usuns are the neighbors of the Hsiyung-nus, Sakas, and the Yueçis who lived on the skirts of the Tengri Mountains towards the end of the IIIrd Century BC.

In 1882 A. Vambery declared the Bulgarians' Turkic origins for the first time. Bulgarian academician Ivan Shishmanov after having analyzed all the information and the documents pertaining to the Bulgarian origins, in 1900, came to the conclusion that the early founders of the Bulgarian State had Turkic origins. Following the archaeological discoveries in Bulgaria, and the studies on the Bulgarian history of art, carried out in 1922-1939 period, by the Hungarian historian G. Feher, Turkish philologists Gy. Nemeth and L. Rasony, Bulgarians' Turkic origins were proven. These proofs were studied by the specialists in the field and welcomed by the scientific circles. Priskos, Vth Century Byzantine historian, claimed in his

work that the Bulgarians were anew Turkic community made up of the amalgamation of Turkish Huns and the Oghuz Turks.

The term "Bulgar" could not have been explained in any language other than Turkish. "Bulgar" means "to mix". Thus, it is a term denoting the amalgamation of these two Turkish tribes.

The term "Bulgar" is first mentioned in the Byzantine documents pertaining to Byzantine Emperor Xenon's (474-491) calling for military help from a tribe living in the northwestern Black Sea coasts.

THE TURKISH TRACES IN THE CULTURES OF THE FIRST BULGARIAN STATES İN HISTORY
The Bulgarians, whose Turkic origins were proven with the studies carried out in the XIXth Century, and the Turks have common pasts. The first seeds of the Turkish culture were sewn by the arrival of the Turkish raider tribes in the Bulgarian country in the IVth Century; and the systematic immigrations of the Ottoman Turks into the region between the XIVth and XIXth centuries made the Turkish culture an indispensable element of this geography.

Close analyses reveal similarities between the Turkish tribes and the historical development of the Bulgarian language, religion, writing, and sovereignty. In fact the Bulgarians maintained their own Turkic dialect for centuries. The names of the emperors in the oldest Bulgarian documents, as appeared in the "Khans List", reveal the usage of this dialect clearly. The meeting of the Danube and Volga Bulgarian languages and dialects with today's Chuvash language and proto-Bulgarian in the main Turkish language provides a substantial proof. The main reason for the Bulgarian peoples' speaking Turkish better than their own mother language "Bulgarian" stems from the fact that the Bulgarian Turks spread their own culture and language over the region as of second half of the VIIIth Century. The roots of the Turkish words used in Hungary today lies in the Oghur-Bulgar Turkish language. Hungarians' living together with the Oghur Turks for long years in the Caucasus-Volga region led to their influence by the Turkish culture. There are lots of Turkish phrases pertaining to administration, and military in the Bulgarian Slavic language. There are also Turkish phrases in the proto-Bulgarian inscriptions written in Greek.

There are symbols similar to Orkhun alphabet in the Bulgarian monuments, works of art. F. Altheim claims that Oghur Bulgarians used a kind of runic alphabet that was thoroughly different from the Greek and Latin alphabets, and that this Danube Bulgarian was a continuation of the alphabet used by the Western Huns. The Bulgarian Turks believed in the sacredness of the natural powers, to the spirit of their ancestors, and to the Heavenly God – the Sky God. Bulgarian Turks did not worship the stone, water, sword, hound, horse, or to any other animal, or to the sun or the moon. They did not sacrifice human lives to their god. They built monuments and wrote epitaphs as a sign of respect to their ancestors. They gave special importance to their cemeteries, and severely punished those who violated them. At the very core of the Bulgarian Turks' belief lies the Sky God cult that has a national significance for the Turks. Bulgarian Turks' epitaphs reveal that they believed in the single creator and that they referred to him as "Tanghra" and worshipped only to him. For them God is eternal. He sees and knows everything, and distinguishes between right and wrong. He gives life, prolongs life, and punishes the wicked. God is the only one and sends khans to the Turks.

In the Bulgarian State the Bulgarian Turks established, the concept of civil code practiced in the Turkish political foundations, traditional codes, and the state assembly held the power. The concept of sovereignty had a charismatic character. The administrative power was regarded as

a gift from God. In the relief of the Madara Stone it is stated that "Tervel Khan was sent to the Bulgarians by God"; in the Çatalar Epitaph, "Omurtag Khan was brought to the worldly throne by God"; in the Melemir Khan's Epitaph it is recorded that "God has given a life of 100 years to this sovereign". Despite a charismatic understanding of "legacy" the khans of the Bulgarian Turks were not despotic rulers whose words were accepted as "the law", just like in the other Turkish tribes, but the sovereigns who were trying to be worthy of praise with a thorough understanding of "kut" authority before God. Bulgarian Turkish Khans ruled under the traditional codes. The state assembly, "toy", was also established by the Bulgarian Turks. The incompetent rulers insisting on misgoverning were overthrown by the assembly by using force. The last ruler in the "Khans List" Umar was killed by the Boyars on the fortieth day of his rule. The army organization, war tactics, and the military discipline of the Bulgarian Turks attracted the attention of their neighbors. The army of the Bulgarian Turks took its rightful place in the works of the Byzantian Emperors, who wrote books on war tactics, as one of the epitomes of the armed powers.

THETRACES OF THE TURKISH CULTURE İN BULGARIA
The Turkish Architectural Works Constructed during the Ottoman Reign

Turks established a great civilization in Bulgaria where they prevailed between the mid-XIVth Century and beginning of the XXth Century. Bulgaria lived its most peaceful years under the Ottoman rule. There are lots of works of art left by the Ottoman State in Bulgaria. In fact, the Ottomans built lots of architectural works of art like mosques, inns, baths, bridges, turbehs, and founded wakfs to maintain them. Some of the mosques, caravanserais, mansions, baths, fountains, and bridges among others constructed by the Ottomans have survived to our day. Ottoman architecture holds an important place in the Ottoman cultural heritage.

Ottoman architectural works are the reflections of the great humanist civilization that the Ottoman State established. These invaluable works denote how Bulgaria was a head of its time in the field of architecture. Those historical constructions, most of which belonged to wakfs, put the social and humanistic character of the Ottoman Civilization to the fore in a most striking manner. Fountains, bridges, madrasas, libraries, mosques, turbehs, dervish lodges, and bazaars reveal this great civilization's approach to men and life explicitly. While the imarets reveal the social aspects of the Ottoman Culture, the unique decorations reveal the high standard of aesthetics, and the bird pavilions reveal how much they valued the animals.

Most of the Turkish works of architecture in the Balkans were built in Bulgaria. According to Ekrem Hakkı Ayverdi, 3.339 Turkish works of architecture were established in Bulgaria under the 500 years' Turkish sovereignty. The distribution of the Turkish works of architecture in Bulgaria is as follows:

- Religious: Mosques-masjids (2353), dervish lodges (174), turbehs (27). Total: 2554
- Educational: Madrasas (142), schools (273). Darülkurra (2), libraries (6). Total: 423
- Commercial: Inns (116), caravanserais (16), Bedestens (3). Total: 135
- Military: Fortresses (5), Tower (1). Total: 6
- Social: Imarets (42), baths (113), clock towers (2), fountains (36), hospital (1), palaces (3), bridges (24). Total: 221

Most of those 3339 works of architecture could not survive to our day as a result of the long lasting wars (Balkan Wars, the First and the Second World Wars), natural disasters (earthquakes, fire, floods etc.). Only 150 of those works of architecture survived to our day.

Most of those works of architecture are found in Filibe, Şumnu, Vidin, Eski Zağra, Pazarcık (Pazardzhik), Sofia, Razgrad, and in Köstendil. Some of those works of architecture are:

Mosques and Turbehs
a) Sofia Banyabaşı Mosque
Molla Effendi Kadı Seyfullah had it constructed in 1566, the mosque is also known as Seyfullah Effendi Mosque as well.

b) Sofia Siyavuş Mosque
Was constructed as a church in the VIth Century, gave its name to Sofia city in the XVIth Century, and was converted into a mosque in the middle of the same century. Siyavuş Mosque whose minaret was destroyed in the 1818 earthquake, was ruined by the 1838 earthquake. The building that is not classified as a mosque as of 1910 has been under restoration since 1980.

c) Bosnian Sofu Mehmet Pasha Mosque (Black Mosque)
Sofu Mehmet Pasha had the mosque constructed in Sofia, in 1548; as the mosque was constructed with black granite it is also known as the "Black Mosque". The mosque is the most aesthetic architectural works of Mimar Sinan, in Sofia. The Black Mosque, which is also known as the Imaret Mosque or Friday Mosque, it the third largest mosque complex the Ottomans built in Sofia. The complex was composed of a mosque, madrasa, library, imaret, hospital, bath, and caravanserais; it is only the mosque that remained to our day. The mosque is located in a small garden next to the Bulgarian Ministry of Interior. The ministry was built in the same place with madrasa that was used as a prison until 1928.

d) Razgrad Maktul Ibrahim Pasha Mosque and Girl's Fountain
The Grandvizier Maktul Ibrahim Pasha had the mosque built. Evliya Çelebi claims that "There is no mosque in Rumelia as decorated as this one." Its walls are nicely decorated with sandstones and cut stones. The mosque is illuminated with a line of windows. The rim of the dome rests on sixteen pillars, and has a window on each face. There are round but slim towers around the rim, it is believed that these towers were added to the mosque during the restorations. The mosque was restores in 1603, 1616, and in 1625.

e) Filibe Şehabettin Pasha Mosque and Turbeh
The mosque has an artistic value with its colorful niche and pulpit, with its tall and slender minaret made with green tiles, and with its finely decorated plates of marble bearing inscriptions of prayers and praises. The pasha's turbeh lies before the mosque which the Grandvizier Şehabettin Pasha had it built near the Meriç River, in 1444. Turbeh is an octagonal building located on the right corner of the mosque. Its door and windows are closed. According to the maintenance inscription, the mosque was restored between 1634 and 1635 by Mustafa Agha. Between the two pillars of the portico there is a fountain and an epitaph in couplet form, dated 1832.

f) Filibe Hüdavendigâr (Muradiye) Mosque
The mosque which Sultan Murat I had it built was restored in 1785. The mosque which was affected by the 1818 earthquake was placed on four pillars. The door of the mosque is richly decorated and is placed in a sharp arched vault.

g) Şumnu Şerif Halil Pasha Mosque and Complex

The building which is known as the "New Mosque" among the people was built under the patronage of Şerif Halil Pasha in 1744. There is no courtyard as there is no vacant land around the mosque. In this complex there is a school, a madrasa with a library, a fountain on the left of the mosque, and a building added to the complex later. There are no classrooms in the madrasa that has fourteen rooms. The fountain is located in the courtyard of the madrasa . Şerif Halil Paşa Mosque, which is also known as the "Tombul Mosque" is the only example of the influence of western architecture on the Ottoman building in Bulgaria.

h) Akyazılı Baba Dervish Lodge and Turbeh in Varna's Obroçiste Village

Akyazılı Sultan, is one of the successors of Hodja Ahmet Yesevî who came from Bhara and Horasan. Akyazılı Baba's turbeh, which is thought to be made during the reign of Yavuz Sultan Selim, has a heptagonal plan, which is not met anywhere in Bulgaria. There are two loopholes on the lower end of the turbeh and four on the top. There is also an port added to the turbeh later.

i) Kemaller Demir Baba Turbeh in Razgrad

It is a turbeh made of cut stone. It has a multi-cornered plan. It has a dome, and a sharp coned entrance. It is in the Kemaller village which is located 40 km. to the northeast of Razgrad.

Inn, Bath, Bedesten, and Bridge Architecture

The Ottomans in order to meet their social necessities in line with their traditions in Bulgaria built inns, baths, and houses; and to meet their own financial necessities they constructed bedestens, and bridges. The Ottomans paid special attention to the construction of the baths as they were extremely important for the public health. Therefore, lots of baths, having multi sections and domes, were constructed in most of the towns and cities in Bulgaria with the utmost attention paid to the architectural and aesthetic appearance. Importance was also given to the bedestens that were regarded as the commercial life sources of the period in terms of economics. The bedestens, which were constructed by high walls and domes, were generally located in the middle of a complex as an inner citadel; they were also resistant to fire. They are also invaluable examples of architecture.

a) Old Inn

It is also known as the "Taş Han". It is said to be constructed over the remains of an old Ottoman building in Şumnu. Its façade is made up of cut stones. The building has a vaulted room one side open to the court and two layers of windows on the ceiling.

b) Hadji Hasanzade Twin Baths

The bath that is located in Filibe, was constructed by Kazasker Hadji Hasanzade Mustafa Effendi in 1505. It is being used as a depot today. The wakf records mention that the annual income of the bath was 6100 akçes.

c) Emin Nuruddin Baths

The other name given to the building that is located in the Old Hisar region of Zagra is "Küpsüz Bath". The bath with a four-cornered top was constructed to be given to the wakf founded by Emin Nuruddin Effendi who lived in Şehzadebaşı, Istanbul.

d) Filibe Houses

Each of these houses, which were constructed in the first half of the XVIIIth Century under, is the example of the Ottoman architecture. There are Romaic and Armenian owners. For example, it is a known fact that La Martin stayed in "Mavridi's House" on his way to east in 1833. The proportions of those houses are excellent. "Kolarof's House" was constructed over the remains of a fortress, and the central piece on the ceiling is decorated with the motifs belonging to the Sultan Mahmut's reign.

e) Crimean Khans' Mansion

This two-storey wooden mansion constituting private quarters for men (selamlık) and women (harem) was built Varbiça, near Zagra, in 1830s. In each of the quarters there are four rooms with fireplaces, sitting rooms with coffee ovens, sofas, and a basement fro the airing of the house. Today the windows of the ruined building are covered with planks of wood. Internal design of the building is decorated in rococo style. The sun and star decorations on the ceiling reflect the characteristics of the Sultan Mahmut II's reign. There are dumbwaiters, hearths, and sitting rooms furnished with divans where men and women exchange things without seeing each other. These qualities reflect the typical characteristics of the Ottoman house plan.

f) Sofia Bedesten

Although it could not survive to our day, the archive documents reveal that the Sofia Bedesten was buily under the patronage of Yahya Pasha in the XVth Century in the center of the complex of inns constituting the commercial life of the region. It is a square planned construction made of cut stone, and is covered with nine domes.

g) Yanbolu Bedesten

Grandvizier Atik Ali Pasha had the bedesten built in the XVth Century in the middle of a large square. Later the Old Mosque and two inns were constructed around it so as to surround the city with tall buildings. The walls of the bedesten are of rubbles, and there is vault under the dome. The building has a twin entrance, and sharp arches. The upper frames of the windows are made of cut stones, the round arches of the shops are made of bricks. The wakf running the bedesten sold the shops located outside the bedesten towards the end of the XIXth Century. The additions the new owners made destroyed the appearance of the bedesten. However, in 1970 it was decided that the additions would be pulled down and the bedesten would be restored. The restoration works were completed in 1975.

h) Ishak Pasha Bridge

The bridge was constructed upon Fatih Sultan Mehmed's decree to Kodja Ishak Pasha over the Struma River 15 km to the east of Köstendil, in 1469. The bridge is an eye-catching construction with it length of 89.50 meters, and width of 60.50 meters. It is made of cut granite. The four vaults of the bridge were closed later. The bridge has a central vault, two adjacent arches, and two small vaults.

i) Mustafa Pasha Bridge

The bridge was constructed by Mimar Sinan duringthe reigns of Yavuz Sultan Selim and Suleiman the Magnificent between 1528 and 1529. The bridge is located 30 km to the west of Edirne over the Meriç River. The length of the bridge is 295 meters. There are four large vaults under the bridge, along with eight small vaults on each side. The bridge which is made of large cut stones is one of the master pieces of bridge architecture.

Turkish Language and Literature in Bulgaria
The most important aspect of the Turkish identity, the Turkish language, in Bulgaria is being taught, at an academic level as a foreign language, at the Sofia University since 1906; and today as a mother tongue in the Turkish schools. The teaching of Turkish language in Bulgaria has eleven years' past. On the other hand, today, the teaching of Turkish language as a minority language is an obligation in the Constitution of the Bulgarian State and a legal commitment in the international treaties she signed. The Turkish dialects spoken in Bulgaria were first studied by a Bulgarian researcher Dimitir Gadjanov; and later Mefkûre Mollova conducted important studies on the issue. Other important researchers on the study of Turkish dialects in Bulgaria are: Gy, Nemeth, J. Eckmann, S. Kakuk, V.G. Guzev, and G. Hazai. Turkish has always been used as a means of publication in Bulgaria. While Arabic characters were being used in the press before the Alphabet Revolution in Turkiye, in 1928; after the revolution some of the publications appeared in Arabic characters, and some in Latin characters.

The contemporary Bulgarian Turkish Literature is the continuation of the Rumelian Turkish Literature. The Bulgarian Turkish poetry, which takes the rich folk culture as a base, employs classical Ottoman rules of prosody and free-verse style. Although it is influenced by the Rumelian accent, its language has always been the Anatolian Turkish. The striking feature of the contemporary Turkish poetry written in Bulgaria is that they are all productions of school teachers who were brought up in the Southwestern Bulgaria (Kırcaali region), and Northwestern Bulgaria (Silistre – Razgrad – Şumnu – Eskicuma (Ruse) regions). The mian themes taken in hand in the poems are: love of country and nation, homesickness, social problems, grief, hardships, children's feelings, and nature.

TURKISH INFLUENCE ON THE BULGARIAN CULTURE
The Turkish Culture that carried and maintained its existence on the Bulgarian soil for centuries influenced the people of this geography, and the products of the material and spiritual culture the people developed. The spiritual influences reflected in the practice of habits, customs, and traditions; and the works of language, literature, and art reflect the can be regarded as a material influence that can be perceived as an expressionist way of displaying spiritual influence.

Turkish Culture has been the source nourishing the Bulgarian Culture for hundreds of years. Turkish folklore has been the most important foundation stone in the formation of the Turkish identity in Bulgaria. This cultural heritage that displays similarities with the Turkish world's folksongs, proverbs, couplets, and small poems will continue to play an active role in maintaining the Turkish identity in Bulgaria in the years to come.

The Turkish Culture that came to Anatolia from the Central Asia and crossed over to Europe after having amalgamated with Islam in Anatolia influenced the indigenous culture of the native Bulgarian people and is influenced by it in return. Culture as its nature suggests is subject to change. Tradition transforms itself into another tradition in due time. The element of a folk culture is the unity of the cultural values a nation produces. The products of the folk culture are the symbols of a nation's word art and of the tissue of the society where it lives.

Historically, the Turkish Culture in Bulgaria is the continuation of a tradition. After the political unification following the Ottoman Turks' sovereignty over Bulgaria, the cultural unification was realized with the thorough functioning of the cultural foundations. The sources of culture

that came to Anatolia from Central Asia and from Anatolia to Bulgaria over the centuries have a shaping role on the Bulgarian Turkish Culture.

After Bulgaria entered the Ottoman rule, the life styles, customs and traditions, culture of the Bulgarian people started to change dramatically with the wide spreading of the Turkish language, and with the building of Ottoman works of architecture like mosques, baths, madrasas, dervish lodges, turbehs, fountains, bridges, caravanserais. Bulgarian people who lived together with the Turks, Turkish language, and Turkish culture were affected by the Turkish Culture.

Naturally the Turks were also affected by the Balkan people and in this context by the indigenous culture of the Bulgarian people. However, the Turkish influence was greater as they were the administrating class. A Frenchman Georges Castellan not only says that the Balkan people lived a Turkish way of life without changing their own religions and languages between the XIVth and the XVIIIth centuries, but that, quoting the travelers of the age, Balkan cities, even in the settlements densely populated by the Christians the lifestyle had Turkish characteristics. Vuk Karadjic also proves the validity of these claims in 1829. The example Rycaut gives back in 1665 is striking. Rycaut speaking of Sofia, which had 1200 years past, says, "It is so Turkish that, there is nothing antique in the city other than the Turks themselves."

Turkish influence on the Bulgarian Literature and the Turkish Words Coined into the Bulgarian Language
The XVth Century was the period when the Ottoman Empire was at the apex of its political effectiveness. The bards that traveled to Bulgaria brought along their instruments (saz) and their bardic traditions. The bardic tradition was especially welcomed among the Muslim population and was restructured with the influence of the Bulgarian culture in Bulgaria. Madrasas were established in the cities. The people who were educated in madrasas and dervish lodges laid the foundation stones of the Bulgarian Divan Literature and the Bulgarian Turkish dervish lodge literature. Lots of poets who were born in Bulgaria went to Istanbul where they became famous. Bulgarian Turkish men of literature reflected cultural mosaic in Bulgaria through the use of language, literature, identity, and cultural values brought from Anatolia. Actually, with the coming of the Turks into the Bulgarian geography in the XIVth Century the cultural exchange began in Bulgaria, and the Turkish cultural terminology made its way into the Bulgarian language and literature. Even today repartees, stories, folktales, riddles, proverbs and sayings, folksongs, couplets, lullabies, and elegies still continue to exist. Lots of Turkish proverbs are translated into Bulgarian and are still in use today. Turkish tunes can also be heard in the Bulgarian songs. The most explicit examples of the Turkish culture into the culture of the indigenous Bulgarian culture are the coined Turkish words. There are more than four or five thousand words coined into modern Bulgarian language. The influence in language is not limited to the words only; there are common phrases and proverbs as well. Some of the Turkish words that are coined in Bulgarian are:

At home: direk (pillar), pencere (window), ocak (kiln, harth), baca (chimney), mutfak (kitchen), tavan (ceiling), kapı (door), avlu (courtyard), çarşaf (bed sheet), yorgan (quilt), döşek (mattress), yastık (pillow), kilim (rug), halı (carpet), and etc.

In clothing: Şalvar (baggy trousers), kürk (fur), pabuç (shoes), uçkur (belt), kalpak (calpac), aba (coarse woolen cloth), bez (fabric), çuha (thick cloth), kumaş (cloth), and etc.

Other than these, the traces of Turkish language can be seen in the names of the cities, towns, districts, and streets; in the commercial and administrative phrases; as well as in the terms used in describing family and relatives.

The Turkish names for dishes, and kitchen utensils, according to Bulgarian linguists, are inseparably penetrated into Bulgarian language. As the Bulgarian people living in the cities spoke Turkish better than they did Bulgarian, Bulgarian writer Sofroniy Vrachanski (1739-1813) admitted that he used Turkish words and phrases in his works to be understood by the reading public better. Petko R. Slaveykov, who first compiled the Bulgarian proverbs, asserted that the Turkish proverbs were frequently used in the daily speech effectively. The Turkish proverbs were either translated into Bulgarian directly, or translated with a slight change in accordance with their own cultures; as in the case of "Deliye hergün paskalya (bayram)", [Everyday is an Easter for the loony]. Turkish proverbs used in Bulgarian were first compiled by Prof. Stevan Bladenov and published in German, in 1914. Similar compilations were published after the First World War. S. Chilingirov, in his two articles he published in 1922 and 1923, specifically asserted that most of the 452 words he compiled in Bulgarian were Turkish words or phrases he recorded from Bulgarian peasants who did not know a single word of Turkish.

This proves how influential the Turkish was on the Bulgarian language. In 1932, S.S. Bobchev published 106 Turkish proverbs together with their Bulgarian translations. The interests of the Bulgarian linguists in the influence of the Turkish language continued after the Second World War as well. In 1968 Nikloai Ikonomov, in the second part of his works Balkan Halk Hikmeti [The Sayings of the Balkan People] compiled all the Turkish proverbs used by the Bulgarians and studied by all the previous linguists mentioned above. Most of them were pronounced as they were heard in Bulgarian, some of these are:

Bulgarian saying	Turkish original	Literal Translation
Aaç inceyken bükülür.	Ağaç yaşken eğilir.	Bend the twig when it is young.
Acı patlıcana kıra düşmez.	Acı patlıcanı kırağı çalmaz.	The bitter eggplant does not get frost-bitten.
Armut aacından uzak düşmez.	Armut dibine düşer.	The pear does not fall far from the tree.
At binene yakışır.	At sahibine gore eşer.	The horse's speed depends on his rider.
Az olsun da uz olsun.	Az olsun uz olsun.	Let it be little but good.
Balık baştan kokar.	Balık baştan kokar.	The fish begins to stink at the head.
Büyük başın büyük arısı olur.	Büyük başın derdi büyük olur.	Great heads great troubles.
Can boazdan gelir.	Can boğazdan gelir.	One cannot live without food.
Çok gezen çok bilir.	Çok yaşayan bilmez, çok gezen bilir.	One does not learn by living long but by traveling much.
Daa daaylen kavuşmaz, insane insannan kavuşur.	Dağ dağa kavuşmaz, 63nsane 63nsane kavuşur.	Mountains do not meet; men do.
Damlaya damlaya göl olur.	Damlaya damlaya göl olur.	Many a mickle makes up a buckle.
Dinsizin hakkından imansız gelir.	Dinsizin hakkından imansız gelir.	Set a thief to catch a thief.
Dokuz nasihattan bir seremiz eidir.	Bir musibet bin nasihatten iyidir.	A single misfortune is more effective than a thousand warnings.
Dooru söyleyeni dokuz köyden kovarlar.	Doğru söyleyeni dokuz köyden kovarlar.	The man who tells the truth is driven out of nine villages.
Düşenin dostu olmaz.	Düşenin dostu olmaz.	People do not befriend with the fallen.
Eski dost düşman olmaz, olsa da yakışmaz.	Eski dost düşman olmaz, olsa da yakışmaz.	An old cannot be an enemy, even so it will not become him.
Eski hamam eski tas.	Eski hamam eski tas.	The same old thing.
Ev yıkanın evi kalmaz.	Ev yıkan onmaz.	Those who break up a home cannot subsist.
Evdeki hesap çarşıya uymaz.	Evdeki hesap çarşıya uymaz.	Things do not turn out as one reckons.

Eylik eden eylik bulur, kemlik eden kemlik bulur.	İyilik eden iyilik, kötülük eden kötülük bulur.	Do good see good; do evil see evil.
Eylik eyle denize at, balık bilmezse halik bilir.	İyilik yap denize at, balık bilmezse halik bilir.	Do good, cast it to the sea; if the fish does not accept it God will praise it.
Fakir kuşun Allah yuvasını yapar.	Garip kuşun yuvasını Allah yapar.	God builds a nest for the homeless bird.
Görünen köy kalauz istemez.	Görünen köy kılavuz istemez.	It is perfectly obvious.
Gülme komşuna gelir başına.	Gülme komşuna gelir başına.	Do not laugh at another's misfortune; it may happen to you one day.
Gün doomadan neler doar.	Gün doğmadan neler doğar.	Before daybreak many things may happen.
Hem kel hem fodul.	Hem kel hem fodul.	In the wrong, but presumptuous.
Horoz ölür ama gözü çöplüktedir.	Horoz ölür gözü çöplükte kalır.	The cock dies but his eyes remain on the dung heap.
İki bülbül bir dalda ötmez.	İki canbaz bir ipte oynamaz.	Two acrobats do not dance on the same rope.
Kel başa şimşir tarak.	Kel başa şimşir tarak.	Out of place.
Kendi düşen aalamaz.	Kendi düşen ağlamaz.	One has to bear the consequences of his own act.
Korkunun ölüme faydası yok.	Korkunun ecele faydası yok.	Fear des not prevent death.
Kurt kocadıylen köpeklere maskara olur.	Kurt kocayınca köpeklere maskara olur.	When the wolf becomes old he becomes a laughingstock to the dogs.
Laf ile pilav pişeydi, deniz kadar yaım olurdu.		If words were sufficient to cook a meal I would have had fat to suffice the seas.
Musafir umduunu yemez, bulduunu yer.	Misafir umduğunu değil, bulduğunu yer.	A guest eats what he finds, not what he expects.
Ne zaman can çıkar, huy çıkar.	Can çıkmayınca huy çıkmaz.	He will never change his habits.
Olmayacak doaya amin denmez.	Olmayacak duaya amin denmez.	Never say amen to an unlikely prayer.
Öfke baldan tatlıdır.	Öfke baldan tatlıdır.	It is very difficult not to get angry.
Padişahın malı denizdir, yemeyen domuzdur.	Devletin malı deniz yemeyen domuz.	State's property is abundant, those one does not consume is a pig.
Saar işitmezse uydurur.	Sağır duymaz uydurur.	The deaf does not hear what is said but makes it up.
Son pişmanlık fayda etmez.	Son pişmanlık fayda etmez.	It is too late for repentance.
Taş yerinde aırdır.	Taş yerinde ağırdır.	The value of a person is known where he is known.
Ucuz etin çorbası datsız olur.	Ucuz etin yahnisi yavan olur.	You cannot get a valuable thing cheaply.
Üzümünü ye bagını sorma.	Üzümünü ye bağını sorma.	Eat your grapes and do not ask what vineyard they come from.
Yalancının mumu yatsıya kadar yanar.	Yalancının mumu yatsıya kadar yanar.	A lie has only a short life.
Zorlan güzellik olmaz.	Zorla güzellik olmaz.	It is no use forcing it.

Yordan Yorkov (1880-1937), one of the leading figures of the XXth Century Bulgarian literature, is a writer who took the Turks and the Turkish culture realistically in the Bulgarian literature. In his writings, Yorkov, gives special emphasis on the lifestyles, philosophies, arts, sorrows and happiness of the Turks living in the Balkans starting with the Ottoman administration to the end of the Second World War; while writing these, he pays attention to describe them as he perceives them. He, while describing the Turkish works of architecture reflects his interest and affection in them just as a Turkish writer would strikingly describe. The most important issue pertaining to the Turkish culture and philosophy Yorkov deals with is theme of unbreakable cultural ties between the old and new Turkish generations.

Turkish Influence on the Bulgarian Arts
Turkish art, especially the Turkish architecture, has influenced the Bulgarian architecture to a great extent. The Bulgarian cities displaying eastern characteristics were established towards the end of the XIVth Century in Rusçuk, Şumnu, Plevne, Vidin, Hasköy, and in Harmanlı (Kharmanlı). Mosques, inns, baths, caravanserais, mansions, turbehs, and the madrasas built in those newly established cities changed the appearance of the cities. The authentic Turkish houses also added to the architectural aesthetics of the cities. The spreading of artisanship in leatherworks, heavy cloth making, and cauldron making, which were all products of the Turkish lifestyle, in the Bulgarian cities brought along a new understanding of market design. Istanbul as a city of trade and culture influenced lots of Bulgarians and paved the way to the construction of the authentic Bulgarian house known as Filibe houses. There were projecting sofas, private quarters for men and women, closets for bedding, and special usage of shelves, and cushions were introduced in the houses of the rich. Nevertheless, these houses are the products of the Turkish architecture with their external and internal characteristics.

In the field of applicable fine arts, Turkish influence on embroidery is seen especially in leather treatment, wood carving, metal works, costume design, in the production of numerous tools and utensils, and in the production of weapons. As far as the art of culinary is concerned, although it is not a field of recognized art we may still accept it as aesthetics of taste and smell, it can be claimed that the traditional Turkish culinary art influenced the Bulgarian cuisine with its sweet and sour tastes. In today's Bulgarian cuisine the Turkish dishes and sweets like pide (pita), dolma (stuffed vegetables), kebab, sarma (wrapped and stuffed vine leaves), halva, boza (beverage made of slightly fermented millet), salep (hot drink made with dried tubers of certain orchids), coffee, şerbet (sweetened fruit juice), kadayıf (sweet pastry), and baklava are all clear cut examples of the Turkish influence.

CONCLUSION
The Ottomans and the Bulgarians lived together for centuries. The Ottomans brought the Central Asian and the Anatolian culture into Bulgaria. Naturally, the Turkish culture inevitably affected all the material and spiritual products of culture that the people of this geography produced. The spiritual influences can be seen in the field of habits, customs, and traditions. The products of language, literature and art reflect an expressionist material influence.

The lifestyle of the Bulgarian people, along with their customs, traditions, and culture met a great change with the fast spreading of the Turkish language and with the rapid construction of works of art. The Bulgarian people who lived together with the Turks, Turkish language, and Turkish culture were influenced by the Turkish culture. Today, lots of Turkish proverbs translated into Bulgarian are in use. We observe lots of examples of Turkish folksong tunes in the Bulgarian songs. The most striking feature of the Turkish culture in Bulgaria is the existence of the Turkish words that are coined into the Bulgarian language. There are some four or five thousand Turkish words in Bulgarian language today. The influence in language is not limited to the words only; there are lots of common phrases and proverbs. On the other hand, the Turkish culture was influenced by the indigenous Bulgarian culture.

Under the Ottoman rule lots of architectural works were built, and lots of important literary works, as well as other works of art were produced by numerous men of arts. This fact paved the way to the culmination of a great culture and to the cultural maturation of Bulgaria.

Although the Turkish works in Bulgaria are the sources of pride for the Turks, they are in fact the richness of the people living in Bulgaria and of the humanity at large. Within this context the preservation of these works of art, their restoration to their original states, and their opening to use should constitute the primary objective of the cooperation of the relative institutions both in Bulgaria and Turkiye.

Today, some of the permanent traces of culture that developed as a result of the long common cultural history of the Turkish and Bulgarian peoples can be observed in Bulgaria. Consequently, if the Bulgarian and the Turkish people come together, they can cherish the same cuisine, enjoy the same folkdances, and accompany the same folksongs.

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Parents' Extent In And Challenges To Academic Support To Their Children In Kenyan Public Primary Schools In Nandi Central Sub- County

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Abstract

The KCPE results released in Nandi Central Sub-County showed that the bottom 64 out of 186 schools which attained below the average mark 250 out of 500 marks were all public primary schools (MOEST, 2013) hence the study sought to investigate influence of parents' academic support on performance of class eight pupils in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub- County, Kenya. The study was guided by these research questions: What is the role of parents in enhancing the performance of class eight pupils in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County Kenya?, What is the perception of head teachers, teachers, pupils and parents concerning parents' support to class eight pupils in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County Kenya? What challenges hinder the academic support of parents in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County Kenya? How does parents' academic support influence performance of class eight pupils in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County, Kenya? And how can the parents of class eight pupils get actively involved in improving the academic performance in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County, Kenya? This study will be significant to the MOEST, head teachers, teachers, parents and SMC. Epstein, (2002) theoretical model on six- type's parents' involvement was used to guide the study Cross-section descriptive Survey design was used in the study. The target population consisted of all public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County, Kenya which consist of N=186 giving a total target population of N=11,032 and a sample size of n=390. Stratified sampling was used to stratify Sub-County schools in to 10 zones and the schools in to 8 class strata and class eight strata was chosen for the study. Simple random technique was used to sample: 3 schools in every zone, double streams and class eight pupils. The head teachers, class teachers and the parents of selected pupils were included. Qualitative data collection instruments were used to facilitate triangulation with those from quantitative data collection instruments then analyzed using descriptive statistics. 2 schools were used for pilot for the purpose of pre-testing instruments for data collection and to ensure their reliability. The data was analyzed using frequencies, percentages and mean and summarized in tables and triangulated with qualitative data thereby drawing conclusion. The findings of the study indicate that parents' support influence class eight academic performance. Recommendations include: the government should establish a policy that stipulates how parents should play a central role in their children's education so as to contribute to a child's academic performance, the government should increase the subsidy per

pupil to enable schools to buy enough teaching learning materials among others. The study made suggestions for further research.

Key Words: Parents, children, partnering, management, academic, basic

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Parents in every race, nationality, religion and culture the world over are the primary caregivers and teachers of their children, preparing them for a happy, fulfilling and productive life through the support they give towards the foundation of their education (Teklemariam and Akala 2011). For this matter, parents are regarded as the anchors of the family and the genesis of communities and societies. According to Kenya's Children's Act (RoK, 2001), children have a right to education; this needs the support of their parents. Hence, it is generally expected that, the best interests of a child are presented at all times, and all actions and decisions made in favour of the child. This is also stipulated in Kenya's Basic Education Act (RoK, 2013), which stresses the importance of schools partnering with parents to ensure quality education and best nurturing environment for their children.

No doubt therefore, parents have the most important role in bringing up their children, whilst the children have a right to education. These rights are enshrined in the legally binding United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations (UNESCO, 2003). Further, The Parents' Charter (1994) which articulates the rights of the parents over their children's education, clearly states that "parents" may volunteer to share skills and interest with pupils and teachers, and attend meetings and other events at the school. Importantly too, the Charter explains expectations held for parents towards their children's schooling, calling for their active involvement as an important aspect in an education; and, how to become more effective partners in their children's education.

An effective form of parents' involvement in their children's education is presented by Epstein's Model (2002), which describes how children learn and develop through three overlapping "spheres of influence." The spheres are: Family, school and the community. These three spheres must form partnership to best meet the needs of the child. Epstein defines six types of involvement based on the relationship between family, school and the community: Parenting (skills), communication, volunteering, learning at home, decision making and collaborating with the community. More importantly, all the six types of involvement must be included to have successful partnership. Infact, learners who have support from their parents at home show better performance at school, while those who lack this type of support struggle at school (ibid). According to Kenya's Basic Education Act (RoK, 2013), parents' participation in election of the School Management Committees (SMC) allows them a key note involvement in their children's education (RoK, 2006). Thus, an effective parents' support is particularly relevant for improved education of learners moreso in a developing economy such as Kenya.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

An important manifestation of partnership in education is better pupil performance especially in their academic examinations. This principle has enticed parents through government's authorization to be involved in the learning milieu of their children (RoK, 1988). However, every year the KCPE results are announced, the problem of unimpressive academic performance in public primary compared to private schools emerges. A National level survey carried out by Omwenga, (2014) revealed that in the 47 counties, 220 out of a total of 235 schools listed among top five in every county were private schools which represent 95% of the top five slots in all counties. On the other hand, 221 out of 235 schools which is 96% of bottom

five schools in each county were public primary schools. They all scored below half the total mark of 500 which is the highest mark a candidate can score in KCPE. This trend in KCPE performance has elicited a lot of concern among the stakeholders (ibid). True to say, many factors contribute to students' academic excellence in schools. One of these factors is parents' academic support. However, some parents are ignorant and negligent regarding their supportive roles to their children's academics work. This is more so in communities that think, educating a child is the exclusive job of experts in the education sector (Mohan, 2002). As a result, parents' support has not been adequate and or forthcoming.

A report by the County Quality Assurance and Standards Officer (RoK, 2013) in Nandi Central Sub-County, indicates that a drop in performance in public primary schools compared to other Sub-Counties in Kenya could be attributed to lack of parents' role in the education of their children. Infact, the bottom 64 out of 186 schools which attained below the average mark of 250 out of 500 marks were all public primary schools (ibid). The question is, to what extent do parents in public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub County support their children? Moreover, are there any challenges that militate against parent's support of their children's academic performance? These matters are critical as the clock ticks fast towards Kenya's set development goals.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this study was to establish parents' extent in and challenges to support given to their children in public primary schools in Nandi Central sub-county, Kenya.

Research Questions
This study was guided by the following two research questions:
  I.   To what extent do parents in public primary schools in Nandi Central sub-county support their class eight pupils academic work?
  II. What challenges hinder the support of parents to class eight pupils in Nandi Central sub-county, Kenya?

Research Design
A research design is a plan that takes overall conception of the study including: description of all concepts, variables, and categories, the relationship prepositions and the methods of data collection and analysis (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003; Yin, 2003).This study utilized Cross-section descriptive survey design which involved taking a characteristic sample size that is representative of the target population. This design was appropriate because the respondents were able to report the state of the art of variables in question. Moreover, this design as indicated by Kothari, (2004), provided for utilization of questionnaires to quantify the phenomena in the study at the same time allowing for acquisition, utilization and presentation of qualitative data.

Target Population
The target population for this study was all the public primary schools in Nandi Central Sub-County, Kenya. They were 186 schools sub divided into 10 educational zones. Thus, the target population consisted of 186 head teachers, 186 class teachers, 5237 class 8 pupils and 5237 class 8 parents (one parent per child) forming a total of 11,032 people, see table 1

<div align="center">TABLE 1: Target Population of the study</div>

Zones	Schools	Htrs	Ctrs	Pls	Pts	Total
10	186	186	186	5237	5237	11032

Source: MOEST (2004)

Key: Htrs = Headteachers, Ctrs = Class teachers, Pls = Pupils, Pts = Parents

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A simple random sampling technique was used to select respondents for this study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). The sample was pegged at 10% for every category and 100% for quality assurance and standards officer. The total number of respondents were: 01 quality assurance and standards officer, 19 head teachers, 19 class teachers, 524 parents and 524 pupils, see table 2.

<div align="center">TABLE 2: Sample for the Study</div>

QASO	Schools	Htrs	Ctrs	Pls	Pts	Total
01	19	19	19	524	524	1106

Source: MOEST (2004)

Key: Htrs = Headteachers.　　Ctrs = Class teachers.　　Pls = Pupils.　　Pts = Parents

Study Instruments

Given this study's large sample, one instrument was used to collect data from the respondents: QASO, head teachers, class teachers, parents and pupils.

Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument

Whereas validity was ascertained by research scholars at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology and Catholic University of Eastern Africa, the test re-test technique was employed to establish reliability of the instruments. A correlation of 0.7 was established and instruments used for data collection (Orodho, 2006; and Mugenda and Mugenda, 2009).

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The questionnaires contained three sub sections namely: Section A consisted of demographic information on gender, academic and professional qualifications as well as teaching experience. Section B consisted of closed ended questions with a list of responses from which the participant was to select appropriate answer to indicate the extent to which parents supported their class eight pupils in their academic work. This section addressed the first research question, to what extent do parents in public primary schools in Nandi central sub-county support their class eight pupils' academic work? Section C was similar to section B but addressed the research question two: What challenges hinder the support of parents to class eight pupils in Nandi central sub-county, Kenya?

The data were collected for six weeks and analyzed for results using mixed methods: quantitative and qualitative procedures. Triangulation of results from both approaches was utilized and the findings reported.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This study found out that among the 19 (100%) head teachers, 16 (84.2%) were male while only 3 (15.8%) were female. Among the class teachers, 11 (57.9%) were male while 6 (31.6%) were female. Fewer parents, 217 (41.4%) were male, while the majority 307 (58.6%) were

female. Pupil respondents consisted of 227 (43.3%) male and 297 (56.7%) female. The QASO was male.

Furthermore, among the head teachers, only 01 (5.3%) had a masters qualification; 02 (10.5%) were university graduates, 10 (52.6%) had diploma qualification and 6 (31.6%) held primary teachers certificate grade 1 (P1). Among the class teachers, 05 (26.3%) had university degree certification, 7 (36.8%) had diploma in education and 7 (36.8%) had P1 certification. Parents also had varied qualifications, 17 (3.2%) had masters degree, 63 (12%) had university first degree, 327 (72.3%) had acquired form four school while the rest, 35 (6.7%) had primary school level of education. All participating school pupils were class eight candidates.

This study also found that majority of the head teachers, 11 (57.9%) had taught for 6-10 years; 6 (31.6%) had a working experience of over 10 years while only 1 (5.3%) had taught for 1-5 years. Similarly, most class teachers, 13 (68.4%) had a teaching experience of over 10 years; 3 (15.8%) had taught for 6-10 years and 3 (15.8%) had taught for 1-5 years, see table 3 for summarized statistics for participants' gender, academic qualification and work experience.

Table 3: Participants' Gender, Academic Qualification and Work experience.

Category	Gender				Academic qualification								Work Experience (Years)					
	F No.	F %	M No.	M %	Masters No.	Masters %	Undergrad No.	Undergrad %	Diploma No.	Diploma %	P1 Cert No.	P1 Cert %	1-5 No.	1-5 %	6-10 No.	6-10 %	Above 10 No.	Above 10 %
Htrs	03	15.8	16	84.2	01	5.3	02	10.5	10	52.6	6	31.6	1	5.3	11	57.9	6	31.6
Ctrs	08	42.1	11	57.9	-	-	05	26.3	7	36.8	7	36.8	3	15.8	3	15.8	13	68.4
QASO	-	-	-	-	01	100												
Pts	307	58.6	217	41.4	17	32.4	63	12	32	6.1	95	201 = Form 4 education level = 38.4%	116 = Class 8 and Below education level = 22.1%					
Pls	297	56.7	227	43.3	524 = Class 8 Candidates													

Source: Field Data (2014)
Key: Htrs = Head teachers, Ctrs = Class teachers, Pls = Pupils, Pts = Parents, QASO = Quality Assurance and Standards Officer

Therefore, the findings of this study indicate that, on one hand, most public primary school head teachers, 16 (84.2%); class teachers, 11 (57.9%) are male. On the other hand, most class

eight pupils, 297 (56.7%) and parents, 307 (58.6%) are female. This means that, the male gender supersedes females in public primary school leadership in Nandi central sub – county, Kenya. Among the parents, mothers, 307 (58.6%) take over the leadership role in so far as academic support to their class eight children is concerned. This scenario may be suggestive of the understanding that in most African families, fathers are more out ward bound while mothers remain homemakers and caregivers in their respective estates. Moreover, given that Kenya's population has more females than males, and that more single parents are mothers, it is therefore not surprising that the finding herein reflect the same picture in public primary schools in Nandi central sub-county.

Most head teachers, 10 (52.6%) possess diploma qualification while the majority of class teachers, 14 (73.6%) are equally spread between diploma and P1 academic certification. Majority of the parents in public primary schools in this sub – county, 201 (38.4%) have reached form four level of schooling. A large number, 116 (22.1%) have not acquired an education beyond class 8. It is therefore, noted that whereas most head teachers and teachers in this sub county are well trained, a large proportion of parents 116 (22.1%) belong to the category of persons that may be regarded illiterate and/or semi-literate.

Importantly too, most head teachers, 11 (57%) in Nandi Central Sub- County, Kenya, have taught for between 6 and 10 years only. This finding may suggest that most of these head teachers are fairly young in their profession; they still have a long span of time to serve their employer. Most class teachers, 13 (68.4%), have served for over 10 years. Unlike most of their head teachers, they are therefore more advanced biologically. In this sub-county, most head teachers are younger compared to their classroom teachers who appear to be of older crop of personnel.

Extent to which Class Eight Parents Supported their Children's Academic Work
The first research question was: "To what extent do parents in public primary schools in Nandi Central sub-county support their class eight pupils academic work?"

This study ascertained that parents supported their class eight children in their academic work. However, the extent to which the support was provided varied a great deal. For instance, head teachers reported parents' support as follows: 10 (53%) agreed that parents supported their children's academic work, 8 (42%) strongly agreed and only 1 (5%) disagreed with the statement. According to the class teachers, 14 (73.7%) of them strongly agreed that parents supported their children's academic work, while 4 (21.1%) agreed and 1 (5%) disagreed that parents support their children academic work. Among the parents, their majority 513 (97.9%) strongly agreed that they supported their children while the remaining 11 (2.1%) agreed.

Class eight pupil participants submitted their understanding as follows: 521 (99.4%) strongly agreed while 3 (0.6%) agreed that their parents supported them in their academic work. The quality assurance and standards officer agreed that parents in this sub county support the academic work of their class 8 pupils, see table 4 for statistical distribution of parents' extent of academic support to their class 8 pupils in this sub-county.

Almost all the head teachers 18 (95%) either strongly agreed or agreed that parents support their class 8 pupils' academic work. This understanding was shared by the class teachers. Better still, all parents 524 (100%) either strongly agreed or agreed that they supported their class 8 pupils academic work. The pupils and the QASO reported the same.

Table 4: Extent of Parents' Support of Pupils' academic Work

Category	SA	A	UD	DA
Htrs	8 (42%)	10 (53%)		01 (5%)
Ctrs	14 (73.7%)	4 (21.1%)		
Ptrs	513 (97.9%)	11 (2.1%)		
Pls	521 (99.4%)	3 (0.6%)		
QASO		01 (100%)		

Source: Field Data (2014)

Key: SA – Strongly Agree A – Agree UD – Undecided DA – Disagree SD – Strongly Disagree

Key: Htrs = Head teachers, Ctrs = Class teachers, Pls = Pupils, Pts = Parents, QASO = Quality Assurance and Standards Officer

However, the KCPE results in this sub county continue to show poor performance by candidates. One wonders, what could be the underlying factors for such performance? Could it be that parents do not give adequate or correct academic support to their class eight children? Or, could it be that pupils do not work hard enough, their parents' support notwithstanding? Or, can it be said that the teachers do not provide correct academic guidance? Admittedly, the correct answers to this puzzle lie beyond this study's parameters, significant as they are.

The second research question was, "What challenges hinder the support of parents to class eight pupils in Nandi Central sub-county, Kenya?"

This study established that several factors variably hindered parents in Nandi Central Sub County from fully supporting the academic work of their children, see distribution of responses in table 5.

Table 5: Challenges to Parents' academic support to their children

Challenge	SA F	%	A F	%	UD F	%	D F	%	SD F	%
Parents' Level of education										
Htrs	01	5.3	03	15.8	-		15	78.9		
Ctrs	03	15.8	07	36.8	-		09	47.4		
Ptrs	-		03	0.5	06	1.2	515	98.3		
Pls			08	1.5	-		480	91.6	36	6.9
Parents' socio-economic status										
Htrs	13	68.4	03	15.8	01	5.3	-		02	10.5
Ctrs	13	68.4	03	15.8	-		03	15.8	-	
Ptrs	402	76.7	101	19.3	01	0.2	20	3.8	-	
Pls	476	90.8	30	5.7	-		16	3.1	02	0.4
Number of siblings										
Htrs	-		02	10.5	-		17	89.5		
Ctrs	04	21.1	02	10.5	-		12 68.4 496	94.7		
Ptrs	-		10	1.9	18	3.4	401	76.5		
Pls	-		06	1.1	107	22.4				
Parents' occupation										
Htrs	09	47.4	09	47.4	-		01	5.3		
Ctrs	13	68.4	04	21.1	-		02	10.5		
Ptrs	500	95.4	15	2.9	-		09	1.7		
Pls	517	98.7	01	0.2	-		06	1.2		

Source: Field Data (2014)

Key: SA – Strongly Agree A – Agree UD – Undecided DA – Disagree SD – Strongly Disagree

Key: Htrs = Head teachers, Ctrs = Class teachers, Pls = Pupils, Pts = Parents, QASO = Quality Assurance and Standards Officer

From the four sampled challenges that were thought to be common to all parents in the study area, participants reacted as above. Most head teachers, 15 (78.9%); class teachers, 9 (47.4%); parents 515 (98.3%); and, pupils 480 (91.6%) disagreed that parents' level of education was a challenge to their academic support to class eight pupils. Only 4 (21.1%) head teachers either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement. This finding was not at all surprising given that majority of the parents, 327 (72.3%) in Nandi Central Sub County had acquired Basic Education level (Republic of Kenya, 2013). These findings support the earlier finding that parents in this study area, academically support their class eight pupils.

However, most of the head teachers 16 (84.2%); class teachers 16 (84.2%); parents 503 (96.7%); and, pupils 506 (96.5%) either strongly agreed or agreed that parents' socio-economic status posed a challenge to their support to class eight pupils. This finding may act as an eye opener to education policy makers and parents in this sub county. Whereas on one hand the respondents submitted that they support their children, that support is not in full measure. This is because their socio economic status to some extent militate against the same.

The number of siblings in a family was not found to be a challenge to parents' academic support to their class eight pupils. Most head teachers 17 (87.5%); class teachers 12 (68.4%); parents 496 (94%.7% ; and, pupils 401 (76.5%), disagreed with the statement, see table 5.

As well, parents' occupation, like their socio economic status appeared to challenge their academic support to class eight pupils. Among the head teachers 18 (94.8%); class teachers 17 (89.7%); parents 515 (98.3%); and, 518 (98.9% either strongly agreed or agreed that parents' occupation is a hindrance to their academic support they give to their class eight pupils in Nandi Central Sub County in Kenya.

These findings seem to have internal consistency in the sense that, in spite of parents, effort to support their class eight pupils academically, two major variable pose a challenge. These are, socio economic status and occupation of parents. In this sub county, the level of parents, education and the number of siblings in the family do not negatively affect their support to their class eight pupils.

SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS

Most 16 (84.2%) public primary school head teachers and class teachers 11 (57.9%) are male while the rest 3 (15.8%) and 8 (42.1%) respectively are female. This is to say that public primary schools in Nandi central sub-county is male dominated. More mothers 307 (58.6%) take over the leadership role in this sub county; they provide academic support to their class eight pupils. Most head teachers 10 (52.6%) have acquired Diploma qualification in their professional training while majority of class teachers 14 (73.6%) are equally spread between diploma and P1 certification. Most parents 201 (38.4%) are in possession of form four qualification. However, a large number of parents 116 (22.1%) did not go to school beyond class eight. Most head teachers 11 (57%) are fairly young in the profession having taught for only between 6 and 10 years. On the contrary, most class teachers 13 (86.4%) have been teaching for more than 10 years. In other words, the head teachers in this sub county are younger in the profession than the class teachers.

With regard to the extent to which parents support their class eight pupils, it was found that all participants either strongly agreed or agreed that parents supported their children, see table 5. This finding created a puzzle as to why the pupils continued to perform poorly in their KCPE.

Nonetheless, most head teachers 16 (84.2%); class teachers 16 (84.2%); 503 (96%) parents and 506 (96.5%) pupils submitted that parents' socio-economic status posed a challenge to parents' support. Also, most head teachers 18 (94.4%); class teachers 17 (89.5%); parents 515 (96.3%) and 518 (98.9%) pupils either strongly agreed or agreed that one of the barriers to parents' academic support to their class 8 pupils was their occupation.

CONCLUSIONS

From the research findings, the following conclusions are made: First, the leadership of public primary schools in Nandi central sub-county, Kenya is male dominated. Second, in spite of the varied levels of parents in this sub county, all of them are aware of the value of supporting their children's education. As such, they provide academic support to their class eight pupils. This is acknowledged by head teachers, class teachers, the QASO and even the pupils themselves. Parents' socio economic status and occupation were found to militate against their academic support they provided to class eight pupils.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that parents in Nandi central sub county be assisted to be better occupied economically in order to improve their economic statuses to be able to fully support their children at school.

Gender equity should be observed in distribution of leadership offices in the sub county public primary schools.

A similar study should be done to establish variables that assist pupils in private primary schools to excel in KCPE in this sub-county.

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Empowerment Digital Divide: Case Of Internet Adoption In Uganda's Rural - Urban Areas

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Abstract

Over the years the concept of digital divide has shifted from having to do with those who have access to technology and those who don't because technology has become more mobile. There is wide increase in computer access in schools and personal ownership, slight decrease in computer costs, increase in internet access and wide spread access to mobile phones and services. It is no longer an issue of lack of access but being empowered to optimally use the technology or internet. Taking a rural-urban stride in Uganda"s use of Internet, it is revealed that a regional imbalance still exists. Urban dwellers are highly empowered to use internet compared to rural dwellers as this paper will reveal. This paper therefore sets out to explore the empowerment of rural-urban dwellers to adopt Internet as an innovation taking a case of Uganda. Methodology: Quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to accomplish the study. Interview guides and questionnaires were used to collect qualitative and quantitative data respectively from internet café owners and users. Findings: Findings suggest that relative advantage, complexity, compatibility as well as trialbility being strong predictors of internet adoption. Relative advantage of the internet was found to be the strongest predictor of internet adoption in the rural urban areas. The concept of empowerment of users was found lacking and that explained the low scores on the trialbility concept.

Key words: Rural - urban areas, Digital divide, Internet access, ICTs, Innovations, Diffusion

INTRODUCTION THE INTERNET

The Federal Networking Council (FNC) provides an agreed technical definition of Internet as a global information system that "(i) is logically linked together by a globally unique address space based on the Internet Protocol (IP) or its subsequent extensions/follow-ons; (ii) is able to support communications using the Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) suite or its subsequent extensions, and/or other IP-compatible protocols; and (iii) provides, uses or makes accessible, either publicly or privately, high level services layered on the communications and related infrastructure described herein". In simple terms Cho et al., (2003) states that internet brings together a global network of networks with various capabilities to enforce change in different aspects of people"s lives. Internet can be considered as a form of disruptive technology that has vastly changed the way business is conducted.

Business value of internet

The internet provides seamless and borderless access to business information which was not the case ages ago. It is therefore upon the organisations to make value out of this data it provides by aligning it to their goals. For organisations that have taken opportunity over internet have been able to regress resource optimisation and efficiency to reduce cost of production, grab new market opportunities previously not available, improve quality of their services and products, make use of social media to reach new markets, improve customer relations management, and develop new products for new and old markets through research and development. With internet corporate trading companies boast of e-commerce, education institutions pride in e-education, service companies provide e-services, and banking

institutions enjoy e-banking and e-financial services, all to the beauty of internet (Mutula, 2001). These together yield profitability, scalability and growth of these organizations.

Despite the business and personal value of internet, its wide scale adoption and optimisation remains unevenly spread in Uganda"s rural urban areas. The internet sporadic use has remained largely skewed to the urban dwellers that seem empowered to use the technology not withstanding efforts by service providers to make it ubiquitously available. This has created empowerment digital divide in the adoption and use of Internet in Uganda.

Empowerment digital divide negatively affects the transformation potential for development of commercial, educational and social sectors and above all improvement of living standards in Uganda (Flor, 2001; Rena, 2008; Mutula, 2001). Consequently, such areas lag behind in many aspects of life emphasising the drastic effect of digital divide and empowerment divide in particular.

Digital divide is the disparity between the technologically advantaged and the technologically disadvantaged communities and it is by and large seen as the gap in access to the internet and computing infrastructure (Foley, 2007; Arch & Rodrigues, 2002). Digital divide takes the form of economic divide, usability divide and empowerment divide. In this paper the empowerment divide is more emphasised on the basis between rural and urban areas of Uganda. Empowerment divide describes the ability to make full use of a given technology (in this case internet) to its full potential. According to Nielsen, (2006), the economic divide is a non-issue, but the usability and empowerment divides alienate huge population groups who miss out on the Internet's potential.

To support the growth of internet all over the country, the government of Uganda established a national backbone to ensure access of internet to different parts of the country. Such efforts seem to have catered for access but not empowerment concept of the digital divide. Upon this background, the paper sets to present derailing effect of empowerment digital divide in the adoption of internet in rural-urban areas of Uganda using the DOI as a guiding framework.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Technology adoption theories and models have been developed to explain the adoption of innovations (Ajzen, 1995, 1991; Davis, 1989; Davis et al., 1989; Mathieson, 1991; Moore, 1987; Rogers, 1962; Taylor and Todd, 1995). What stands out in these theories are guidelines they present towards which new technologies can be incepted in organisations. Some of these theories include;

Technology adoption model (TAM) proposed by Davis, (1989) states that the decision to adopt new technologies is influenced by the Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use. Perceived ease of use refers to the degree to which a user believes that using a particular technology is free from effort while Perceived usefulness refers to the degree to which an individual perceives that using a system would enhance his or her job performance. TAM has been widely applied with extensive empirical support through validations, applications and replications (Davis et al., 1989; Mathieson, 1991).

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by Fishbien and Ajzen, (1980) uses behavioural intention, attitude and behaviour to predict adoption. TRA suggests that people"s behavioural intention depends on their attitude about the behaviour and subjective norms.

Theory of Planed Behaviour (TPB) by Ajzen, (1991) states that attitude; perceived behavioural control and subjective norm are determined by behavioural intention. Perceived behavioural control is the perception of ease/ difficulty to perform behaviour. Subjective norm refers to beliefs about whether society thinks that one should engage in an activity. The limitation of the sited theories is that they make it hard to predict individual adoption behaviour but rather adoption for group or organisation (Chau and Hu, 2001).

Unified theory of Acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) by Venkatesh et.al (2003) explains user intentions to use new systems and subsequent usage behaviour. UTAUT presents variables of performance expectancy, effort expectance, social influence and facilitating conditions as direct determinants of usage intention and behaviour mediated by gender, age, experience and voluntariness (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Diffusion of Innovations (DOI) by Rogers, (1995) presents determinants of innovation adoption as perceived attributes of an innovation, the voluntary nature of the decision to adopt it and the communication channels through which the innovation reaches the adopter. These induce adoption to take place at different rates over a period of time. However, Gatignon and Robertson, (1985) argue that there is no agreed consensus on adoption attributes because they vary with the type of innovation. DOI highlights communication as being important and thus individuals go through five stages in adopting an innovation:

Knowledge, Persuasion, Decision, implementation and confirmation. It is worth noting that communication has no scientific means of measurement and highly subjective to influence diffusion of innovations.

RELATED WORK

DOI developed by Rogers (1995) is widely used to study adoption of ICTs, internet (Wolcott et al., 2001) and various internet-related applications (Black et al., 2001; Polatoglu and Ekin, 2001) as well as software products (Karahanna et al., 1999; Kautz and Larsen, 2000). Under DOI an innovation refers to an idea perceived to be new by an individual or other unit of adoption. Whereas adoption refers to the process by which an innovation is communicated through channels over time among the members of a social system.

The theory suggests that there are adopter categories of innovations which Rogers defines as individuals within a social system on the basis of innovativeness. He defines a total of five categories of adopters in diffusion research and postulates that the adoption of an innovation follows an „S" curve when plotted over length of time. The categories of adopters are: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards (Rogers 1995) as illustrated in the figure below;
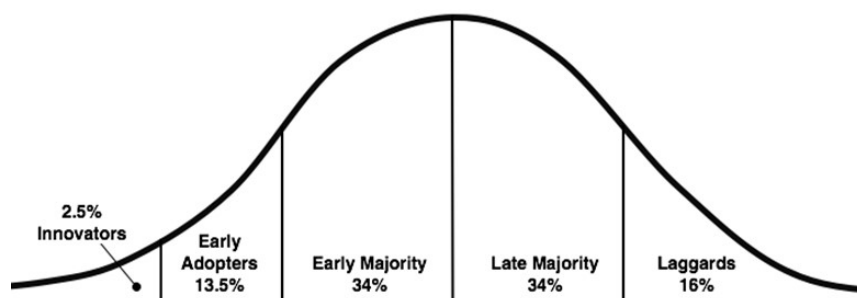
Rogers (1995) further affirms that the most powerful indicators of adoption rate are the perceived attributes of an innovation which account for between 49% and 87% of the variance in the adoption rate. The perceived attributes are those intrinsic characteristics of innovations that influence an individual"s decision to either adopt or reject an innovation. These include: the innovations relative advantage to existing solutions, compatibility level of the innovation with an individual"s life, complexity or simplicity of the innovation, trialability or how easy an innovation may be experimented and lastly observability – the extent of the visibility of the innovation to others.

Kent et al., (2008) in their study of internet banking in Estonia found out that there was great influence of complexity, compatibility, relative advantage and perceived risk on consumers" adoption of internet banking in Estonia. Relative advantage and complexity presented the strongest influence on adoption of internet banking. Other scholars in the area of personal innovativeness have argued that personal traits impact differently on the users" perception to adopt an innovation (Lu et al., 2005; Yi et al., 2006).

Limitations of DOI
Some aspects have not gotten attention of researchers that have used DOI, for instance Cultural differences and financial abilities of the intended adopters. In the developing countries where the majority of the targeted audience lives on less than a dollar a day visa vi the cost of technology, it is only fair that this aspect be considered in analysing adoption of technology in these regions as Kent et al, (2008) cites in Estonia that the consumers of online financial services have higher incomes and greater ICT empowerment.

Perceived risk of an innovation as a deterrent to innovation adoption has also been under looked (Kent et al., 2008; Ostlund, 1974; Polatoglu and Ekin, 2001; Tan and Toe, 2000). Risk of an innovation is important to consider if the innovation is to be propagated.

Lastly the empowerment concept is not emphasized as compared to economic and usability concepts of digital divide and thus a need to consider it, for instance through training.

METHODS AND SAMPLES

Quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to collect data collected from Internet cafe owners and internet users. Additionally 300 questionnaires were administered and 285 (95% response) were returned. Data was processed and analysed using SPSS. Data was captured using a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability while factor analysis was used to assess construct validity of initial research models and uncover any additional factors influencing empowered use and adoption of the internet. Bivariate analysis was used in establishing relationships between dependent and independent variables. Pearson statistic was used to determine the relationship between the spread of usage of the internet and each of the independent variables using (0.05) as the level of significance.

Table 1: Variable factor loadings

No	Dimensions	Factor Loadings
	Relative Advantage (RA)	
1	Internet is easier and convenient to use	0.728
2	The internet provides more access to information	0.726
3	The internet makes communication with friends and partners easier	0.624
4	The internet reduces the cost of doing business	0.682
5	I value speed in my business transactions	0.639
	Complexity (COMP)	
6	The Internet is easy to learn	0.879
7	I adopt to changes fast	0.861
8	The internet is simple	0.865
	Compatibility	
9	I like new gadgets	0.870
10	I like using new technology	0.807

NOTE: Rotated Component Matrix with Kaiser Normalization. Source: Primary data

DATA ANALYSIS

Reliability was tested using Cronbach Alpha yielding values between (0.62 – 0.695), this meant moderate level of consistency in scales. Construct validity was assessed using Factor analysis to understand any additional factors influencing empowered internet adoption in rural urban areas. To determine the predictive powers of independent variables over the dependent variables multi linear regression analysis was conducted to ensure consistency with earlier studies that used DOI theory. Relative advantage, complexity, compatibility and trial- ability as variables of innovation adoption were analysed using factor analysis. Relative Advantage: Internet was perceived to provide cost effective connection to friends, family and business partners compared to traditional means. User perception of internet as having an edge over other means of connection induces adoption behaviour.

Complexity: Complexity refers to ease with which to work with a technology. User perception of ease to work with a technology creates positive impression to adopt such it. Compatibility describes social system, user characteristics, lifestyle and norms of such people. Social influence is important in determining acceptance and usage behaviour of new adopters of innovations (Malhotra & Galletta, 1999).

Trial-ability describes the element of testing an innovation with a limited basis. Once tried, user perception of failure of the innovation and uncertainty about it is reduced and thus confidence to adopt is built.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings revealed that relative advantage, ease of use, compatibility and trial-ability strongly influence internet adoption by the users. This concurs with other works of technology adoption (Davis, Rogers, 1989). Table 2 presents regression analysis results showing the extent to which Relative Advantage, Complexity, Compatibility and trial-ability influence Internet adoption. Relative advantage and complexity pose the strongest influence.

REGRESSION ANALYSIS
Table 2: Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.286	1.182		112.55	.000
Relative Advantage	.224	.080	.332	2.785	.000
Complexity	.006	.062	.281	.091	.002
Compatibility	.002	.069	.003	.034	.000
Trial-ability	.025	.057	.002	.023	.973

Source: Primary data

A critical view of the data shows that beta values of the standardised coefficients for relative advantage are 0.332 which shows a higher level of influence in affecting user decisions to adopt internet. This was so because users of internet found it a powerful and faster communication tool.

Complexity yielded 0.281 as per table 2 implying that ease or difficulty with which a technology is used highly influences its adoption. Internet was found easy to use after all it is such an interesting technology. This was so for the youth and elite class that works with the districts and are categorised as empowered group. However if one is not empowered to use internet it remains useless and unusable. Users should be empowered to use the technologies through trainings and availing them for use.

Trial-ability scored low (.002) predictability to adoption. This also indicates the lack of empowerment that exists to use internet. Empowerment lacks in terms of low skills, lack of support while using internet and illiteracy. This could however be amplified by the lack of free public internet access places or hot spots, for example tele-centers would exist at least in the different district centers but all are almost not existent.

CONCLUSION

Internet is key driver in economic development for individuals, individuals and countries and as thus, writing about its uptake and modalities that surround it is worthwhile. Many theories and many researchers have studied technology acceptance, utilisation and optimisation, however while considering the digital divide, the element of empowerment is understudied.

It was therefore useful to give it a consideration.

It was worth noting that Relative advantage of the internet is a strong predictor of internet adoption in the rural urban areas. Young people use internet most due to perceived benefits it provides just as earlier cited studies proved so. Relative complexity plays a central role in the adoption process though not as significant as the latter just as confirmed from studies of Davies et al (1989) who concluded that users adopt a technology mainly because of the functions it provides and then easiness of benefiting from those functions.

Challenges still exist that have created empowerment digital didvide that need attention if intenet is to be wholesomely adopted in rural urban areas in Uganda. Such notable challenges

include: high cost of the internet, inadequate power supplies, poor connectivity, illiteracy, high costs of training, poverty, cultural factors among others. When attended to, such challenges would be addressed and then internet easily adopted by empowered users.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The installed National backbone Infrastructure (NBI) should be operationalized to roll out fibre connections to last mile connections in different parts of the country to speed up access and fast connections.

Additionally Alternative sources of energy should be sought as alternative to electricity. For instance, green energy, use of Invertors among others. electricity remains a big challenge leading to little or no access to the internet at all in most of the rural urban areas in sub Saharan Africa.

Training centres should be provided at each sub county to equip the people with the necessary skills to use the computer and the internet. This will empower users with confidence to use internet and adopt it easily.

Lastly public-private partnerships should be established, and seek donors to extend the reach of the internet to the under privileged areas.

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Online Instructor Perceptions of Social Presence and Educational use of Social Media

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Abstract

This study examined active online university instructors' perceptions of social presence in a learning management system (LMS), use of social media tools, and willingness to use social media tools outside of an LMS to increase social presence. Data were collected via an anonymous electronic survey. Results indicated instructors perceived a high level of social presence in an LMS, but there were specific limitations. Subscription to multiple social media tools was common, but use of these tools for social communications with students or other instructors was rare. Instructors expressed a willingness to try social media tools outside an LMS to increase social presence. There is a continued and increasing demand for "virtual" education. While distance-provided curriculum, efficacy of online education delivery platforms and students' characteristics, preferences, and learning styles are all studied, examination of the perceptions of faculty who facilitate learning in a distance format is limited. To achieve success in the cyberspace of education, understanding the behaviors and attitudes of instructors who lead the day-to-day operations of course facilitation are paramount to sustainability.

Keywords: social presence, instructor perceptions, Community of Inquiry, social media, social networking, online education

INTRODUCTION

The continued and increasing demand for "virtual" education, especially at the graduate level, has been the focus of much research (Allen and Seaman, 2011; Arah, 2012; Brazington, 2012; Natriello, 2005). Distance-provided curriculum, efficacy of online education delivery platforms or learning management systems (LMS), and students' characteristics, preferences, and learning styles are all being studied (Baghdadi, 2010; Chen and Bryer, 2012). Financial viability of online programs is also under careful evaluation (Mooney, 2013). Similarly, technical innovations related to education and social media aimed at increasing student satisfaction and success regularly fall under the microscope for review (Blankenship, 2011; Boyd, 2007; Peck, 2012). What are less frequently assessed are the perceptions of faculty who facilitate learning in a distance format. This is not surprising; at the university level, unlike in the K-12 arena, there are no common standards, certifications, requirements, or even experiences that define qualifications for higher education faculty. This absence of an agreed upon set of qualifications is even more common in online environments. As a result of this absence of a core set of credentials for online faculty, accurate assessment of performance is problematic. This dilemma appears consistent with prior and current assessment practices of traditional higher education faculty (Bigatel et al., 2012; Natriello, 2005). For example, historically, university faculty were evaluated based on research, grant acquisition and publication success, rather than teaching capabilities. Currently, traditional higher education faculty are most often assessed through student evaluations, which while important, are unable to paint a whole

picture. A more basic quandary facing researchers attempting to understand the "online instructor" is the absence of a widely accepted definition or description of best practice (Baran, Correia, and Thompson, 2011; Easton, 2003; Johnson, 2011; Parietti and Turi, 2011). A fundamental set of professional teaching standards specifically developed for the online environment addressing the required or even preferred skill sets of online instructors have yet to be defined.

While a well-established framework, the Community of Inquiry (CoI), does exist and has been widely accepted as the gold standard for distance education, it covers categories of what should be included in an online learning experience, but not how to implement those aspects. The basis of this framework is that three presences—cognitive, teaching, and social—must all be present for virtual education to reach its optimal potential (Akyol and Garrison, 2008; Garrison, Anderson, and Archer, 2010). Cognitive presence represents engagement with subject matter content. Teaching presence refers to engagement with direction and outcomes. Social presence focuses on engagement with and among participants. Combined, the three presences allow for a virtual educational experience that productively sets an engaged climate, regulates learning and supports discourse.

Though each of the CoI presences are well understood and theoretically accepted, in practice achieving those engagements remains challenging. Of particular difficulty is social presence because it focuses on interaction and collaboration not directly tied to academic content. As the "human element" of the learning context, social presence is more difficult to provide and measure in online environments. Nonetheless, it plays an integral role for online instructors (Annand, 2011; Gunawardena and Zittle, 1997). Social presence is a powerful force that decreases transactional distance, which, according to Moore (1993) and Shin (2002), is the time and/or space between a student and instructor in an online educational relationship. The lower the degree of transactional distance, the greater the bond between student and instructor, resulting in a better teaching and learning environment. Unfortunately, LMS platforms, like the commonly used Blackboard, are not well equipped for non-academic interactions (Kumar et al. 2011; Poellhuber and Anderson, 2011), especially those interactions involving instructors. LMS environments are designed to support evaluation, assessment, and monitoring of all student activities. This high degree of monitoring limits free discussion (Garrison, 2011). Therefore, including social media tools outside of an LMS to increase social presence and decrease transactional distance may be warranted. As Abe and Jordan (2013) note, incorporation of social media may benefit instructors and students through increased real-time engagement and enhancement of the instructor-student connection (p. 20).

Several national surveys (Jaschik and Lederman, 2013; Magna, 2011; Moran, Seaman, and Tinti-Kane, 2011; Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2013) indicate that online instructors subscribe to an array of common social media tools. A 2011 Faculty Focus Special Report on Social Media Usage Trends among Higher Education Faculty (Magna, 2011) indicated that more than half of all instructors have Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter accounts. The 2011 Teaching, Learning, and Sharing Survey (Moran, Seaman, and Tinti-Kane, 2011) that examined how higher education faculty use social media had similar results. A third survey, Social Media for Teaching and Learning (Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2013), conducted in 2013, mirrored both of the previous surveys' findings. Interestingly, between 2011 and 2013, social media subscription rates among faculty remained steady, even though social media tools became more accessible, affordable, and user-friendly, particularly due to "smart" technology (mobile phones and tablets with Internet connectivity).

However, there is a difference between subscription to social media tools and use of social media tools. Subscription merely indicates enrollment, while use reflects active participation. As such, active participation in social media networking is not easily or clearly defined (Magna, 2011; Moran, Seaman, and Tinti-Kane, 2011; Veletsianos, Kimmons, and French, 2013). While it is not uncommon for social media users to confine their participation to "read only," more effective use of social media tools, like posting original thoughts and useful information, better aligns with the overall understanding and requirement of two-way communication required for social presence. A recent study (Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2013) indicates that online instructors do self-report use of social media tools for educational or teaching and learning purposes, but at a rate that is less than half of subscription values. Of particular interest, is the infrequency with which social media tools are employed. Furthermore, even though online instructors commonly report subscribing to and using social media in their classes, further investigation reveals that this use is "rare" for all but 19% (Moran, Seaman, and Tinti-Kane, 2011).

This lack of consistent social media use in the learning environment does not diminish online instructor perceptions of social presence within an LMS. Overall, online instructors report being comfortable with the degree of their online social appearance and rate their non-academic presence as positive (Chen and Bryer, 2012; Draskovic, Caic, and Kustrak, 2013). A majority of instructors are satisfied (Jain et al. 2014) with their use of common social media tools for educational purposes, but tend to rely on those that do not require their direct or personal participation (Jaggars, Edgecomb, and Stacey, 2013). Although Facebook, LinkedIn, and blogs are occasionally and inconsistently included in courses, the most regularly-used social media tool is YouTube (McNally-Salas, Espinosa-Gomez, and Lavigne, 2011). However, videos from YouTube, while instructor-selected, are not always instructor-created (McLawhon and Cutright, 2012). This may be a cause of student dissatisfaction with instructors' utilization of social media tools within courses, as revealed in a recent study (Fidalago and Thorman, 2012) that assessed student perceptions of online instructor social media use. Additionally, this dissatisfaction stems not just from lack of instructor involvement but also from too much faculty involvement (Aubry, 2013; Mazer, Murphy, and Simonds, 2007). A balance, it seems, has yet to be struck.

Finally, although students generally view the use of social media in education positively (Abe & Jordan, 2013), online instructor willingness to use social media tools outside of an LMS to increase social presence is lacking (Johnson, 2011). Reluctance may stem from several reasons, such as security issues, credibility and authenticity limitations, lack of effective measurement, and hesitation to adopt "yet another silver-bullet approach" (YASBA) (Dorn, 2012). Security concerns include questions about privacy rights (Jacobs, 2012). Limitations of social media tools include an open environment and resulting vulnerability, lack of rigor or authenticity of information (McLawhon and Cutright, 2012) and the participatory nature and shared leadership, which are endorsed theoretically, but not practically, by online instructors (Dyment, Downing, and Budd, 2013). In an era of standards-based outcomes and grading rubric assessments, it is no wonder that instructors are reluctant to use social media tools outside an LMS platform given their lack of metrics. Further, the use of social media tools seems to fall into the YASBA mythical category of improving education with a singular solution (Percy, 2014). Due to the novelty of interactive social media use in the educational environment and the evolving and supposedly improving tools and systems, instructor reluctance to adopt, adapt, and become adept at a host of applications is not surprising.

Therefore, the purposes of this study were to examine online university instructors' perceptions of social presence within an LMS, subscription to and use of social media tools, and willingness to use social media tools outside of an LMS to increase social presence.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Full time and adjunct online instructors from a health sciences university were recruited for this study after approval from the university's institutional review board. The university has multiple campuses and is comprised of two osteopathic medical schools, two dental schools, a college of graduate health studies, and a school of health sciences. Eight degree programs are offered exclusively online. The student population is diverse, representing entry-level, post-professional, on-campus, and online students ranging in age from the early 20s to over 65 years.

All instructors (N=172) in exclusively or primarily online programs were invited via e-mail to participate in an anonymous, cross-sectional survey administered via SurveyMonkey.com. The link to the survey instrument was forwarded to instructors by each program director. Follow-up reminders were sent, at each program director's discretion, within one month after the initial e-mail. The survey instrument was closed after six weeks and data were downloaded for analysis.

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument included items related to demographic characteristics and 14 items measuring perceptions of social presence in an LMS that were based on previous research (Arbaugh et al., 2008; Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997). Responses for each social presence item were coded on a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree=1, disagree=2, uncertain=3, agree=4, and strongly agree=5. Respondents were also asked about the frequency of their social communication with students and with other instructors (very often, often, sometimes, rarely, never) and their available time for social connections with students and other instructors. Finally, respondents were asked if they would be willing to use a social media tool if one was offered outside the LMS (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree). The entire survey instrument was reviewed for face and content validity by four doctoral-level distance education professors.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data were downloaded into IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22.0 for analysis. Frequencies and percentages were calculated on age category, sex, and race/ethnicity. Due to a non-normal distribution, hours worked per week were summarized using the median. Means, standard deviations, medians, minimum, and maximum were calculated on each of the 14 items measuring perceptions of social presence. In addition, the mean response across all 14 social presence items was calculated as an overall, summary measure of perception of social presence. Because perceptions of social presence and adoption of technologies such as social media tools may be contingent on age, differences in these variables by age were analyzed. The overall mean social presence score was normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk p values >.05); therefore, a two-tailed, independent samples t-test was used to compare means between instructors 50 or younger and those 51 or older. Chi-square tests were used to examine age differences in comfort with social media tools, subscription to and use of social media tools, and willingness to use a social media tool outside an LMS. For all tests, the criterion for statistical significance was set to < .05.

FINDINGS

A total of 92 instructors (54%) completed the survey. Most (71%) were 41 years or older, 61% were female, and 82% were white. Instructors worked between 6 and 90 hours per week (median=50 hours).

Overall, instructors reported high levels of social presence in an LMS (Mathieson and Leafman 2014). As shown in Table 1, they were comfortable interacting with course participants in an LMS, participating in discussions, disagreeing with others, and conversing through a text-based medium of the LMS. They believed that their point of view was acknowledged by other participants and that the online discussions in an LMS helped them develop a sense of collaboration. However, instructors also believed that discussions in an LMS tended to be more impersonal than teleconference discussions and that communication through an LMS was not an excellent medium for social interaction.

Overall mean perception of social presence in an LMS was lower for instructors 51 and older (3.56) than for instructors 50 and younger (3.85), t (90)=2.56, p=.012. Similarly, only 63% of instructors 51 and older reported comfort with using social media, compared to 70% of instructors 50 and younger. However, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 1: Perceptions of Social Presence

Question	Mean (SD)	Median [minimum, maximum]
In Blackboard, I feel comfortable disagreeing with other course participants while still maintaining a sense of trust.	4.0 (.76)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
Messages on Blackboard are impersonal.	2.5 (1.0)	2.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I feel comfortable interacting with other course participants in Blackboard.	4.4 (.78)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I feel comfortable conversing through Blackboard's text-based medium.	4.00 (.95)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I feel comfortable participating in Blackboard discussions.	4.4 (.72)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I am able to form distinct individual impressions of other participants using Blackboard.	3.9 (.08)	4.0 [2.0, 5.0]
Communication through Blackboard is an excellent medium for social interaction.	3.20 (1.01)	3.0 [1.0, 5.0]
The introductions in Blackboard enable me to form a sense of online community.	3.70 (.93)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I create a feeling of an online community within Blackboard.	3.94 (.84)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]

I moderate the discussions in Blackboard.	4.18 (.84)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
Discussions using the medium of Blackboard tend to be more impersonal than face-to-face discussions.	3.41 (1.11)	4.0 [1.0, 5.0]
Blackboard discussions tend to be more impersonal than teleconference discussions.	3.07 (1.10)	3.0 [1.0, 5.0]
I feel that my point of view is acknowledged by other participants in Blackboard.	4.22 (.65)	4.0 [2.0, 5.0]
Online discussions in Blackboard help me to develop a sense of collaboration.	3.93 (.77)	4.0 [2.0, 5.0]

Note. Responses were coded Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Uncertain=3, Agree=4, Strongly Agree=5. SD = standard deviation.

Ninety-two percent of instructors subscribed to at least one of the social media tools listed on the survey, with the most frequent being Facebook (73%), LinkedIn (59%), and Skype (59%) (Figure 1). Despite this, social media tools were not commonly used to communicate with students or other instructors. There were no differences by instructor age in subscription to or use of social media tools.

Over half of instructors (66%) reported having social communication with students often or very often, but the most common modes of communication were e-mail (90%), an LMS (86%), and telephone (59%). Only 34% reported having social communication with other instructors often or very often.
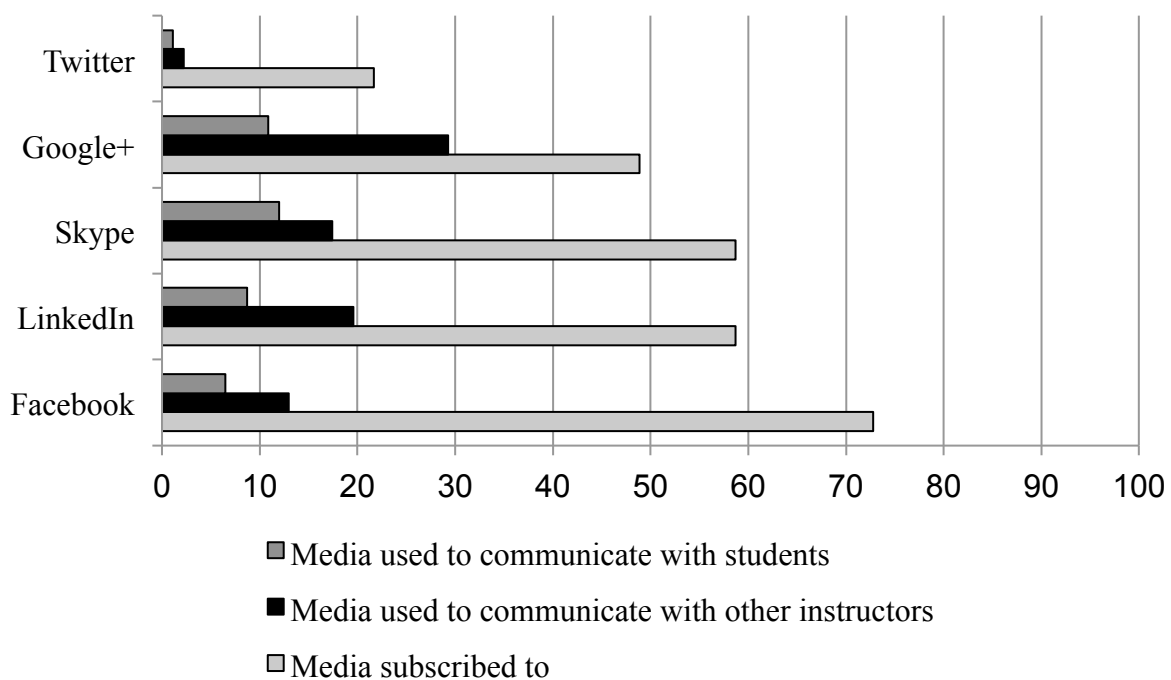

Figure 1. Social media use of online university instructors.
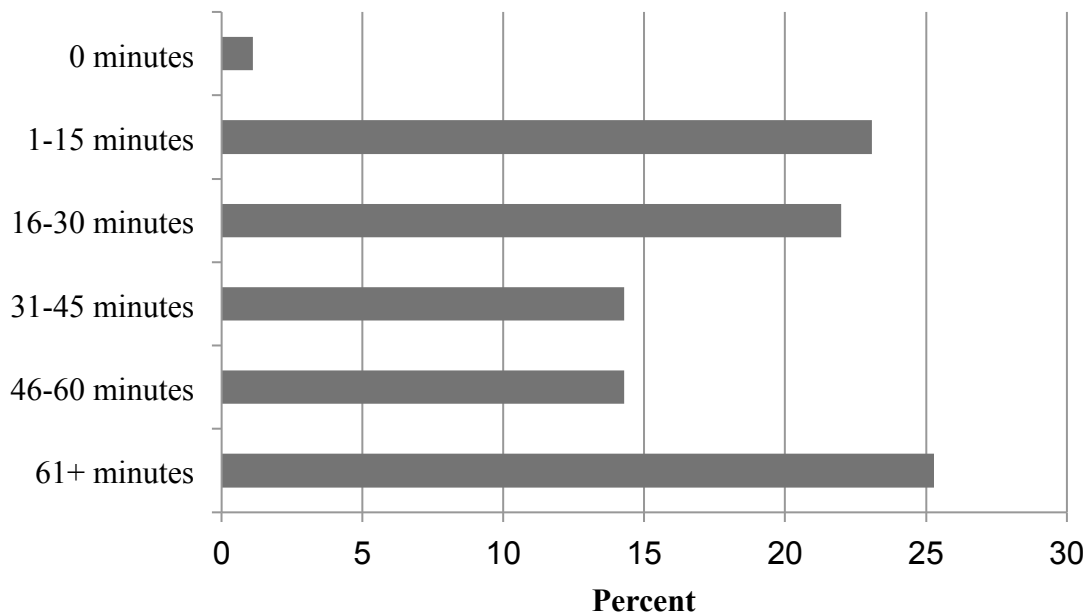
Figure 2. Minutes available daily for social connection with students and other instructors.

Only one instructor reported having no time available daily for social connection with students and other instructors. Seventy-six percent reported having 16 or more minutes per day to devote to such connections (Figure 2). One-third of instructors reported they were very comfortable using social media, and when asked whether they would use a social media tool outside an LMS if one was provided, 23% disagreed or strongly disagreed, 34% agreed or strongly agreed, and 38% were uncertain (Figure 3). There were no age differences in willingness to use a social media tool outside an LMS.
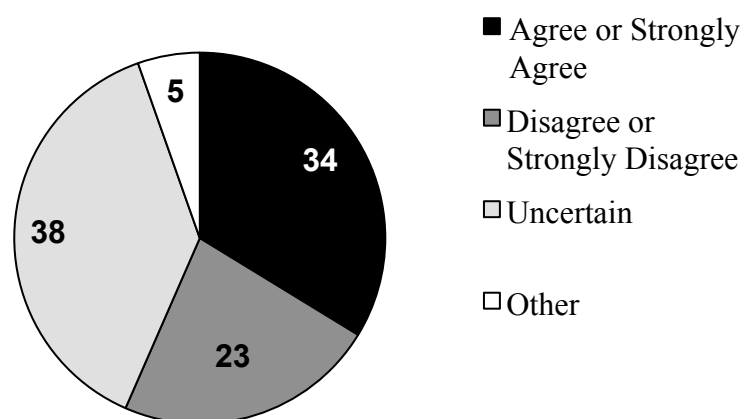
Figure 3. Willingness to use a social media tool outside a Learning Management System.

DISCUSSION

Social presence in an online environment is counterintuitive (Pacansky-Brock, 2013). Unlike a face-to-face classroom where sociality is required, online academic environments delivered via a virtual learning platform or an LMS do not promote engagement of students and faculty in non-academic interactions (Borup, West, and Graham, 2012). Given the importance of social presence and its link to student satisfaction, efforts must be made to boost social presence

within online courses. A complicating factor is that online students and instructors may have different perceptions of social presence within an LMS. Prior research (Leafman, Mathieson & Ewing, 2012; Mathieson & Leafman, 2014) has shown that compared to instructors, students perceive a lower level of social presence in a course housed within an LMS. In particular, students perceive the LMS as more impersonal than instructors and are less comfortable participating in LMS activities than instructors.

Results of the current study, which examined online instructor perceptions of social presence within an LMS, support prior findings (Brazington, 2012; Chen and Bryer, 2012; Dorn, 2012; Sung and Mayer, 2012). Instructors perceived a high level of social presence in an LMS. They indicated that they had time available daily for social connections with students and other instructors. While one-third were willing to use a social media tool outside an LMS, nearly 40% were uncertain, pointing to potential concerns about the type of tool to use and exactly how to appropriately incorporate its content into an online course environment.

Overall, online instructors were satisfied with the level of social interaction that occurred in their courses. However, these instructors also indicated that discussions in an LMS tended to be more impersonal than teleconference discussions and that communication through an LMS was not an excellent medium for social interaction. Therefore, despite instructors' perceptions that an LMS fosters a satisfactory level of social presence, potentially significant LMS limitations exist. This finding is important because students in an online environment highly value social relationships and perceive them to be tied to success (Brunet, 2011). If an LMS is unable to deliver a venue for adequate non-academic interactions between instructors and students, then tools outside an LMS, including social media tools, should be considered for inclusion in online curricula.

Professional use of social media tools outside of an LMS by online instructors may or may not be an insurmountable obstacle. In the current study, over 90% of instructors subscribed to at least one social media tool, with Facebook being the most common, and one-third were very comfortable using social media. They also reported having time for social media. However, very few instructors used social media tools to communicate with other members of their learning community. This result is consistent with prior research suggesting that online instructors do subscribe to a variety of social media platforms (Jaschik and Lederman, 2013; Magna, 2011; Seaman and Tinti-Kane, 2013), but suitably incorporating those platforms into course curricula remains a challenge (Revere and Kovach, 2011; Rodrigues, Sabino, and Zhou, 2010). Third-party multimedia, like YouTube videos and/or Rich Site Summary (RSS) blog feeds, for example, are certainly valuable learning tools, but offer little opportunity to increase social presence and social connections among instructors and between an instructor and students.

Ambivalence about and reluctance to use social media tools to engage with students may stem from several hesitancies, including lack of training, lack of opportunity, or, more seriously, legal and ethical concerns (Blankenship, 2011; Bugeja 2006; Demski, 2012). Lack of training may arise from a willing or unwilling transition of traditional faculty to an online environment. Mastering the technology of any LMS takes time, perseverance, and adaptability. The "virtual classroom" is not a seamless transition. Complex requirements need to be addressed such as determining the best methods for asynchronous course delivery. Less obvious, but still confounding, are issues of office hours, instructor availability, and assignment turnaround time. Further, students are everywhere and in all time zones, so schedules, cultures and accepted social behaviors are more diverse. For example, how students regard, address and

approach instructors with course questions, comments and concerns varies widely around the globe, as do expectations of services offered. Also, the pace of an LMS technology and the technological "glitches" that arise are different from problems that arise in a traditional classroom. Platforms regularly change and an online instructor's ability to transfer prior working knowledge of an LMS may be of limited assistance. In addition, there is the always frustrating reality of Internet and server reliability. Access to an online course is completely reliant on a cadre of internal and external network connectivity. One break and a course can be offline from seconds to hours, unexpectedly playing havoc with already tight schedules. For technologically untrained instructors, requiring the use of social media tools in addition to and outside an LMS may be asking too much.

Lack of opportunity of online instructors as indicated by the results of this study, (Figure 3) may also influence the willingness of online instructors to incorporate social media tools outside an LMS into their courses (Jennings, 2012; Roblyer et al., 2010). Traditionally, instructors teach in a physical classroom on a subject matter in which they are experts or at least adequately trained. In an online environment, an instructor is asked to be a teacher as well as a director, producer, editor, videographer, and technical support adviser, often simultaneously. The demand to present coursework dynamically while at the same time being all things to all students can be overwhelming. Therefore, the less outside multimedia offered, the less online instructor dedication to time consuming and technologically challenging content supplements. Mastering the art of uploading third party videos, blogs, and RSS feeds, for example, as opposed to anxiously creating original multimedia content, is as far as most instructors are willing or confident enough to go.

In addition, adding social media tools outside an LMS raises potentially serious legal and ethical issues. This may explain why, although the majority of online instructors in this study subscribed to some type of social media tool, most were uncertain about or unwilling to use such a tool outside the LMS to engage with students. Questions of exactly what and how much an instructor should or can personally share in an online environment do not have clear answers (Jain et al., 2012; Wang, 2014). There is no definitive line in the sand indicating what is acceptable and what is taboo. What is allowable and what is not are regularly being tested in the courts (Aragon et al., 2014). Typical examples include violations of the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) and Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) regulations. How concerned must an instructor be with assuring that all posts (without prior written approval) are deidentified and deemed truly anonymous?   The inadvertent abuse or even simple perception of misuse of social media tools has led academic institutions to large financial settlements as well as the ruin of instructor reputations and, in some cases, suspensions or permanent dismissals (George, Rovniak, and Kraschnewski, 2013).

CONCLUSION

Fostering social presence in an online environment may call for the use of social media tools not found within an LMS (Demski, 2012; Jaschik and Lederman, 2013; Jacobs, 2012). In addition, research has shown that students are enthusiastic about the incorporation of social media into the educational experience (Abe & Jordan, 2013). Unfortunately, a clear vision for how and when to use social media as a course enhancement is not currently available. Without such a directive, online university instructors are left without guidelines for to how to proceed successfully and without putting themselves or their jobs at risk.   This lack of bearing, coupled with the challenging nature of social media's eternal cycle of moving parts, likely contributed to the study's results indicating a lack of instructor interest for incorporating these tools into

courses. Additionally, study results indicated that selection of a social media tool and determination of when to use it, without sufficient guidance, technical support or administrative assurances, are confounding tasks for most online instructors. Further, social media tools tend to change their user policies regularly. For example, popular, user friendly and well accepted social media sites more and more often are, without warning, beginning to charge user fees. As a result, what appears to be a wise selection at the beginning of a term may change rapidly. Given the time and effort required to incorporate a social media tool into a course, the instability of this potentially rich resource, to many, outweighs the benefits. Therefore, prior to committing the time and effort required to include a social media tool in a course outside an LMS, instructors will need confirmation of its expected course value, personal profile and post safety, and continued sustainability.

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Primary Students' Conceptions about Issues in Astrobiology

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Abstract
Although students' conceptions about the natural world have been explored the research that studies the students' conceptions of issues related to the universe and the existence of life on it is limited. The present study aims to investigate lower primary students' conceptions on issues in Astrobiology. In particular, students' conceptions about the origin of the universe, the existence of the elements used by life on Earth elsewhere in the universe, the existence of life on other planets, the existence of other objects similar to the Sun, the existence of planets not orbiting the Sun, the elements needed for life and the possibility of life in extreme temperatures, were investigated. A questionnaire which was designed to be elicited students' conceptions was used as a research data collection tool. The questionnaire was given to 214 students aged 8 years old in Greece. Data analysis enabled the identification and registration of students' conceptions. It was found that most students use conceptions on several issues of Astrobiology differ from the views of school science knowledge.

Keywords: Students' conceptions; Learning science; Primary school; Astrobiology.

INTRODUCTION
Students' conceptions about the natural world have been investigated by an extensive amount of research the last forty years [1-4]. It was found that in most cases the students' conceptions about the natural world differ from the views of scientific knowledge and that they are barely influenced by teaching [1-2, 4-5].

The need to carry out research on students' conceptions results from three positions adopted by this work. The first is connected with the constructive view of learning, according to which knowledge is not passively received but built by the student [3, 6-7]. The assumption that the student builds knowledge implies that the student is the one who decides to change his views. The second position relates to the finding that the students, before they begin their education in the school context, have already formulated their own conceptions about the natural world [1, 8]. The third refers to the relationship between students' conceptions and teaching. Knowledge of students' conceptions enables better organization of more effective teaching [9].

One of the fields of Natural Sciences is Astrobiology which mainly deals with the existence of life in the universe. The issues negotiated by the Astrobiology are directly related to crucial questions of adults and students in their daily lives (such as questions related to the beginning of life, evolution and future of life in the universe, the existence of life on other planets, and if man can survive on other planets of the universe). Also, in primary and secondary education and especially in their curricula have included Astrobiology's issues obviously recognizing the need for their study.

Research on students' conceptions of issues in Astrobiology has mainly focused on students of secondary education (see: Section "Literature review"). Therefore, there are no studies to investigate primary school students' conceptions on issues in Astrobiology. The exploration of lower primary school students' conceptions on issues in Astrobiology is the subject of this work.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Students' conceptions about the natural word: general conclusions
There has been an extensive number of empirical research on the conceptions that students have and use about the natural world [1-2, 4, 8]. The main conclusions, common to a large number of these studies, are summarised below.

(a) Before students get to school, they have formed conceptions about the natural world based on their sensory experiences from the natural and social environment. In most cases the initial conceptions of students differ from the views of the scientific knowledge and its school version [8] [10].

(b) Students' conceptions often resist any attempt to modify them and follow them till their adulthood, and are less influenced by traditional teaching (in which knowledge is transferred from the teacher to the students) [11-13].

(c) Some conceptions recorded by the survey appear to be quite widespread among students [8].

(d) In some cases students may keep both the explanation of the teacher and their own pre-existing conceptions, after the teaching. It is also possible to obtain a sort of merging or interaction of the two concepts systems [8].

(e) The cultural context in which they live and especially the language through which they communicate play an important role in shaping students' conceptions [14].

Common characteristics of students' conceptions about the natural word
Empirical research on students' conceptions for a variety of subjects of scientific knowledge have shown that these conceptions have certain common characteristics, regardless of the place of origin and age of students, presented below [1, 8].

Perceptually dominated thinking: Students tend to base their reasoning on observable features in a situation. For example, students say that sugar disappears when it dissolves rather than the sugar continuing to exist [15].

Limited focus: Students usually consider only limited aspects of particular physical conditions, with the focus on their attention, appearing to depend on the saliency of particular perpetual features. For example, students say that two ice cubes in a room (that have different sizes) have different temperatures (ignoring their environment) [16].

Context dependency: Students often call upon different ideas to interpret a situation which a scientist would explain in the same way. For example, students believe that when we have a hot object in contact with a hotter object then heat transfer for a hotter object to a hot object, but when we have a cold object in contact with a colder object then cold transfer for a colder object to a cold object [17].

Undifferentiated Concepts: Some of the conceptions students use has a range of meanings which can be different and considerably more extensive than those used by scientists. For example, students confuse temperature with heat [18]. These are notions which are clearly

differentiated from a scientist's perspective, however students do not have the need to make such distinctions.

Linear causal reasoning: Students, due to the implementation of a local and not a total consideration of examined systems, tend to describe and interpret the changes of systems using linear, temporal or local, causal chains, each part of which refers to a simple phenomenon. Students tend to explain changes in a linear causal sequence. Thus A causes B which causes C to happen rather than understanding that two systems may interact with each other [1]. For example, in considering a container being heated, they think of the process in directional terms with a source applying heat to a receptor whereas from a scientific point of view, the situation is symmetrical with two systems interacting; one gains energy and the other loses it [1].

The conceptions are very stable: Students' conceptions about the natural world seem to be remarkably stable. Stability and durability that characterizes students' conceptions can also be seen in relation to conceptual change, which, when carried out constitutes a long and slow process. For example, the percentage of middle students who responded positively to the statement: "the sun revolves around the earth" was about 30% [19].

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although the topics of Astrobiology interest several students and often appear in the media, the research which studies students' conceptions of these issues is limited [20-22].

Regarding the elements necessary for life, the research of Offerdahl et al. [22] showed that the majority of students (secondary and higher education) considered that water is essential for life and that life can exist even without sunlight. These requirements for life are in line with the scientific view. However, unlike the scientific view many students stated that oxygen is necessary for life.

Hannson and Redfors [21] investigated the conceptions of 16 years old students for issues in Astrobiology through a questionnaire. The investigation showed that most students stated that: (a) the universe has always existed, (b) in the rest of the universe exist elements necessary for life, (c) there are other stars similar to our sun, and (d) water and light are necessary for life.

Additionally, an analysis of the responses from students in surveys revealed that most students aged 10-11 years know that the sun is a star [23], while most secondary school students thought that the sun is bigger than other stars [24]. Hansson and Redfors [20] and Bailey et al. [25] found that although most students (of secondary education) thought that there are the necessary elements for life on other planets, very few students argued that these elements formed the stars.

It follows from the above that secondary school students' conceptions of issues in Astrobiology have been investigated. However, surveys to examine the conceptions of primary school students for issues in Astrobiology are absent. As a result, the need for investigation of primary school students' conceptions for issues in Astrobiology has emerged.

PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study is to investigate the conceptions of students aged 8 years for issues in Astrobiology. In particular, the present study aims to answer the following research questions:

    (a) What are students' conceptions about the origin of the universe?

    (b) What are students' conceptions about the existence of the elements used by life on Earth elsewhere in the universe?

    (c) What are students' conceptions about the existence of life on other planets?

    (d) What are students' conceptions about the existence of other objects similar to the Sun?

    (e) What are students' conceptions of the existence of planets not orbiting the Sun?

    (f) What are students' conceptions about the non-necessity of sunlight for life to exist?

    (g) What are students' conceptions about the necessity of water for life to exist?

    (h) What are students' conceptions of the possibility of life in extreme temperatures?

METHODOLOGY

Research process and participants

This survey was conducted in three phases. In the first phase a written questionnaire to investigate conceptions of students for issues in Astrobiology was formed. In the second phase we applied the questionnaire to students aged 8 years. In the third and final phase after the data were collected, then they were analysed.

The survey involved 214 pupils aged 8 years from eight different primary schools of Greece. Students hadn't been taught courses related to Astrobiology.

The questionnaire

Data collection was done through a written questionnaire. The questions were multiple choice and were compiled taking into account the issues of research and the results of surveys on secondary school students' conceptions of Astrobiology [21].

The construction of the questionnaire was completed in two stages. Initially, the questionnaire was given to a small number of students (10 students) to detect any obscure or illegible signs for students. Also, it was given to three primary teachers and a researcher of the Science Education to test the questionnaire for any deficiencies or ambiguities. After the students' observations and trainers, corrections were made and the questionnaire took its final form.

The questionnaire contained eight questions focused on the following themes:

    (a) the origin of the universe (question 1),

    (b) the existence of the elements used by life on Earth elsewhere in the universe (question 2),

    (c) the existence of life on other planets (question 3),

    (d) the existence of other objects similar to the Sun (question 4),

    (e) the existence of planets not orbiting the Sun (question 5),

    (f) the non-necessity of sunlight for life to exist (question 6),

    (g) the necessity of water for life to exist (question 7) and

    (h) the possibility of life at extreme temperatures (question 8).

Data collection and analysis

We obtained special permission from the schools principals and the teachers of the classes. We also provided beforehand the students concerned as well as their parents with information

about the nature, the purposes, the content, the expected duration and the procedures of the research, and we obtained their consent.

The process of completing the questionnaires took place in classrooms of primary schools. The questionnaire was given to the students by the researcher during the course in the presence of their teachers. The completion of the questionnaire took the students about one class period (45 min).

The research data were the students' answers to the questionnaire. Frequencies and percentage frequencies of students' answers were identified.

RESULTS

The origin of the universe
Table 1 shows the distribution of answers of the students about the origin of the universe. It appears that most students believe that the universe has always existed (20.6%). However, there are enough students who believe that the universe has an origin (17.7%), that scientists do not agree if the universe has an origin (16.6%) or that people cannot know if the universe has a beginning (15.9%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who do not know about the origin of the universe (14.9%) or who believe that the universe has an origin but something already existed (14%).

Table 1. Students' conceptions about the origin of the universe: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
The universe has a beginning	38	17.7
The universe has an origin, but something already existed	30	14.0
The universe has always existed	44	20.6
People may not know if the universe has a beginning or has always existed	34	15.9
Scientists do not agree if the universe has a beginning or has always existed	36	16.6
Do not know	32	14.9

The existence of the elements used by life on Earth elsewhere in the universe
Regarding the existence of elements necessary for life elsewhere in the universe emerged (Table 2) that most students thought the elements necessary for life are only on earth (53.3%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who thought the elements necessary for life exist also elsewhere (31.7%).

Table 2. Students' conceptions about the existence of the elements used by life on Earth elsewhere in the universe: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
The elements necessary for life are only on earth	114	53.3
The elements necessary for life exist also elsewhere	68	31.7
Do not know	32	15.0

The existence of life on other planets
Table 3 shows the distribution of students' answers about the existence of life on other planets. It appears that most students believe that there is life on other planets (48.6%). However, there are enough students who felt excluded that there is life on other planets (37.4%).

Table 3. Students' conceptions about the existence of life on other planets: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
There is life on other planets	104	48.6
It is impossible that there is life on other planets	80	37.4
Do not know	30	14.0

The existence of other objects similar to the Sun
Regarding the existence of celestial bodies like the sun emerged (Table 4) that most students believe that there are other objects similar to the Sun (55.1%), while it is comparatively smaller the percentage of students do not believe that there exist no other objects similar to the Sun (33.7%).

Table 4. Students' conceptions about the existence of other objects similar to the Sun: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
There exist other objects similar to the Sun	118	55.1
There exist no other objects similar to the Sun	72	33.7
Do not know	24	11.2

The existence of planets not orbiting the Sun
Table 5 shows the distribution of answers of students on the existence of planets that do not revolve around the sun. It appears that most students believe that planets exist that do not orbit the Sun (43.9%). However, there are other students who believe that all planets orbit the Sun (37.4%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who do not know the answer (18.7%).

Table 5. Students' conceptions about the existence of planets not orbiting the Sun: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
Planets exist that do not orbit the Sun	94	43.9
All planets orbit the Sun	80	37.4
Do not know	40	18.7

The non-necessity of sunlight for life to exist
Table 6 shows the distribution of answers of students about the non-necessity of sunlight for life to exist. It appears that most students believe that sunlight is necessary for life (73.8%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who think that sunlight is not necessary for life (13.1%).

Table 6. Students' conceptions about the non-necessity of sunlight for life to exist: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
Sunlight is necessary for life	158	73.8
Sunlight is not necessary for life	28	13.1
Do not know	28	13.1

The necessity of water for life to exist

Regarding the students' conceptions about the necessity of water for life to exist (Table 7), it has emerged that most students believe that water is necessary for life (76.6%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who believe that water is not necessary for life (16.9%).

Table 7. Students' conceptions about the necessity of water for life to exist: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
Water is necessary for life	164	76.6
Water is not necessary for life	36	16.9
Do not know	14	6.5

The possibility of life in extreme temperatures

Table 8 shows the distribution of answers of students about the possibility of life in extreme temperatures. It appears that most students do not know the answer to this question (33.6%). It is comparatively smaller the percentage of students who think that there may be a form of life to extreme temperatures above 100°C or below the 0°C (26.2%) or that it is impossible to form life in extreme temperatures above 100°C or below 0°C (22.4%).

Table 8. Students' conceptions about the possibility of life at extreme temperatures: frequencies (N, N%).

Students' conceptions	N	N%
There may be a form of life at extreme temperatures above 100°C or below 0°C	56	26.2
There can be no form of life at extreme temperatures above 100°C or below 0°C	48	22.4
There may be a form of life at extreme temperatures above 100°C or below 0°C but on another planet not earth	38	17.8
Do not know	72	33.6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we investigate the conceptions of students aged 8 years old for issues in Astrobiology. The analysis of data showed that several students have and use conceptions that are different from the views of scientific knowledge.

Regarding the origin of the universe the most widespread conception is that the universe has always existed. However, other students believe that the universe has a beginning. Regarding the existence of elements necessary for life elsewhere in the universe, the most common conception is that the elements necessary for life are only on earth. For the existence of life on other planets the most widespread conception is that there is life on other planets. Also, several students consider that there are no other celestial bodies similar to the Sun and that all planets orbit the Sun. Regarding the elements necessary for the existence of life, students consider that not only water is necessary for life but also sunlight. Finally, most students do not know if there may be a form of life at extreme temperatures above 100°C or below 0°C.

Many of these conceptions of students resulted from this work were detected in the investigation of Hansson and Redfors [21] held with students aged 16 years old. The above finding suggests that students' conceptions of issues in Astrobiology are highly resistant. The durable character of students' conceptions about the natural world is well documented in the relevant research literature [11, 16-17, 26-29].

The results obtained from this study can be attributed to the thinking characteristics of students. Children tend to view things from a self-centered or human-centered point of view. Thus, they often attribute human characteristics, will or purpose, to objects and phenomena [30]. Moreover, children's thinking seems to be perceptually dominated and limited in focus [1].

In the present paper the limited sample restricts the research and its results. In addition, data collection in this study was made through a questionnaire. The use of an interview or the use of a questionnaire together with an interview could possibly contribute to a thorough investigation of students' conceptions in Astrobiology.

Despite the above restrictions, this paper makes a positive contribution to the research on students' conceptions because it studies primary school students' conceptions in Astrobiology, an issue that lacked research data. The results of this paper can contribute to both supporting research activities and designing teaching material for the instruction of issues in Astrobiology. The results of this paper also demonstrate the need to radically change science teaching models. The traditional teaching approach (where knowledge is transferred from teacher to students) standing powerless to affect and change students' conceptions.

Recent views on science learning rooted in constructivist views on learning argue that the student does not passively receive knowledge but actively builds knowledge through cognitive, social and cultural processes [31]. The intellectual and practical work associated with the processing and reviewing of students' conceptions is based on the involvement of students in science practices [32]. The term science practices refers to the main practices that scientists apply while studying and constructing models and theories about the world [32]. In order for students to be educated in science, the following eight science practices have been suggested [31-32]: (a) asking questions, (b) developing and using models, (c) planning and carrying out investigations, (d) analyzing and interpreting of data, (e) using mathematics and computational thinking, (f) constructing explanations, (g) engaging in argument from evidence and (h) obtaining, evaluating and communicating information. It is argued that the active involvement of students in science practices can improve learning outcomes. In particular, the involvement of students with science practices can help them understand the process of development of science knowledge, to build basic ideas and concepts of science, peak their curiosity and interest and motivate them to do further research [33].

This work focused exclusively on the study of primary school students' conceptions for issues in Astrobiology. Further research is needed in order to study systematically the evolution of students' conceptions as they move from the ranks of primary school classes to secondary education. Furthermore, the research results of the present work can contribute to the development of instructional material about issues in Astrobiology. In order for this material to assist in changing students' conceptions, it is essential to take into account their initial conceptions as recorded in this study. However, further research is required so that the instructional material that will be accumulated can be implemented for the primary school students and its learning results can be evaluated.

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Evaluating Teachers of International Business Education in NUAA Based on Efficacy Using AHP

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Abstract
Efficacy evaluation has just become famous in the last decade. This paper aims to show one case study, Efficacy Evaluation of International Business Teacher in NUAA, which being evaluated by students. In the step of design criteria for teacher efficacy evaluation in this case, using concept of four factors model by Brouwers and Tomic (2003) and Student Evaluation Teaching (SET) to design criteria, sub-criteria, and indicators. This paper wanted to show teacher efficacy evaluation by evaluating effectiveness of teacher and setting a goal to achieve. All data in this paper are from asking International Business students to fill the survey. After collecting data, it showed that 76 students in International Business major think that their teachers are efficacious enough in the term of teacher's personality and given workload, but other criteria should still have some improvements. Finally, the result from this paper can help improving the performance of International Business teachers in NUAA but it does not mean that the improvement is necessary.

Keyword: efficacy, evaluation, teacher, student, SET, effectiveness, criteria, survey

INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, the term efficacy becomes more well-known in many studies, especially in medical study and educational study. And for educational study, it can be focused in different aspects such as; school efficacy, university efficacy, student efficacy, and teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy is an important concept. Guskey (2000) came up that the evaluation can guide the reformation of school with better information and also professional development efforts. Woolfolk and Spero (2005) said that teacher efficacy is one of the few reasons that related to students' achievement. Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics (NUAA) was established in October 1952. NUAA started accepting international students largely since 2005; College of International Education was established since then. Aeronautical engineering was the first full time major for international undergraduate students. After that, another three majors was started too, including International Business, Mechanical Engineering and Software Engineering. In this article, we focused on International Business major. International Business major was established in 2007. Currently there are over 470 undergraduate international students from around 40 countries over the world.

Efficacy is the ability to produce an expected quantity of the expected quality, or success in achieving a given goal. It deals with achieving goals by using criteria in the action of solving problem. So, teacher efficacy is a self-perception of competence rather than a measure of actual competence. In this case, almost all teachers in International Business class in NUAA are

Chinese who have to teach foreign students from all over the world in English. There are cultural and languages differences to consider.

Brouwers and Tomic (2003) found that a four-factor model for teacher elf-efficacy evaluation is better fit model, compared to other models. The four-factors from Brouwers and Tomic's study are teaching efficacy (overcoming environmental factors), personal efficacy (one's teaching/instruction activities), outcome efficacy (activities to reach educational outcomes) and classroom management efficacy (activities to manage student behavior). In this paper used this four-factor model as a guideline to design criteria for teacher efficacy evaluation and also used Student Evaluation Teaching (SET). To date, there is no particular model to evaluate efficacy of International Business Teacher in NUAA yet. It is hard or impossible to design ideal and fixed criteria for every teacher efficacy evaluation case study, because it should be flexible and depends on many factors and points of view in each case but the criteria can be designed as close as to the perfect one. There are surveys for teacher efficacy before, however it is not specific for International Business teacher in NUAA. So, this article showed the methodology for this specific case.

Particularly, we addressed three aims: First, design suitable criteria for evaluation of efficacy of International Business Teacher in NUAA. Second, calculate result from questionnaire. Third, summarize the teacher achieving goals result and suggest teacher's future performance from the evaluation. All can be found in detail in the following. The structure of this paper is as follows: Section 2 describes the about efficacy and teacher efficacy evaluation model, Section 3 focuses on how to design criteria for evaluating efficacy of International Business teacher in NUAA, Section 4 explains the result of evaluation in this case, and Section 5 shows the conclusion of this paper.

BACKGROUND OF TEACHER EFFICACY EVALUATION

Efficacy

"If Efficiency is doing things right and Effectiveness is doing right things, then Efficacy is about being just right". This is the famous definition to explain Efficacy and differentiate it from Efficiency and Effectiveness. Efficacy is to set a target and accomplish it. You expect to succeed in your aim and at the end you can do it, then you are efficacious. For example, a student is setting a goal to get 90 scores or above in Math in this semester and finally this student gets 95, so this student is efficacious. No matter which way you use to achieve the goal or how much you spend on it, since you achieved the goal you are efficacious. Charles Chow (2014) explained the components of efficacy that efficacy serves an order with the right way (doing things right) in order to result in the right deliverables (doing the right things). So, Efficacy can be doing something effectively with goal.

Teacher efficacy evaluation model

Teacher evaluation can be obtained by seven sources of data according to William (1989); oneself, files, chairman/dean, peers (faculty members), colleagues, administrators, and students. He recommended that using multiple sources of data in teacher evaluation if you want accurate evaluating and improve teaching. This paper will use students as source of data. For student-rating result, it helps improving performance of teacher, but it does not mean that the improvement from student-rating result is needed. The evaluating by students may enhance the way of teaching and make students learn more effectively and efficiently [13]. Brouwers and Tomic's study tested two factors model study by Gibson and Dembo (1984) which are personal efficacy and teaching efficacy, three factors model study by Emmer and Hickman (1991) which included classroom management efficacy, and four factors model study

by Soodak and Pedell (1996) that included outcome efficacy. They said this four factors model fitted better than other models, even though it does not perfectly fit for all. So, the four factors are teaching efficacy (overcoming environmental factors), personal efficacy (one's teaching/instruction activities), outcome efficacy (activities to reach educational outcomes) and classroom management efficacy (activities to manage student behavior).

Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET) is usually used as the basis for evaluation of teacher effectiveness. SET is the most important, and sometimes the only, measure of teaching effectiveness (d'Apollonia & Abrami, 1997). Flinders University mentioned some aspects in teacher evaluation included
1. Quality, amount, and level of classroom instruction
2. Development of curricula, new courses, and classroom materials
3. Supervision and mentoring of graduate students, including chairing of dissertations
4. One-on-one consultation with students, including supervision of independent study and reading courses
5. Supervision of teaching assistants in undergraduate courses
6. Conduct and supervision of laboratory instruction
7. Advising students in the major
8. Supervision of field work
9. Supervision of clinical and practicum experiences.
10. Teaching competence and skills
11. Stimulation and enthusiasm
12. Rapport and fairness with students
13. Organization and preparation
14. Appropriate workload
15. Assessment.

Some idea of four factors model and Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET) will be used together in designing criteria for case study. It can be found in section 3.

Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)
Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) is a famous method in multi-criteria decision making (MCDM). The special characteristic of AHP is to convert evaluation (quality) into numerical value (quantity) and calculate its weight, so it can be used in comparison. AHP has three main level in hierarchy tree; goal, criteria, and alternatives. In some case, it may have four levels by adding sub-criteria to before alternatives level. After defining goal, criteria and alternatives, and establishing hierarchy tree, the decision makers have to evaluate each criterion and alternative by comparing two elements a time as ratio. After that, input ratio into pairwise matrices and follow by other processes.

The procedure of AHP has four steps as;
1. Generate pairwise matrices
2. Generate the weights of the measures
3. Normalize weights to get the consistency among measures
4. Calculate the overall ratings

These steps can be calculated by using YaAHP software. Here is the figure of hierarchy tree created in YaAHP software.
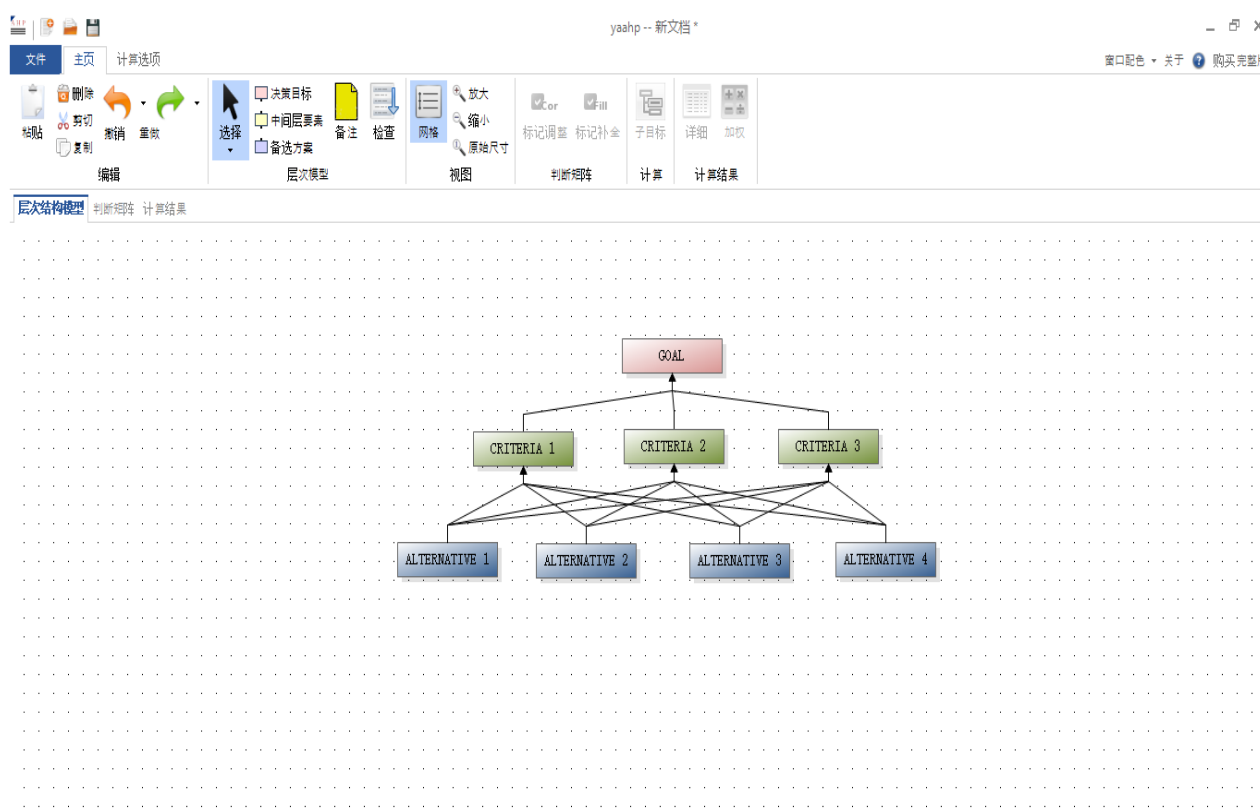
Fig. 1 Analytic Hierarchy tree

Efficacy Evaluation of International Business Teacher in NUAA

There are many studies about evaluation of teachers, but most of them focused on efficiency or effectiveness or even self-efficacy [1], [5- 9]. Current research focused on efficacy evaluation of International Business teacher in NUAA. The evaluation of teacher efficacy in this paper stipulated as the capability of teachers to achieve some goals being evaluated from students' point of view. Since the terms Effectiveness and Efficacy are somehow related, so achieving effective goals can explain the term efficacy in this case.

There is still no specific theoretical model for efficacy evaluation of International Business teacher in NUAA being evaluated by students yet. This section will show how authors design criteria and attributes for the specific case. To know how effective teachers and teaching are. They should be indicated by teachers and students, since no one else is there with them in classroom. The evaluation by other people in college will not be exactly direct point. William E. Cashin (1989) suggested some points that how do others know that those teachers are effective teachers? Do they depend on the complaints of students, gossip, or the overheard comments from somewhere? That is the reason of authors to choose International Business students as the evaluators. Teacher self-efficacy evaluation can be future work and other evaluators also.

As in Section 2.2, based on the four factors model and Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET) aspects can be modified to suit this case. Since SET is teaching evaluation and teaching is one factor from four factors model. And also, other aspects from SET match in four factors model. That idea leads authors to table 1 below.

Table 1. Design criteria for Efficacy evaluation of International Business teachers in NUAA

Teacher Efficacy evaluation's criteria					
Teacher's Language	Teachers' skill	Teacher's personality	Rapport and Fairness with students	Teaching organization and preparation	Workload
Fluency	Basic knowledge	Appearance	Harmony	Lesson plan	Workload quality
Pronunciation	Professional Qualification	Clarity	Concern	Time	Workload quantity
Communication	General knowledge	Maintaining	Understanding	Teaching method	Workload difficulty
	Empathy		Support	Materials selection	
	Effective knowledge		Interaction	Techniques	
			Contact	Materials use	
			Cooperation	Materials quality	
				Classroom management	
				Class effectiveness	

The table above can simply be criteria for effectiveness evaluation also but as mentioned before it has to set goal to be efficacy evaluation. In this case, we set all indicators to achieve more than or equal to 50% plus their weights as in table 2 and the weight will be calculate in section 4. Since, the weight tells that how important the criterion is according to student's opinion, it also means that students expect high score of performance from high weight of criterion. So, the authors designed goal to be 50% as standard plus weight of each criterion.

Table 2. Framework of Efficacy evaluation of International Business teachers in NUAA

Criteria	Indicators	Goal to achieve	Achieved score
Teacher's Language			
Fluency	Teachers are fluent in English	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Pronunciation	Teachers have adequate pronunciation.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Communication	Students have no difficulty in communicating with Teachers, it can be in English or Chinese.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Teachers' skill			
Basic knowledge	Teachers have basic knowledge in the field of "International Business" education.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Professional Qualification	Teachers are professional / knowledgeable in their own subjects.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
General knowledge	Teachers understand economic situation between students' countries and China.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Empathy	Teachers give adequate feedback to students in their progress.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Effective knowledge	Students have clear knowledge in the field of International Business major after classes.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Teacher's personality			
Appearance	Teachers' appearances or presence styles are appropriate.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Clarity	Teachers can project well or teach with loud and clear voice.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Maintaining	Teachers can maintain attentions of students	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Rapport and Fairness with students			
Harmony	Teachers can establish good rapport with students.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Concern	Teachers show concern and interest to students.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Understanding	Teachers listen and understand students' concerns.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Support	Teachers support students who have learning difficulties and challenges.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Interaction	Teacher-student interaction is effective.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Contact	It is easy to meet teachers outside of classroom.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Cooperation	Students are well involved and encouraged.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Teaching organization and preparation			
Lesson plan	Teachers prepare proper lesson plan.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Time	Teachers can teach all required lesson on time.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Teaching method	Teachers use suitable methods for foreign students in International Business class.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Materials selection	Teachers select appropriate materials for International Business class such as; reference, ppt, and books.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Techniques	Students satisfy with teachers' techniques of class management.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Materials use	Teachers use materials and board effectively.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Materials quality	Materials are effective.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Classroom management	Classes are smoothly organized and time is used well.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Class effectiveness	Organization and management of the whole class are effective.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Workload			
Workload quality	Homework, presentation and paper work that teachers assigned are useful for students.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Workload quantity	The amount of work is appropriate for the class.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey
Workload difficulty	The level of work difficulty is appropriate for International Business students.	≥50% + weight	Calculate from survey

William (1990) said in his recommendation 4 that to have reliable students rating data, at least collecting data from ten students, if possible.. The authors managed to collect data from 76 students for this case.

RESULT ANALYSIS

After collecting 76 survey results, input the results in Microsoft Excel and sum all scores of each question after that calculate the percentage of achieved scores. Since the maximum score of each question is 5 (strongly agree) and total 76 students filled the questionnaires, so the maximum total score is 5*76 = 380. Another part of questionnaire asking about comparison of criteria by considering between Teacher's language and other criteria. Here is the result using

SPSS software for counting the numbers of students who choose each criterion, also can use Microsoft Excel. (Table 3)

Table 3. Summary of criteria comparison

	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
Teacher's language	31	40.8	Teacher's language	28	36.8
Teacher's skill	45	59.2	Teaching organization and preparation	48	63.2
	Frequency	**Percent**		**Frequency**	**Percent**
Teacher's language	47	61.8	Teacher's language	45	59.2
Teacher's personality	29	38.2	workload	31	40.8
	Frequency	**Percent**			
Teacher's language	22	28.9			
Rapport and fairness with students	54	71.1			

Then, use ratios of five pairs of criteria from Table 3 in YaAHP software (Foreology software, 2013) to calculate pairwise matrix and get the weight of each criterion. (Fig. 2)

Fig. 2 Weights of criteria
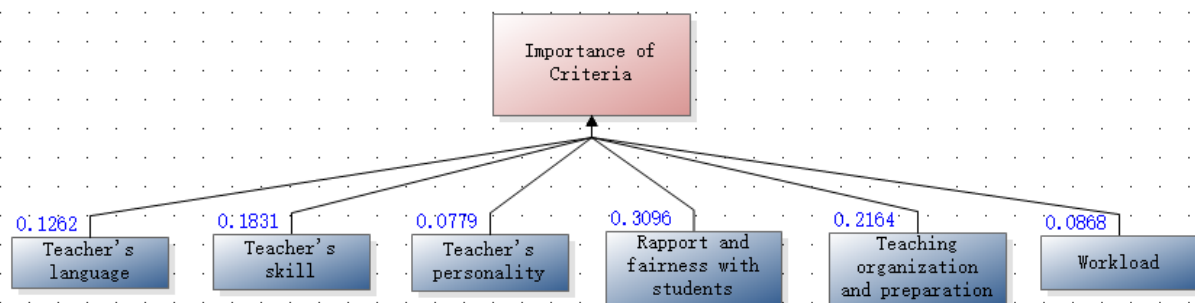
The weights of criteria from YaAHP software surprisingly showed that in students' opinion "rapport and fairness with students" is the one that they consider the most or the most important criterion among other criteria with the highest weight 0.3096 and the lowest is teacher's personality, 0.0779.

As mentioned in Table 2, goal to achieve is more than or equal to 50% plus its weight and now we have weight of each criterion from YaAHP (Fig. 2), so it can be concluded as
1. Teacher's language   = 50% + 12.62% = 62.62%
2. Teacher's skill   = 50% + 18.31% = 68.31%
3. Teacher's personality   = 50% + 7.79% = 57.79%
4. Rapport and fairness with students   = 50% + 30.96% = 80.96%
5. Teaching organization and preparation   = 50% + 21.64% = 71.64%
6. Workload   = 50% + 8.68% = 58.68%

The result below in Table 4 showed the total scores and percentages of every indicator with its goal.

Table 4. Result of efficacy evaluation

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8
Total	203	215	234	294	307	233	246	247
Max. score	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380
Percent of achieved score (%)	53.42	56.58	61.58	**77.37**	**80.79**	61.32	64.74	65.00
Goal (%)	62.62			68.31				

	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18
Total	292	247	235	260	263	252	248	247	236	239
Max. score	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380
Percent of achieved score (%)	**76.84**	**65.00**	**61.84**	68.42	69.21	66.32	65.26	65.00	62.11	62.89
Goal (%)	57.79			80.96						

	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23	Q24	Q25	Q26	Q27	Q28	Q29	Q30
Total	292	289	249	283	244	264	267	261	260	278	258	253
Max. score	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380	380
Percent of achieved score (%)	**76.84**	**76.05**	65.53	**74.47**	64.21	69.47	70.26	68.68	68.42	**73.16**	**67.89**	**66.58**
Goal (%)	71.64							58.68				

The result of teacher efficacy evaluation by students in Table 4. showed that teacher's language and rapport and fairness with students criteria are not achieved their goals when teacher's personality and workload fulfilled the goals. For teacher's skill and teaching organization and preparation, some indicators achieved the goals but most of them did not, so the overall of these two criteria are not succeeded.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This paper explained the concept of teacher efficacy evaluation and its model. There are a lot of aspects to consider in teacher evaluation. The combination of concepts of four factors model by Brouwers and Tomics, and Student Evaluation Teaching (SET) is the selection of important aspects in teacher efficacy evaluation. From the result showed that teacher's personality and workload for students criteria are fine, but the others should have some improvements according to student's opinion. Students may think that if they have more time with teachers, according to the highest weight of "Rapport and fairness with students" criteria, it may improve their study. The next study can try different sources of data or self-evaluation. In the future, we can consider efficiency and effectiveness evaluation together with efficacy as 3-EF approach. And also, evaluate the overall International Business major, not only teacher evaluation.

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School-Community Partnership Mitigates Student Truancy: The Case of a Seaman's Son in Ghana

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Abstract

The author revisited the school site where a case study on parental involvement on their children's education was held five years ago. This move was in response to a participant's request during the research interview five years ago. The participant requested that the research findings of the study should not be left on the shelf to collect dust. The author therefore made a follow-up study to find out the impact of the previous study, including recommendations of the study on the students, institution and community. Participants' contributions in the previous study were reviewed by the author. These include perceptions of parents of children in the school where the study took place, perceptions of community leaders, perceptions of teachers and the perceptions of school administrators on education. The follow-up study discussed a success story centered round a student, who played truancy and later became a hero. The outcome of the study confirmed the benefits derived from teamwork by parents, teachers, school administrators, community members as well as community leaders in educating a child. In addition, it laid bare the defects on children whose parents were not involved in their education. This study will be of great importance to teachers, parents, educational leaders, community leaders and community members in children's education.

Keywords: Parents, teachers, school administrators, community members, community leaders.

INTRODUCTION

A school system draws its major strengths and weaknesses from the attitudes of the community it serves. The quality of a school program may depend largely on public understanding of the school's mission. Cooperation is fundamental to living in a social system. The responsibility for learning is a shared responsibility requiring commitment from the student, the teacher, the family, and the community (Arlington heights school district 25, 1999). In addition, community participation in the affairs of the school is essential if the school system and the community are to maintain mutual confidence and respect, and work together to improve the quality of education for students. The public has many resources and experiences which may be useful to the school. It is obvious that both school and community need each other's service to thrive in this contemporary era, since they play a complimentary role in the lives of people.

On the other hand, (Swap, 1993; Epstein, 1995, as cited in Lazar & Slostad, 1999) assert that "Teachers, parents, and administrators have generally received limited information about how to work together effectively…most educators enter schools without an understanding of family background, concepts of caring, or the frame work of partnership…most teachers and administrators are not prepared to understand, design, implement, and evaluate practices of partnerships with the families of their student" (21 & 26).

According to Charlton (1983), Administrators who have a community-oriented philosophy are more likely to have positive school-community relations. He reiterated that every school should have three types of information about the community it serves. Information about the composition of the community, such as the income, educational level and occupations of the majority of the residents would be useful in formulating new programs or adapting existing ones to meet students' needs. In addition, knowledge about the community's opinion about broad educational issues and the day to day operation of the school is also important. Moreover, a school's familiarity with the educational resources available in the community that can be utilized to enrich and enhance the school program is very imperative. Partnerships between schools and other community organizations form a strong base for experiential learning and offer students opportunities to make connections that will be relevant to their future careers. Partnerships also allow staff members and students to work with professionals from a variety of fields (Tunseth and Nowicki, 2003). Furthermore, when students work with the community, local organizations and individuals gain a greater understanding of the school and its needs and strengths. People outside the school gain positive impressions of students and their capabilities, which strengthen the community as a whole.

Dei (2004) advocates that schools must bring adults into the school to actively collaborate as partners interested in the development of educational programs. He states that seeing parents as teachers and guides also breaks down the walls separating schools from their local communities. He claimed that community participation is essential for ensuring that local cultures are reclaimed and used as knowledge resources in the process of education. Within a locality, schools need to be linked to social and cultural life of the communities. A strong partnership between schools and the local community can be forged by reporting on the progress of programs to locally elected bodies, advisory working groups and through workshops and symposiums Strategies for greater participation in the school activities and programs would be developed under the direction of school administrators and educators but in close consultation with an advisory or elected community body (Dei, 2004).

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is obvious that when drop-out rates and repetition rates are high, educators look to the schools to investigate the causes within the school system for those failures and in doing so they largely ignore the home environment, including most importantly the parents. However, the environment has by far the greatest influence on a child's ability and desire to attend school, to progress at the appropriate rate and to use the knowledge acquired in the classroom to best advantage (Booth, 1997). When creating the highest-quality instructional environment is a shared goal, parents transform from passive supporters to active members of the educational community. When children see the support, excitement about learning, and teamwork between home and school, they too become excited. They sense the value in learning, and their intrinsic motivation for learning grows (McLoughlin et al., 2003).

Research shows positive results in student achievement, attendance, health, and discipline when parents are partners in their children's education; and to build this partnership requires the three-pronged approach: families connecting to schools; schools connecting to families; and communities connecting to both schools and families (Boal, 2004). Inviting parents, members of the business community, and service organizations to identify academic goals and standards and quantify measures of progress "sends the message that what students learn and how well they learn it isn't an issue just for teachers and administrators but is a real priority for the community as well" (Wright and Saks, 2000, as cited in Cunningham, 2004). Trotman

(2001) states that whether it is a routine task or a task that seems to be insurmountable, collaboration among parents, teachers, and other school personnel promises positive outcomes. Where there is empowerment, there is positive student and parent response as well as improvement in motivation and self-confidence. She asserts that teachers' attitudes as well as a hostile insensitive school environment also contribute to the amount of parent involvement that takes place within the classroom and school building. Teachers who hold expectations or believe that parents do not care about their children and do not want to be involved in their education may lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy and directly contribute to the lack of parental involvement and to student failure. Interacting with parents extends the school's capacity to understand and appreciate the values and culture of the families and to meet the educational needs of the children they serve more effectively (Winters, 1993, as cited in Trotman, 2001).

According to (Epstein and Salinas, 2004), a school learning community includes educators, students, parents, and community partners who work together to improve the school and enhance students' learning opportunities. The home, school, and community connections make school subjects more meaningful for students. In addition, to learn at high levels, all students need the guidance and support of their teachers, families, and others in the community.

For students to perform to the best of their ability both academically and behaviorally, they must be in school on a consistent basis and receive support from their parents and guardians. Consistent parental involvement is a key to achieving this goal (Trotman, 2001). The role of guide is, in many ways, tied to parents' ability to understand the value of education, to understand how the system works, what is expected of them in terms of helping with homework, paying fees for extra tutoring, purchasing textbooks and how to effectively advocate on behalf of their children. Being an educator enables one monitor, guide and teach one's children (Dei, 2004). In parents' role as guides, parents often navigate between their children's desires, interests and choices and what they as parents perceive to be in their children's best interest. Astone & McLanahan (1991), assert that ineffective or inadequate parental assistance may lead a child to feel overwhelmed and consequently to withdraw from school. They claim that helpful participation in a child's school career requires not only that parents hold high aspirations, but that they transmit their aspirations to their children. If children do not feel close to their parents, or if parents are not available to supervise their children, parental influence may be seriously undermined.

Recently, ethnographers have been concerned with children who, against the odds, manage to break the intergenerational cycle of poverty. Their evidence indicates that success in school among poor children of all family types is related to deliberate efforts on the part of parents to inculcate discipline and good study habits in their children (Clarke, 1983, as cited in Astone & McLanahan, 1991). It is established that parental practices are related to all of the school achievement indicators, including grades, attendance, attitudes, expectations, school retention, and degree completion. Research has found that changes in family structure are associated with declines in the quality of parental involvement. The notion of a community (DuFour & Eaker, 1998), as it relates to alignment of common purposes among the school, teachers, parents and children implies shared   perceptions of the value of education as the basis of the partnership. In addition, Covey's (1989) rule of communication: "Seek first to understand, then to be understood" (p. 237) suggests the need to understand the dynamics of shared values and perceptions of education to more effectively encourage the development of partnerships with parents and sustain them over time. Fullan (1997) recognizes the value of these efforts and notes that "The research is abundantly clear: nothing motivates a child more than when

learning is valued by schools and families/community working together in partnership…These forms of (parent) involvement do not happen by accident or even by invitation. They happen by explicit strategic intervention" (pp.42-43, as cited in DuFour & Eaker, 1998, p. 235). Dolan, (1994), also stated that "To educate children without a deep partnership of teacher and parent is hopeless" (as cited in DuFour&Eaker, 1998, p.235). The United States Department of Education (1995a, as cited in DuFour&Eaker, 1998, p.235) concludes, "Thirty years of research make it clear: parents and families are pivotal to children's learning" (p.19).

In effective partnerships, each party is expected to bring specific skills and expertise to the enterprise, to offer a different perspective on issues, to provide support in difficult times, and to contribute toward the achievement of mutual goals. Effective parent-school partnerships are based on similar expectations. When parents view the school in a positive way, they are more likely to provide the necessary financial support for quality education. Dei (2004), asserts that parents who sacrifice a great deal of financial investment have certain expectations. While there may be differences of opinion from time to time, parents and educators share the same goal, the eventual success of the child (DuFour&Eaker, 1998, pp. xix & 238).

Hessel and Holloway (2002), posit that today's educational leader promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responds to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizes community resources to achieve those goals. The significance of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standard Four developed is the importance of administrators making informed decisions regarding collaboration with staff members and other stakeholders such as students, parents, and community leaders. Launching and sustaining collaborative relationships is underscored in the four indicators that define ISLLC Standard Four. This standard intends to dwell on relationships with the broader community to foster learning. The indicators include: (a) understanding community needs; (b) involving members of the community; (c) providing opportunities for the community and school to serve each other and; (d) understanding and valuing diversity (ISLLC, 1996). This standard and indicators affirm the importance of engaging parents and community citizens in educational processes. According to Trotman (2001), many parents are aware of the disparity between themselves and school staff and choose to stay away. The faculty and staff may also fail to involve parents with their perceived inadequate level of expertise coupled with the parents' own past negative educational experiences may further intimidate parents. Consequently, it becomes difficult to build an educational partnership. Accordingly, educators must reach out to these parents and demonstrate a visible concern for their children.

Tierney & Auerbach (2002, as cited in Pern & Titus, 2005) have argued, "family" involvement is likely a more appropriate focus than "parental" involvement, given changes over time in the definition of "family." Older siblings and members of the extended family may be a particularly important source of encouragement for minority students. Dei (2004), states that sometimes it helps when children have some useful examples to emulate. Older siblings who find their way through the school system also play a significant role within the family unit, as many aunts, uncles, neighbors and friends who have educational experience.

According to a study by Wilson, Cordry, Notar, and Friery, (2004) teachers concur that they cannot do it alone. For effective educational processes to occur in classrooms, parental help in partnership with educators is needed.

The relationship between parents' involvement and children's academic learning and achievement is seen by some researchers as indirect, rather than direct (Anderson & Keith, 1997; Reynolds & Walberg, 1992; Shumow, Vandell, & Kang, 1996, as cited in Gonzalez-Pienda et al., 2002). This relationship however does not diminish its positive effect on student learning.

There are many factors that constrain parental participation in schools: narrow vision of parental involvement, school personnel's negative proclivity, lack of teacher training, pressing employment issues, and cultural differences (Ramirez, 1999; Yap & Enoki, 1995, as cited in DeCastro-Ambrosetti & Cho, 2005). For example, in her "Western schooling and traditional society in Swaziland" Booth (1997) revealed the concern expressed by modern-day parents over their inability to instruct their children in important social behavior. They commented that when they had been young, they had spent more time at home. Furthermore, in the past, when there had been more adults living in the homestead, there had been more time for the adult leadership to instruct children in good conduct. Today, with the vast majority of young people in school...parents believed that it was part of the school's responsibility to teach respect and obedience to their children. A mother asserted, that 'If the schools are going to remove our children from us for most of the day and we will then have less time to spend with them, then they must cover this moral or social material.' Almost all parents believed that now the schools had 'taken' their children from them during the day, it was their institutional responsibility to socialize them according to Swazi tradition. The Bergers (1983, as cited in Wyness, 1995) underscored the fact that the family has now lost its primary moral functions to the education system.

Booth (1997) noticed that parents' responses revealed feelings of strong alienation from the school as an institution. She therefore, stated that if Swazi children are to succeed in school and if the national educational system as a whole is to succeed in developing an educated citizenry for all of its labor needs, a stronger bond must be fashioned between the home and school.

It is evident that, the academic success of individual students is influenced by their personal characteristics and dispositions. Equally true, however, is that as members of schools, families, and communities, students may have access to various forms of social support that can facilitate their success in school. In addition, Steinberg (1996) reports that parental involvement in the form of school visits has positive effects on student academic performance. These findings support Coleman's (1990) social theory that posits that strong relationships between schools and parents can have positive effects because they constitute a form of social capital that is of value to children's academic success (Goddard, 2003).

Common sense and the large amount of available data indicate that the family is one of the most important contexts in which a child forges his or her self, developing a system of attitudes toward various environments to relate to school and learning, enhancing motivation, interest (or lack thereof) in learning, among other things. Without family support for their children's learning, it is hard for teachers to devise academic experiences to help students learn meaningful content. Research has shown that an increase in parent involvement correlates with an increase in student achievement (Ballen & Moles, 1994; Benjet, 1995; Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning, 1995a; Epstein, 1991). Trotman (2001), asserts that not only do children perform better academically and behaviorally when parents are involved, teachers' behaviors have been affected as well. Bever (1994, as cited in Trotman, 2001) found that when parents become involved, teachers normally exhibited positive attitude changes as well as improved their personal work habits. The most accurate

predictor of a student's achievement in school is the extent to which that student's family is able to: (1) create a home environment that encourages learning; (2) communicate high, yet reasonable, expectations for their children's achievement and future careers; and (3) become involved in their children's education (DuFour&Eaker, 1998, p. 237).

METHODOLOGY

The methods used in data collection, document review, data source and data analyses in the previous study are stated below:

DATA COLLECTION

Qualitative researchers are guided by circumstances in their decision for data collection. The purpose of the study; days in the field is normally a determined factor. In addition, the availability of participants and the availability of resources may also be considered (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). In the study, the researcher gained   access to the premises by obtaining permission from the school administrator (Principal). The researcher had discussions with the Administrator over the telephone about the purpose of the study; the type and number of participants required, and the time frame for the study.

The data collection process began with the initial and separate visits with school administrator, as well as meetings with Teachers, Staff and the Parent-Teacher-Association (P.T.A) Chairperson. A participant's information was created to keep contact information for individuals participating in the study. This helped the researcher to schedule and confirm appointments as well as follow up sessions and facilitate maintaining a file for each study participant. Participant information forms included names, dates and locations of interview as well as demographic information, informal information conversation notes, interview notes, and interview transcripts. In addition, the researcher created a study log of all contacts, interviews, and all observations made during the course of the study (Seidman, 1998).

Participant interviews served as one of the primary data sources for the study. The researcher used two types of interviews that Creswell (2003) views as acceptable in conducting qualitative research studies. They include (a) Individual or one-on-one interviews, and (b) Focus group interviews. The researcher audio taped focus group and individual interviews as well as made handwritten and notes interview and data gathering processes to ensure that a complete record of data are maintained. Interviews were transcribed as soon as practicable after the interview session and placed in study files. The researcher estimated that each interview lasted for approximately one hour (1 hr.).

DOCUMENT REVIEW

It is common in case study research to use multiple methods and multiple sources of information including individual and focus group interviews, analysis of documents and on-site observations. Using a multi-method, multi-source data collection strategy assisted the researcher in understanding the phenomena under investigation as well as corroboratethrough triangulation the accuracy and thus the reliability and validity of data collected (Glesne, 1999; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995). The researcher reviewed school documents including: Parent contributions (financial and personal time) to support their child's education, participation in P.T.A meetings. Providing materials and supplies needed by students. The data indicated the level of parental involvement in their children's education. It also provided some insight into parent value of education.

DATA SOURCES

The three main sources of data for the research study were observation, interview and document analysis. These sources provided large quantities of narrative data. The researcher selected a representative sample of about thirty (30) parents who served as key informants. They formed three (3) focus groups of ten (10) members each. There was one focus group composed of all the eleven (11) teachers. In addition, a focus group composed of three (3) staff was also convened. The first parent focus group interviewed took place at the beginning of the research study to provide direction and refinement of interview questions. Subsequent focus group interview were conducted throughout the study period (2007-2008). Individual interviews with community leaders provided a different perspective on parental value toward education. Analysis of pertinent documents proceeded concurrently with focus group and individual interviews and facilitated triangulation of data and added to confidence in its accuracy. Approximately 50 participants took part in focus group and individual interviews.

DATA ANALYSIS

Methods used to generate case study data employ a wide array of interview and documentation analysis techniques that help provide insight into factors associated with parental values and involvement in the education of their children in the Weija Community of Accra, Ghana. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to interact with participants and collect pertinent data. Individual and focus group interviews complimented the information gathered through analysis of school documents. These data was cross-referenced with interview data facilitating the triangulation process and developing a more complete understanding of the phenomena from the perspective of those experiencing events. In this manner, data was confirmed or disconfirmed. A descriptive narrative was prepared that accurately reflected the circumstances, and interpretations of events were made with confidence.

RESPONSES FROM PARTICIPANTS – 8 YEARS AGO

Perspective of Community Elders on Education

The community elders interviewed in this study represented various groups in the community, including men and women, educated and illiterate individuals, members from various tribes, Christians and Moslems, and political leaders of the community.

During the interview sessions, the community elders expressed their different views about the value of education in the community, as well as impediments faced by residents that made attaining an education difficult. All elders interviewed concurred that education is important, especially in contemporary society and for the world economy. Their views are based on personal experiences and observations in the community and beyond. They held the view that in the past they did not value education, but these days the benefits of education are crystal clear to everyone.

Other community elders emphasized the fact that education was not valued in the past. One of these elders is Rukaya of the Zongo community in Weija, where a majority of the inhabitants are illiterate. She stated that "In the past, we did not have enough knowledge about education, but now we know the essence of education. So if your child is now in school, you need to help the child. The usual practice of buying ornaments and other things at the expense of our children's education should be discontinued so that the children will become prominent figures in the future. If we don't prioritize our choices in support of our children's education, our children may turn out to be like us mothers, who are now suffering for lack of education" (Personal Communication, May, 2008).

Perspectives of Parents on Education

Parents' views on their family values emerged from discussions about what is most important for their children. All of the parents interviewed mentioned that education was very important with only a few mentioning moral values (training). Many of the parents claimed that they wanted to educate their children so that they could receive assistance from them during their old age. Others, however, said that they could not continue their own education because fee payments would place financial burden on their families. Consequently, they believed that it was important for them to support their children to attain higher levels of education so that they could enjoy future benefits. For example, Mr. Jajano said, "I couldn't attain a higher level of education, but I have resolved to send my children to school so that they could assist me in my old age. In my youthful age, I wish to work very hard to support my children's education for a better future" (Personal Communication, May, 2008). Some parents concurred with Mr. Jajano's notion that education is a great investment. They maintained that education is like a savings account that could yield dividends if it is well managed.

Parents held many different views with regard to the academic performance of their children. For the most part, they acknowledged their children were doing well at school and said that they were pleased with their children's performances. Parents of students who were not doing well in school identified the probable causes of their poor performance. In most instances, parents admitted that the lack of proper supervision of homework was the primary reason why their children were not doing well academically. For example, Mr. Mensah said, "I realized that normally my children perform poorly if I am not able to provide all of their school requirements, like books. Also, if supervision at home is lacking, the children take it for granted and they give much attention to the watching of the television, but once I provide them with the needed school materials and step up with supervision at home, they pick up in their performance" (Personal Communication, May, 2008).

Most parents agreed that proper home supervision of their children helped to improve their academic performance. Some parents however admitted that the falling standard of their children's academic performance may be attributed to their own absence from home. They said that they spent long hours on their jobs and spent only a few hours with their children at home. Many said that they often returned home late at night and acknowledged that this may have impeded the academic progress of their children. Some of the parents have also observed that their children performed badly in school when they fail to provide their children with the required school materials like textbooks, exercise books, and other required materials. Ms. Ode said, "Sometimes my child does well, and at certain times he falls short a lot, and when I asked him about that, he told me that it is because I did not provide all the books needed for his class work. After I fixed that problem, he picked up again" (Personal Communication, May, 2008). Some parents claimed that their frequent visits to the school helped their children to perform better in their academic work. Others also claimed that when they made sure that their children took their homework seriously, they saw improvement in their children's academic work.

However, some of the parents attributed their children's poor academic work to the poor conditions at home. They claimed that they did not have adequate space in their homes that would enable them provide a conducive learning environment for their children. They claimed that such situations impeded the progress of their children's academic performance. Some of the parents said that they did not have light in their homes and children in such homes find it difficult to do their homework. Some parents also said that being a single parent affected the

academic performance of their children. Mr. Edem said, "I am now a single parent and what is affecting the performance of my children could be attributed to the lack of a mother at home. I believe that mothers do have a great influence on their children's education. The mother's presence provides them with some sort of peace to study, and because there is no mother, they are lacking in some aspect. So that is affecting their studies. I am praying to secure a lady who could help the children at home" (Personal Communication, May, 2008).

Perspectives of Teachers on Education

Teachers' interaction with parents helped to understand the level of their support for their children's education. Teachers indicated that they played a dual role in their jobs, which involved educating both parents and their children. They said that they worked to educate parents both through interactions at school and at home regarding the importance of education in the future lives of their children. Many also said that they frequently go to the community to talk with parents about many school-related issues, including the need for their children to do their homework, to buy books, pay school fees, etc. These teachers however affirmed that the PTA meetings have brought about some improvement in the relationship between teachers and parents as they have served as a forum in which parents and teachers may openly exchange ideas about the well-being of students, as well as on other matters that impact the school and the community as a whole.

Teachers' specific experiences with parents were related to truancy, refusal to do homework, parents' failure to provide school materials, and different views held by parents and teachers regarding punishment meted out to students by teachers. By and large, teachers believed that getting parents involved in their children's education helped to clarify parental responsibilities, contributed toward improving children's academic performance and improved their behavior in class. In addition, they noted that they saw positive changes in the behavior of parents as well.

Perspectives of School Administrators

School administrators recognized that they played multiple roles in their job. For example, they were responsible for educating teachers, students, parents, and the community as a whole. Some of the things they did to accomplish this include writing letters to parents, inviting them to the school for conferences about their children, and sometimes going to their homes to talk with them about their children's educational progress or problems. The administrators observed that by the very nature of their work each morning when children arrive, or in the afternoon when they leave, they talk to many parents about their children. At the PTA meetings, they discussed issues affecting the children and the school with parents in a group, as well as individually. Anytime they identify problems, they followed up with visits to their homes to discuss them with the parents. They observed that some of the problems that children faced in school have roots in their homes.

THE BATTLE OF TRUANCY

Truancy is a common phenomenon in every educational institution. The causes of truancy are varied. Some may be as a result of bullies scaring children from attending school. Others may be the influence of peer pressure. Whatever may be the cause of a particular situation, truancy does not provide positive results in a child's academic achievement. In the institution under review a young boy called Tachie, lived with a mother that was alleged to be taking excessive alcohol frequently. The father, who is a Seaman by profession was also said to be at sea most of the time. Due to the condition of the family, the boy was easily influenced by his peers, who were not in school frequently or were not in school at all. The mother was not a responsible

person as a result of being under the influence of alcohol in most cases. The father could be absent from home for a period of about three (3) months. Tachie's future looked bleak because of the irresponsible parental care. However, by the intervention of school administrators, teachers, some parents of the school he attended, community members and community leaders the boy was saved from becoming a bastard and a liability to the community or state. School administrators, teachers, parents, community members or community leaders demonstrated team work to rescue this boy in the study.

Tachie was admitted into the Hope International School in the year 2009 in the lower primary five (5). He hardly attended classes for three (3) continuous days in one week. Some fish and vegetable retailers or sellers in the community who roamed the community with their merchandize everyday while school was in session reported to his teachers and school administrators of seeing one of their students loitering around in the community. Tachie, was always exposed by the prescribed school uniform he wore. The teachers of the school and school administrators tried to help this boy out from this situation by employing cohesive methods in the form of corporal punishment but all was to no avail. His parents were not helpful as a result of the influence of excessive alcohol intake by the mother and long absence of the father from home. The school administrators tried to handle Tachie as one of their own biological children. That stabilized the boy's presence in the school for a while until he recoiled back to his old shell. Tachie, proceeded on with this awful behavior up to his final year of Junior High School. He found himself in a class which was made up of about 70% females and 30% males. The class had two girls who were so influential that they were able to influence their colleagues to act against the rules and regulations or policies of the school. The entire class became full of stubborn students. They failed to obey instructions issued by school administrators and teachers. The regular class teachers, as well as part-time teachers could not handle these students. They refused to listen to advice or take instructions from both teachers and school administrators. Already, Tachie was infested with the spirit of truancy and finding himself in a group of final year students who were stubborn rendered him as a dangerous human species to the school, the community and state as well.

On one occasion, the school administrators and teachers decided to convene a meeting with the teachers, school administrators and parents of the students in the final year and some community leaders. This meeting was outside the usual Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. It was only a meeting with parents of the final year students. The discussion of the meeting was held behind closed doors. A decision was taken that a cross-section of the parents of the children should address the students in turns in the classroom of the final year students. There was no formal agenda, yet the outcome of the meeting was very successful. Five (5) of the parents and two (2) community leaders addressed the students in their classroom, with the support of the other parents, teachers and the school administrators. It was in the form of advice to the students to take their studies seriously and also give respect to their school authority. At the end of deliberations a challenge was thrown to the students to promise that they will take things seriously. Surprisingly, Tachie was the only student who owned up that he will do what the parents have said. He said, "I promise to take you seriously, God bless you and thank you" (Personal Communication, June 12, 2013).To the amazement of everybody Tackie, got serious with his studies, he was punctual to school and very cooperative with his teachers and school administrators. Many thought that it was a nine day wonder and also too late for him to catch up with the rest of the class since he was already in his final year and had only five (5) months to leave the school for another chapter to be opened in his life. However, Tachie proved his skeptics wrong. He was the first candidate to have received the examination results

of the Junior High School as well as the admission letter to pursue further studies in the Senior High School. With his interest in technical education he succeeded in gaining admission into one of the renowned schools in the country that is Takoradi Secondary/Technical High School situated in the second largest sea ports in Ghana.

Tachie, is now a happy student pursuing High School education. All the credit goes to the team work of school administrators, teachers, parents, community members and community leaders. Though Tachie did not have responsible parents, the teamwork by other parents of his school, teachers, school administrators, community leaders and community members saved his education.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study confirmed teachers' view that they cannot do it alone, as far as the education of children is concern (Wilson et al. 2004). Therefore, educating children and for that matter the success of schools remain a collective responsibility of parents, teachers, school administrators, community leaders and community members. There is the need therefore to strengthen parent-teacher relationship in schools. This can be done by encouraging parents to serve on committees such as the school management committees, disciplinary committees, counseling committees or units and any other befitting committees. When students see parents even other than their own parents at school, they feel connected to their homes and become conscious of their behavior and develop positive perception toward schooling. That will contribute toward the performance of the student's academic work as well.

In addition, teachers and school administrators should always try to be on the same note. In a situation whereby school administrators and teachers are not united in their discharge of duties, students take advantage to misbehave, and truancy get deepen. It was obvious that the collaboration between the school administrators and the teachers saved the child playing truancy in this study.

The community leaders and members should be regarded as key partners of the school. The study depicts that the community members helped to detect the truancy of the seaman's child. The hawkers or women going round in the community with their merchandise spotted the truant boy and reported their observation to the school authorities. There is every indication that the school had good relations with the members of the community. There is therefore the need to strengthen the relationship between the school and the community. Teamwork, among parents, teachers, school administrators, community leaders, and community members is indispensable for student success in education.

The perception by certain individuals or parents that schools have come into existence to take over parents' responsibilities should be discouraged. Both parents and the school need to work together to educate the child. Parents, who are aware of the disparity between themselves and school staff and therefore choose to stay away, should be discouraged from doing so. The faculty and staff who also fail to involve parents with their perceived inadequate level of expertise should desist from doing so. Parents should not allow their own past negative educational experiences intimidate them. They should rather get involved in building educational partnership. The resilience and commitment of parents, teachers, school administrators, community leaders and community members contributed toward the salvation of Tachie from losing his education. This phenomenon re-echoed the popular saying to be each other's keeper. In addition, it revitalizes the idea of educating children to be the responsibility of the entire community and not limited to only the biological parents of the child or school.

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The Impact of Information Systems Investment on Bank Performance in Ghana

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Abstract

The advancement of technology is a necessity of the current era. Businesses need to adopt and embrace new technologies to provide excellent business operations and services to their customers. This study looks at the impact of information systems investment on bank performance in Ghana. The major objectives are; (1) to determine the types of technology that the banks invest in (2) to find out the level of IS investment in the banks and (3) to determine the relationship between IS investments and bank's performance. The following hypothesis was proposed and tested statistically "Information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance". This study adopted the survey methodology. Taking into account the purpose of the study and the research hypothesis, this study is comfortably placed within a scientific epistemology of logical positivism. The cases investigated were local banks and foreign banks. The six banks used were named Bank A, Bank B, Bank C, Bank D, Bank E and Bank F respectively for the sake of anonymity. The population for the study was the strategic staff from the six banks all selected at their Head Offices in Greater Accra Region. The findings revealed that, there has been a high rate of investment in the past three years made by the various banks. The findings also revealed that both the foreign banks and the local banks asserted to the fact that, market share, profitability and ROA increases as IS investments are employed in the industry. Subjecting the hypothesis to statistical test also showed that, information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance. This study would help bank managers to recognize the importance of information systems investment and its use to gain competitive advantage and increase profit margins.

Key words: Information Systems Investment, Bank, Performance and Strategic Staff

INTRODUCTION

Today's business environment is very dynamic and undergoes rapid changes as a result of technological innovation, increased awareness and demands from customers. Over the last decade, the literature has emphasized the various roles of IT in fundamentally changing the way firms operate and in generating a strategic impact. One of the more important roles of IT is in extending the enterprise. IT can be used to transform organizational boundaries, inter-organizational relations, and marketplace competitive and cooperative practices (Konsynski, 1993). Business organizations, especially the banking industry of the 21st century operates in a complex and competitive environment characterized by these changing conditions and highly unpredictable economic climate. The application of information and communication technology (ICT) concepts, techniques, policies and implementation strategies to banking services has become a subject of fundamental importance and concerns to all banks and indeed a prerequisite for local and global competitiveness. ICT directly affects how managers decide, how they plan and what products and services are offered in the banking industry. It has continued to change the way banks and their corporate relationships are organized worldwide and the variety of innovative devices available to enhance the speed and quality of service

delivery. The banking sector has seen considerable transformation in the 1980s starting from the United States, then Europe and now the global village. The main forces behind this significant transformation in the banking industry, according to Reixach (2001), are deregulation and innovation in information technology (IT). Woherem (2000) claimed that only banks that overhaul the whole of their payment and delivery systems and apply ICT to their operations are likely to survive and prosper in the new millennium. He advices banks to re-examine their service delivery systems in order to properly position them within the framework of the dictates of the dynamism of information and communication technology. The banking industry in Ghana has witnessed tremendous changes linked with the developments in ICT over the years. The quest for survival, global relevance, maintenance of existing market share and sustainable development has made exploitation of the many advantages of ICT through the use of automated devices imperative in the industry.

The Ghanaian economy has experienced high influx rate of foreign banks in recent times. Banking operations are characterized with complexity and competition. To remain competitive, there is the need for a scientific approach in operations. One such an approach is information systems investment. Ghana has 27 universal banks, 135 rural banks and 49 non-bank financial institutions, including leasing firms, mortgage providers, finance houses, and savings and loan institutions and that is without counting the thousands of 'susu' collectors, who serve as informal, small-scale depository institution for market traders and shopkeepers. Of the 27 universal banks, 10 are locally owned while the remaining are backed by international owners; a mixture of European, American and African banking groups (The Report, Ghana 2014). Agboola (2003) indicated that the adoption of Information and Communication Technology in banks has improved customer services, facilitated accurate records, provided for home and office banking services, ensured convenient business hours, prompt and fair attention, and enhanced faster services. The adoption of ICT improves the banks' image and leads to a wider, faster and more efficient market. In Ghana, all the banks have information technology department that supports the various departments technologically. What still remains uncertain is whether the banks information systems investment commensurate the expected business performance. This study looks at the impact of information systems (IS) investment on bank performance in Ghana. The major objectives are; (1) to determine the types of technology that the banks invest in (2) to find out the level of IS investment in the banks and (3) to determine the relationship between IS investments and bank's performance. The following hypothesis was proposed and tested statistically "Information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance". This study would help bank managers to recognize the importance of information systems investment and its use to gain competitive advantage and increase profit margins.

LITERATURE
An overview of Information System in Banking
Although Information System expenditure is regarded as costly and risky, financial institutions are one of the largest investors in IS (Robson, 1997). The past 25 years have witnessed vast reductions in the cost of information technology. Between 1995 and 2005, the computing power of the average personal computer (PC) increased tremendously, while the price declined. The introduction of ATMs made the distribution of some banking services more efficient as it reduces time wastage in financial transactions. IT has developed the competition between financial institutions. Many new banking innovative strategies emerged from a new or enhanced banking information systems, which include e-banking, smartcard system or enhancement of other payment card system. Before the emergence of ATMs, withdrawing

funds, account inquiries and transferring funds between accounts requires face-to-face interaction between the customer and a bank teller.

According to Gupta and Collins (1997), there are four popular efficiency measures used to assess MIS return, which are as follows: reduced operating expenses; increased profitability; increased fee income as percentage of total revenue and increased net-interest margin to average earning assets. Mitra and Chaya (1996) found that IT investments reduce average production costs, and increase average overhead costs in firms. Alpar and Kim (1990) reported that investments in information technology decrease total costs in the banking industry. Harris and Katz (1991) found that higher information technology spending is associated with lower growth in operating cost of insurance companies. An interesting finding of Morton (1991) supported by Hitt & Brynjolfsson (1996) is that benefits from IT do in fact exist, but are not captured by the organization. Allen et al., (2006) pointed out that efficiency is measured in three ways: performance ratio, economy of scale, and cost efficiency, and according to Pehlivan & Kirkpatrick (1990), functional efficiency in financial institutions is measured by the cost and profit margins.

The result of effective strategic management should be evident in the performance of the organization. Various works support the sustained evolution towards positions, which are more optimistic about the impact of IT (Brynjolfsson and Hitt, 2001; Brynjolfsson, Hitt and Yang, 2000). Researchers like Hitt and Brynjolfsson, admitted that IS investments were associated with an increase in productivity of works who work with information and additionally they claim that investments in computing generates greater levels of productivity than any other type of investments, despite the short life-span of this type of tool. However, the researchers maintain that the results obtained do not imply that investing in IT guarantees net productivity gains, but that other factors may influence the relation (Bruque et al., 2002). Hitt and Brynjolfsson (1996) discovered within the same period that there is no relation between growth in market share or business profit and investment in IT and even found slight negative correlation coefficients between both variable pairs.

Evidence showed a relationship between investment in IT and improvement in global business performance and productivity. (Brynjolfsson, Hitt and Yang, 2000; Brynjolfsson and Hitt, 2001). Using a global result indicator (Tobin's Q ratio) based on the firm's value in the stock market they concluded that those firms, which invested more in IT in the period 1987 – 1994, achieved superior results. More so the correlation was stronger when the firm, along with the investment in IT, underwent a structural reorganization involving interdisciplinary workgroups, increase in independent decision making and support for employee training. More recently, researchers began to find positive relationships between IT investment and various measures of economic performance.

Alpar and Kim (1991) in their study of 759 banks indicated that investment in IT has a cost reducing effect. They also found a 10% increase in IT capital is associated with 1.9% decrease in total costs. Increase in economics of scale as a contributing factor of IT was found in Pulley and Braunstein's (1984) study of information services firm as well. Barua et al., (1991) found IT was positively related to measures of performance, although the magnitude of the effect was generally too small to measurably affect final output. Alpar and Kim (1991) undertook a study and found out that, the problem of measuring the impact of information technology on economic performance at the business unit or enterprise level is receiving increased attention. Alpar and Kim (1991) developed a methodology based on the microeconomic theory of

production and applied the model to data from the banking industry. In addition, they compare their methodology to approaches based on key ratios of information systems deployment. Both procedures were applied to the same set of data. The results show that reasoning about information systems value based on key ratios may be misleading, especially when the figures are only calculated for a cross-section of data.

Information Systems and Performance
Lee (2012) tried to find out whether the success of information systems really matters to firm performance. Many failed listed enterprises had strong information capabilities and resources. However, such advantage did not help these enterprises survive during the economy difficult times. Previous research of DeLone and McLean (2003) implied the success of information systems will enhance the performance of enterprises. Based on this implication, many enterprises continuously invested resources on information systems as a strategy trying to gain advantage over competitors. The net benefits in D&M model resulted from the success of information system does not always significantly improve the enterprise performance but rather has a limit on it. In fact, such an excess investment cannot improve the enterprise performance but exhausts more valuable resources instead.

There have been many firm level studies examining the relationship between IT investment and firm performance over the last two (2) decades. Apart from Strassmann's (1997) report of disappointing evidence in several studies which he found that there was no correlation between IT and return on investment in a sample of 38 services sector firms, there are other reports of similar regards. Parsons et al., (1990) estimated a production function for banking services in Canada and found that the overall impact of IT on multifactor productivity was quite low between 1974 and 1987 and they posited that IT has positioned the industry for greater growth in the future. Franke (1987) reaching similar conclusions, found that IT was associated with a sharp drop in capital productivity and stagnation in labour productivity, but remained optimistic about the future prospects of IT, citing the long time lags associated with previous "technological transformation".

Karimi et al., (1996) argue that, recently the globalization of competition has caused many firms in the financial services industry to integrate their information systems. According to a survey of 213 managers, they find that competitive strategy, information technology (IT) maturity and size influence firms' perceived increase in IT investment. Further, they find that the degree of IT integration within firms is a primary determinant of firms' willingness to use IT as part of their strategic response to globalization. It suggests that the new competitive strategies will be increasingly technology-based global initiatives that are affected by the firms' IT maturity. Beccalli (2007) investigates whether investment in information technology (IT); hardware, software and other IT services influence the performance of banks. Using a sample of 737 European banks over the period 1995–2000, Beccalli (2007) analyzed whether IT investment is reflected in improved performance (measured using both standard accounting ratios and cost and alternative profit efficiency measures). Despite banks being major investors in IT, Beccalli (2007) found little relationship between total IT investment and improved bank profitability or efficiency indicating the existence of a profitability paradox. However, the impact of different types of IT investment (hardware, software and services) on banks' performance is heterogeneous. Investment in IT services from external providers (consulting services, implementation services, training and education, support services) appears to have a positive influence on accounting profits and profit efficiency, while the acquisition of hardware and software seems to reduce banks' performance.

Theoretical Framework

A theory can be defined as a set of definitions and propositions that specify the relationship among variables. They help to explain or predict phenomena that occur in the world. A theory for a study guides the entire study, an organizing model for the research questions and for the data collection procedure (Creswell, 2003). The DeLone and McLean (2003) theoretical framework was used because it fits perfectly into the study and many authors have also used this model. Many studies have empirically tested the updated model (Tsai et al., 2012, Shareef et al., 2011, Pitt et al., 2011). The theoretical framework incorporates the following dimensions: systems quality, information quality, and service quality, intention to use, user satisfaction, and net benefits. The framework is as follows;
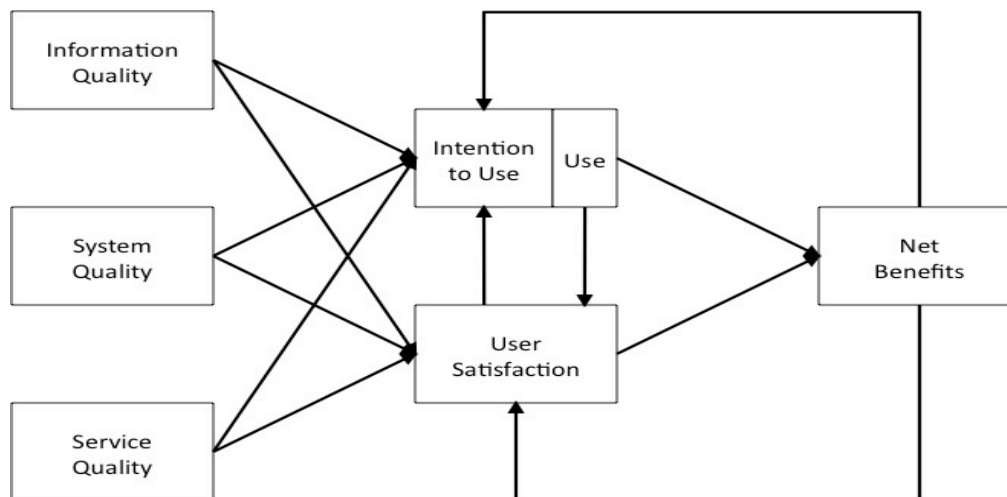

Figure 1: Information Systems Success Model (DeLone & McLean 2003)

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted the survey methodology. The method allows the results of the study to be generalized from the sample perspective, to the entire population. Thus the results obtain also give high level of reliability. Taking into account the purpose of the study and the research hypothesis, this study is comfortably placed within a scientific epistemology of logical positivism because it allows IS researchers to answer research questions about the interaction of humans and computers and it also emphasis on quantitative data. The cases investigated were local banks and foreign banks. The local banks consist of Ghana Commercial Bank (GCB), Agricultural Development Bank (ADB), and National Investment Bank (NIB). The foreign banks consist of Stanbic Bank Ghana (Stanbic), Standard Chartered Bank (SCB) and Barclays Bank Ghana (BBG). The six banks used were named Bank A, Bank B, Bank C, Bank D, Bank E and Bank F respectively for the sake of anonymity. The population for the study was the strategic staff since they are responsible for semi-structured type of decision making. All the strategic staff were considered at their Head Offices in Greater Accra region.

The total number of the strategic staff is sixty two (62). Since the population is so small the researcher decided to use all the strategic staff in the study. With adherence to a survey research methodology, this study used the questionnaire instrument. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. A simple frequency, percentages and Chi-Square test of independence to ascertain the significance of the relationship between variables were used to present the results of the study. Ethics were observed accordingly in conducting this research. Introductory letters were sent to all the banks for permission to use them in the study. In the data collection process, informed consent of the respondents was

sought and respondents were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality by the researcher. All citations were duly acknowledged and all participants treated respectfully.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Information Systems Investment in the Past Three Years

The changing scene of information technology and information systems has made businesses to invest more in information systems. The strategic staff respondents being at the top management were asked to indicate the level of information system investment in the past three year. The analysis of their responses is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Responses of Levels of IS Investment by banks in the Past Three Years

No = 32	Bank A		Bank B		Bank C		Bank D		Bank E		Bank F	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Low	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Moderate	-	-	-	-	1	20	-	-	-	-	-	-
High	6	100.0	6	100.0	4	80	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0
Total	6	100.0	6	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0

Source: Field data, 2015

The responses from the strategic staff suggest that, there has been a high rate of investment in the past three years. One (20.0%) of the respondents from Bank C also indicated that there has been a moderate investment in terms of information technology and information systems. The foreign banks have invested more in information systems than the local banks. Bank C also recorded moderate IS investment even though some of the respondent indicated that the IS investment is high. Despite banks being major investors in information systems, Beccalli (2007) found little relationship between total IS investment and improved bank profitability or efficiency indicating the existence of a profitability paradox. However, the impact of different types of IS investment (hardware, software and services) on banks' performance is heterogeneous. Investment in IS services from external providers (consulting services, implementation services, training and education, support services) appears to have a positive influence on accounting profits and profit efficiency. Harris and Katz (1991) indicate that firm performance was linked to the level of information systems investment intensity.

Information Systems Investment in Recent Times

The use of information technology is an integral part of enterprise management and operations. Spending or investments in information systems help enterprises stay on the cutting edge of the new tech to achieve better financial results. Investments in information systems can also provide certain intangible benefits such as improved customer care, increased time efficiency or better coordinated record keeping within an organization. Banks also invest in technology based on their needs. The strategic staff being the right respondents for this question were asked to indicate IS investments in recent times. The responses of these staff are analyzed and presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Response on Information System Investments in Recent Times by Banks

No = 32	Bank A		Bank B		Bank C		Bank D		Bank E		Bank F	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Banking Software	6	100.0	5	83.3	3	60.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Network Infrastructure	-	-	-	-	1	20.0	5	100.0	3	60.0	3	85.7
Server Computers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20.0	1	5.7
Work Stations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20.0	1	8.6
IT Outsourcing	-	-	1	16.7	1	20.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	6	100.0	6	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0

Source: Field data, 2015

All the foreign banks have invested in network infrastructure in recent times. Bank E and Bank F in addition to the network infrastructure have invested in servers and work / client stations. The local banks on the other hand have invested in improved banking software. In addition, Bank B has also invested in IT outsourcing activities like ATM services and general maintenance. Bank C has also in addition to the improved banking software has invested in network infrastructure and IT outsourcing activities. The researcher further asked the strategic staff about future IS investments. The respondents indicated that the bank has plans to improve upon the current information system and therefore in the future Bank C and Bank D would invest in electronic payment, electronic banking items and customer relationship systems to improve on the existing systems. Bank B and Bank E would also invest in support treasury dealing system and anti-money laundry systems. Bank A and Bank F would invest in Flexcube, IT security tools, and ATMs that take deposits in the near future.

Effect of Information Systems Investment on Bank Performance
Information systems investments have both positive and negative impacts on the operations of banks in the financial industry. The positive impact indicated here refers to reduction in operating expenses in market share, positive impact on profitability and increases in labour productivity. Information systems investments however, can also have negative impact on banking operations. For this reason, the strategic staff respondents were asked to ascertain the positive impact of IS investments in banks. The researcher presents the responses of the strategic staff by banks in Table 3.

Table 3: Responses on Effect of IT/IS Investment on Bank Performance

N = 32	Bank A		Bank B		Bank C		Bank D		Bank E		Bank F	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Reduces operating expenses	1	16.7	1	16.7	1	20.0	-	-	-		-	
Increase market share of deposits	2	33.3	2	33.3	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0
Increase profits	2	33.3	2	33.3	2	40.0	2	40.0	2	40.0	2	40.0
Positive impact on Return on Asset	1	16.7	1	16.7	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0
Increases labour Productivity	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0
Total	6	100.0	6	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0	5	100.0

Source: Field data, 2015

On the impact of IT investments on key variables, the above table indicates that all the banks (both foreign and local) asserted that market share, profitability, and ROA increases as IT investment are employed in the industry. This supports the school of thought that banks that invest heavily in technology would have an increase in market share of deposits and loans. In addition, the foreign banks indicated increased labour productivity as one of the key variables on IS investments whilst the local banks also indicated reduction in operating expenses. This expected impact of IS investments is a sure motivator for the employment of the state of the art technology which banks are heavily dependent on to survive in the face of keen competition.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis is a specific statement of prediction. It describes in concrete terms what the expectation will be in the study. A single study may have one or many hypotheses (Ankrah, 2013). In this study, the researcher employs the chi-square test to test the relationship between two variables. The specific hypothesis is stated before conducting the test. The researcher identifies Ho with the null hypothesis and Ha with the research hypothesis (alternative hypothesis).

Ho: Information systems investment does not have a positive relationship with bank performance.
Ha: Information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance.

Critical value

From the chi square distribution, a significance level of 0.05 with two degrees of freedom gives a critical value of 5.99.

Decision rule

The researcher cannot accept Ho, if chi-square calculated is greater than 5.99 and concludes that, Information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance else the researcher will fail to reject Ho and conclude that, information systems investment does not have a positive relationship with bank performance.

Test Statistic

Suppose that there are I rows and J columns, let $P_{i.}$ and $P_{.j}$ be their respective marginal probabilities. Then $p_{ij} = P_{i.} * P_{.j}$ and $E_{ij} = n*p_{ij}$ Let T_i = Total for row i and T_j = Total for column j

Then $P_{i.} = \dfrac{T_i}{n}$ and $P_{.j} = \dfrac{T_j}{n}$

Where n = Total number of observations

P_{ij} = Propability of the ith row and jth column

E_{ij} = Expected Value of the ith row and jth column

The test statistic is a chi square, χ^2 with (I-1)*(J-1) degrees of freedom.

$$\chi^2 cal = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{\left(O_{ij} - E_{ij}\right)^2}{E_{ij}} \quad \text{with } df = (I-1)*(J-1)$$

Where Oij are the observed values
    Eij are the expected values and
    df is the degrees of freedom

Table 4: Observed and Expected Values of Bank Performance by IS Investment

N = 32			IS Investments			
			Low	Moderate	High	Total
Bank Performance	Moderate	Count	2	0	6	8
		Expected Count	.5	2.5	5.0	8.0
	High	Count	0	10	14	24
		Expected Count	1.5	7.5	15.0	24.0
Total		Count	2	10	20	32
		Expected Count	2.0	10.0	20.0	32.0

N = 32   Chi Square = 9.600   DF =2 p-value= 0.000   COR = 0.559
Source: Field data, 2015

The chi-square calculated is equal to 9.600 and the critical value is equal to 5.99. Since the chi-square calculated is greater than the critical value and p-value= 0.000, thus, Ho cannot be accepted. Therefore, information systems investment has a positive relationship with bank performance. This is further strengthened by a correlation coefficient of 0.559.

CONCLUSION

Technology has brought about a complete paradigm shift in the functioning of banks and delivery of banking services. The growth of the internet, mobiles and communication technology has added a different dimension to banking. The information technology (IT) available today is being leveraged in customer acquisitions, driving automation and process efficiency, delivering ease and efficiency to customers. There is a growing debate in the business community about the importance of measuring the return on investments in IS. This

is a difficult and challenging task, given that many of the benefits derived from IS are both intangible and long term. In spite of the limitations of existing productivity measures, it is important to monitor and assess the contribution of IS investments to organizational productivity and efficiency. Banks that do not make investments that take advantage of new technology may find that they are losing customers to the better-quality or lower-cost products of firms that do. But using IT as a strategic weapon can be quite tricky, entailing high costs and an uncertain payoff (Brynjolfsson and Hitt, 2001).

The advancement of technology is a necessity of the current era. Businesses need to adopt and embrace new technologies to provide excellent business operations and services to their customers. The banking industry is not an exception with regards to this adaptation. So it is worth suggesting that the banking industry needs to spend more on IT and better apply IT to improve its operations, customer services and products. Banks should devote more resources to the development of secure IT systems, services and products. The local banks must invest more in IS especially, in IT security and IT infrastructure to achieve better results. Bank C must also conduct a systems audit to know the true picture of the system. Further research into the analysis of the individual IS strategy of the banks to determine whether it conforms to IS standards would be a vital venture.

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Role Performance and Challenges of Male Single-Parent Families in the Central Region of Ghana

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Abstract

This study investigated the role performance and challenges of male single-parents in the Central Region of Ghana using a descriptive and evaluative survey approach. A multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select 300 male single-parents for the study. Pretested questionnaire and interview schedule were used to collect the data. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 16.0) software was used to analyse the data. The major findings of the study were that the performance of instrumental and expressive roles had affected aspects of lives of the respondents. The major challenges faced by the respondents included time constraints, fatigue and loneliness. It is recommended that the local government, central government and non-governmental organizations should undertake human resource development programmes in the Central Region to equip male single-parents with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for the performance of both expressive and instrumental roles in the home. Family life professionals should also expand their programmes to cater for the interests and struggles of male single-parents.

Keywords: Expressive roles, Families, Ghana, Instrumental roles, Male single-parent, Structural-functionalism theory

INTRODUCTION

A family is the basic social institution to which every individual belongs (Ardayfio-Schandorf & Kwafo-Akoto, 1990). It is the family that perpetuates society and the society benefits from the individual members of the family and the family as a whole. In the family, individual members as subsystems in various positions, play significant roles using resources available for the mutual benefit of the group. When individual members play their roles effectively, the family as a unit becomes self-directed and self-driven in interacting with various environments for achieving the quality of life (Blau, Ferber & Winkler, 2006). According to Rice (1999), the family carries out many important functions in a society. It is the basic economic unit of production and consumption. It socialises the young, while it serves as the source of political power. Families enforce norms and laws, transmits cultural heritage and serves as the first line of social security. They provide the basic necessities of food, shelter and clothing and care and protect the young from harm by outsiders.

A family, as explained by Rice (1999), is any group of persons united by the ties of marriage, blood, or adoption, or any sexually expressive relationship, in which the adults cooperate financially for their mutual support and care of the children; the people are committed to one another in an intimate, interpersonal relationship; and the members see their identity as importantly attached to the group with an identity of its own. There are different types of families and they also come in all patterns and sizes. Even though families have different patterns they function basically as a unit to meet goals and desires of members. Conventional families have been nuclear and extended families. Owing to recent trends and changing attitudes, a wider variety of family forms have become common in society. People are increasingly likely to encounter - and become part of - other types of families as well.

Brown (1995) cited in Ardayfio-Schandorf (1995) has posited that, within the traditional household structure, there was a clear division of economic and social roles and responsibilities as to who was supposed to do what. That is, the division of labour was clearly defined in a system based on age and sex roles. With increasing social change, brought about by modernization, industrialization and commercialization, several changes have taken place within the structure of the household at different levels, in its composition and in its social and economic organization. With regard to the household structure, it is now evident that a new type of single-headed household has emerged and formed both from necessity and by choice. The change in the structure of the household has brought about with it a change in the pattern of dividing the work and sharing responsibilities within it.   The prevalence of single-parent families represents one of the most significant social changes.

Single-parent families may occur as a result of divorce or separation, unwedded parents or death of one of the spouses (Amissah, 2014). In single-parent families, only one of the parents has to take custody of the children, with the accompanying responsibilities. Segall, Dasen, Bery and Poortinga (1999) have asserted that single-parents tend to be more socially isolated than married parents. They work more hours and receive less emotional and parental support. They tend to have less stable social networks and experience more potentially stressful life changes. However, even though experts agree that a happy two-parent home is the ideal, many studies have shown that children are better off in a happy single-parent home than in an unhappy two-parent home.

In many societies, the man's primary family role is that of economic provider. The traditional father's minimal participation in the day-to-day care of children has been well documented (Coverman & Sheley, 1986; Levant, Slattery & Loiselle, 1987). In the Ghanaian socio-cultural context, responsibilities of the male and female, as parents, are enshrined in traditional gender roles. Boateng (1995) cited in Ardayfio-Schandorf (1995) noted that   usually, while the man is responsible for the instrumental roles such as provision of money for food, clothing, shelter, security, discipline and major physical infrastructure that provide comfort and pleasure for the home, the woman plays expressive roles such as affection, moral support, cooking, performing household chores, and caring for the daily needs of the household. Although this general pattern has been historically true, these roles are undergoing some degree of change today, particularly as more women enter the labour force.

The dynamics of everyday living presents challenges to single-parent families and their members. The challenges require adequate supply of resources that are accessible and the application of managerial skills to be able to meet them. International development programmes have targeted several aspects of life and development, and have made great

impact on the quality of family life, work output. An examination of the categories of people who have benefited from interventions and human resource development programmes reveals that male single-parents are clearly ignored. Culturally, the gender roles of males do not include the activities that are performed as expressive roles by women. It is puzzling to imagine what coping strategies are adopted by male single-parents in managing the household without a woman to play the expressive roles. Little attention has been drawn to the issue of male single-parents and how they perform their parental as well as home management roles and challenges they face.

The general objective of this paper is to examine role performance and challenges of male single-parent families in the Central Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study seeks to:
1. Ascertain which roles are perceived as instrumental and expressive roles at home;
2. Determine how the performance of both instrumental and expressive roles affect the various aspects of life of male single-parents;
3. Examine the challenges faced by male single-parents in combining the instrumental and expressive roles; and
4. Identify the effects of the challenges involved in role performance on the male single-parents.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: the next section focuses on the theoretical perspectives and conceptual framework by reviewing related literature. Section three describes the study context and methodology while the fourth section presents findings and discussion. The last section deals with conclusion and recommendations.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
In order to put the paper into context and to explore what other researchers have done, this section reviews literature on theories on the family and the conceptual framework for studying single-parent families.

Theories on the family
Structural-functionalism and family system theories are reviewed. Parsons (1966) attempted to develop a "grand theory" of society that explains all social behaviour universally throughout history, and in all contexts, with a single model called structural-functionalism. This theory considers values to be the core of culture because values give meaning to what people do, direct people's lives, and bind people together. These "cultural traits" function for the operation of society. In the theory, five contrasting pairs of value orientations, in their various combinations, account for the nature of role relationships in any society, and typify the structure of any society. These pairs called Pattern Variables are:
a. Affectivity - Affective neutrality;
b. Self-orientation - Collectivity-orientation;
c. Particularism - Universalism;
d. Ascription - Achievement; and
e. Functional diffuseness - Functional specificity.

Parsons (1966) regards the first half of each pair as the "expressive types" of characteristics and the second half of the pattern as the "instrumental types" of characteristics. Expressive aspects refer to the integrative and tension aspects. These are roles, and actions concerned with taking care of the common task, how to integrate the group, and how to manage and resolve internal tensions and conflicts. This may take many different forms but often is associated with the family, and more specifically with the female role in the family.

The instrumental characteristics refer to the goal attainment and adaptation aspects. These are the characteristics, people, roles, and actions associated with ideas, problem solving and getting the task done. These tasks are often associated with male roles, public activities, the economy, or politics. These can also be used to refer to the type of society. Social action and interaction in early forms of society are more likely to be characterized by expressive characteristics. In contrast, in modern societies, with a more complex division of labour and differentiation of statuses and roles, much of social action and interaction are characterized by instrumental characteristics.

Structural-functionalism, therefore, looks at behavioural patterns and interchanges between the family and other systems in the society and between the family and its subsystems. It also looks at the family's responsibility in socialization, transmitting values and norms of the society to the individual. It focuses on how the nuclear family provides and motivates, supports and encourages the individual to assume tasks. It also examines the structure, including who belongs to the family, and examines the contributions of the various subsystems in the family, roles in the family in relation to the society. Structural-functionalism further looks at family roles and role differentiation. The father is supposed to work and provide for the family, the mother is supposed to care and perform household duties and the children are to contribute to the performance of chores.

Structural-functionalism looks at "role prescription" and "role performance" for the nuclear family. The former represents the societal expectations of the individual; the latter is what is actually done by family members. However, it has been argued that, looking at the roles of fathers and mothers, it has been observed that they do not play these roles in isolation. At times, the fathers play expressive roles and the mothers also play instrumental roles in actual performance (Weil, 1971).

Critics of structural-functionalism say that the theory fails to achieve clear and adequate communication. Slater (1961) argues even if one accepts the proposition that expressive and instrumental behaviours cannot be expressed simultaneously by the same person, this does not logically preclude their expression by the actor in different circumstances. It is plausible to maintain that males are primarily responsible for the instrumental or subsistence-oriented activities in the family, that females are concerned principally with socio-emotional maintenance, and that these roles interacted in a complementary fashion. Crano and Aronoff (1978) observe that the most complete form of the role of complementarity hypothesis concerns the degree to which complementarity exists between instrumental and expressive commitments.

Although there are weaknesses, particularly terminological confusion, there are also advantages for studying family-life this way. Within this framework, the family is the basic social unit that is held responsible for meeting individual human needs, such as the reproductive, educational, and economic needs, which are also essential for societal survival.

The family systems theory places emphasis on the relationships among interacting units. According to Amissah (2014), systems are composed of an integrated hierarchy and interdependent parts. People in a family constitute a family system while the environment in which the people live, work, attend school, shop and operate daily constitute additional sub-

systems. The community, state and nation are still other sub-systems. Each sub-system interacts and influences other sub-systems. Systems are directed toward a common purpose.

A system is a set of objects with relationships between the objects and between their attributes. Objects refer to the parts, components, or elements of the system while attributes refer to the properties or characteristics of the elements of the system. According to Broderick and Smith (1979), the systems theory emphasizes the interdependence of family members. The relationships between individuals in a family are derived from the roles, rules, routines and responsibilities of each person to others and the form and function of the organisational structure of the family unit. A change in any one of the components of the organisation causes changes in other components.

Systems have wholeness and structure; boundaries which interface with other systems in an environment; and functions to perform. A major characteristic of a system's wholeness is based on the concept that the components of a system behave as a unit rather than as separate entities. Deacon and Firebaugh (1988) note that the family has certain characteristics that make it function as a system. The family as a system also has wholeness and structure, composed of persons who interact and function together. The family not only has a structure of recognizable parts that function independently but also operates as a whole, such as father, mother and children, and each has individual and essential roles to play.

Systems are both connected to and separated from other sub-systems by boundaries which indicate what is inside and outside the system. The intensity of interaction is greater within the boundary than the intensity of interchanges across the boundary. Similarly, a family has got a boundary which is identified by knowing who belongs "inside" it and who is "outside". Generally, the degree of interaction is greater and the responsibilities toward each member are greater inside the boundary than outside it.

Systems have functions that they are expected to perform. The contribution a component makes is vital to the life of the system as a whole. In the same way, a family has functions to perform. Family functions are many and varied and may include: provision of food, clothing and shelter as basic needs for physical maintenance and health of each member. Other functions are procreation, socialisation and nurturance. A systems approach to family management provides an understanding of interrelationships and conditions which influence action in the family.

Deacon and Firebaugh (1988) note that family system life management has three components: input, throughput and output as shown in Figure 1. Input refers to all information and energy matter plugged into the family system in various forms as demands to affect processes in the throughput. The demands are the goals, values, standards, events, attitudes, needs and wants which push people into action in order to attain goals required.
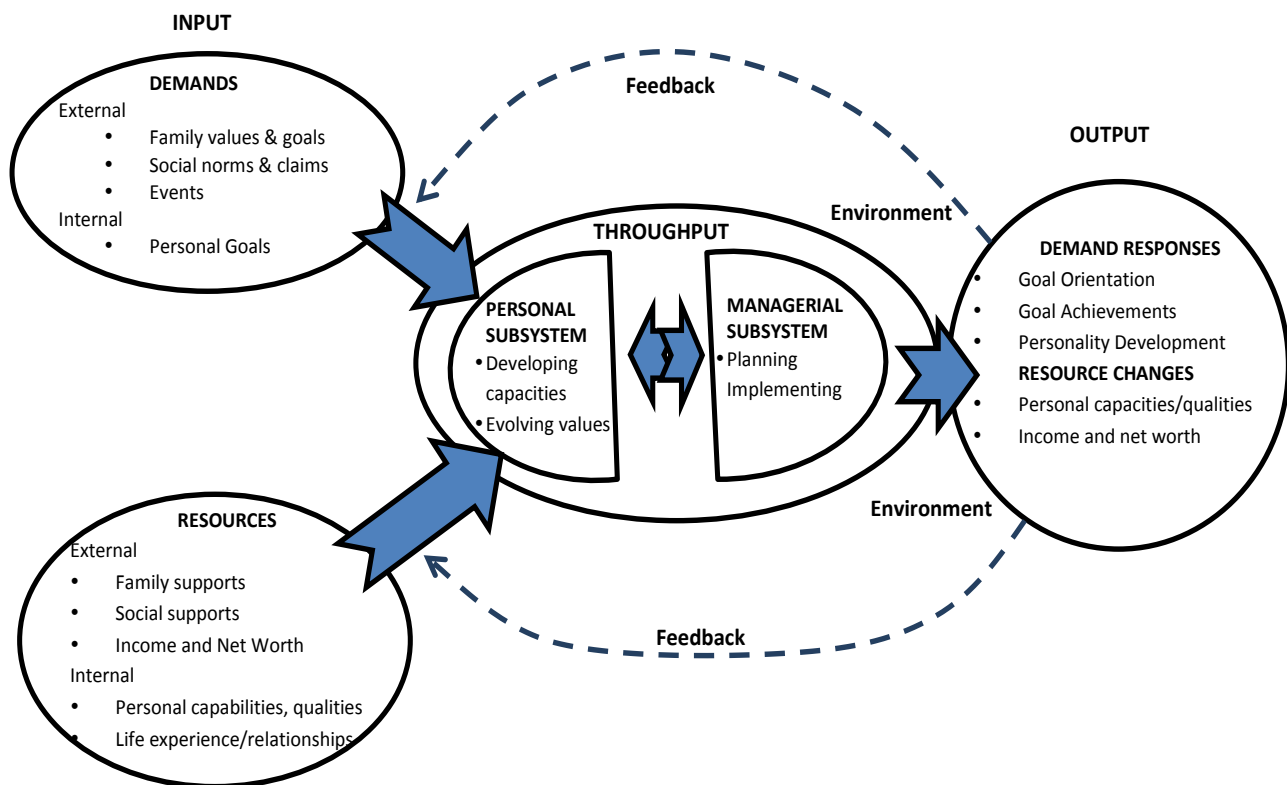
Figure 1: Framework for family system life management
Source: Deacon and Firebaugh (1988: 22)

The throughput is the transformation of matter or energy from input to output in the managerial system. It involves decisions and communication for planning and implementation of actions (instrumental and expressive roles) to convert resources into attained goals. Output is the end result of managerial activity. Thus, the expanded resources, the met demands and satisfaction gained leave the family system and enter the environment as quality of life. Information about output may re-enter the system as inputs in feedback. Feedback is the system's capacity to monitor its own progress toward a change or set goal, to correct and elaborate its response, and even to change its goals. The family interrelates continually with its environment, which is the external setting within which a system functions.

Conceptual framework for investigating role performance of single-parent families
This paper adapted structural-functionalism and family systems theory and came out with four components as input, throughput, output and outcome, presented as a conceptual framework (Figure 2) to investigate the role performance of single-parent in the Central Region. The structural-functionalism presents five contrasting pairs of value orientation, which, in their various combinations, account for the nature of role relationships in (the structure of) any society. The family as a social system adapts itself to various environments which may be restrictive or enhancing in its goal attainment as it integrates and organises resources to meet the needs of the family. Family members perform instrumental and expressive roles in the home to achieve the desired goals to maintain family equilibrium and survival.

The day-to-day concerns of the single-parent family such as feeding the family; carrying out daily activities by playing instrumental and expressive roles; providing members with clothing and shelter; the ability of the members to get along with each other; and adjusting to new
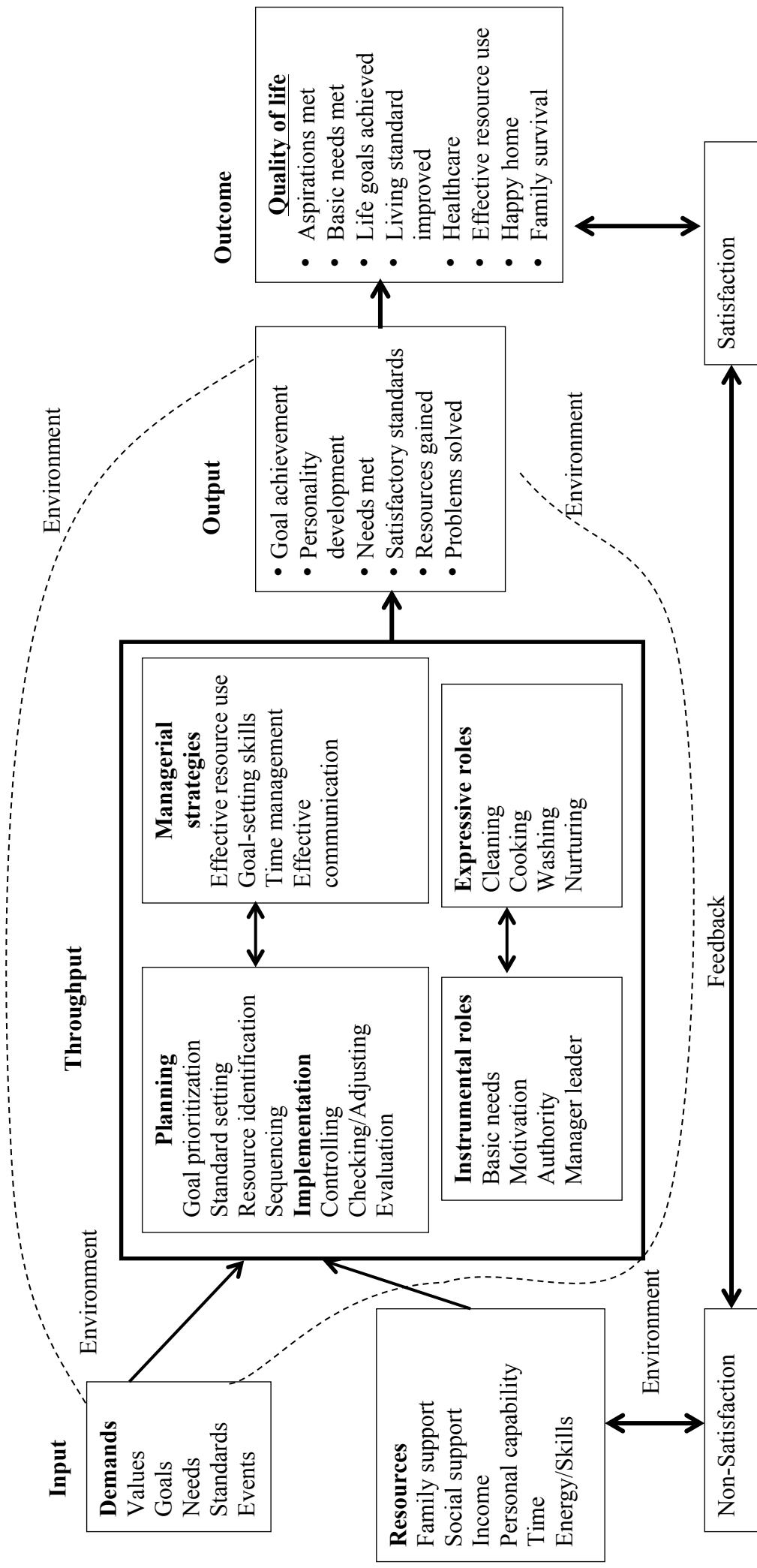
Figure 2: Conceptual framework for investigating role performance of single-parent families

Source: Adapted from Parsons (1966) and Deacon and Firebaugh (1988)

situations (like living in a single-parent home) are all management situations. The single-parent family always has certain demands to meet. These demands are stimuli received from the system's environment as input factors. To meet its demands, the family plans, implements, monitors, and evaluates various programmes and activities. The programmes and activities require the use of certain resources, such as family support, social support, income, personal capabilities, time and energy.

The throughput involves planning and implementation of actions to convert resources into achievable goals. In planning, there are strategies that could be followed for goal achievement including goal prioritization, standard setting, and resources identification. Implementation, which is the actual performance of activities, involves the playing of certain instrumental and expressive roles by relevant family members in order to achieve management outputs. However, there is no role differentiation in the single-parent household. Single-parents combine and perform both the instrumental and expressive roles at home, which may bring challenges to single-parents. However, managerial strategies such as effective use of resources, goal-setting skills, time management and effective communication, could be used to control, check and evaluate the results achieved (i.e. output).

Output is the result of throughput when inputs are satisfactorily provided and utilised. It is the finished product, expressed as goal achievement, personality development, needs met, satisfactory standards, resources gained or created and problems solved. The output flows to the internal environment of the system as the outcome of managerial activities. Outcome creates satisfaction for family members. It tells how far the family is reaching its goals, standards and the level of satisfaction. The level of satisfaction accumulates to form the quality of life of the family.

The quality of life is expressed by indicators such as aspirations met, basic needs met, life goals achieved, living standards improved, improved healthcare, effective use of resources, happy home, and family survival. There is always some form of feedback from family members as to whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied with the resources they use, the roles they play and the extent to which family demands have been met. Feedback is the evaluative information about the managerial activity that is returned to the system as input which influences future action.

STUDY CONTEXT AND METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in the Central Region of Ghana. The region contains 21 local government (LG) areas made up of one Metropolis, six Municipals and 14 Districts, The Central Region shares boundaries with four regions - Western Region to the west, Ashanti Region to the north, Greater Accra Region to the south-east and Eastern Region to the east. To the south is the Gulf of Guinea (Figure 3). The predominant ethnic group is the Akans. The economy of the region is dominated by agro - businesses, services and small-scale industries. It is estimated that 66 percent of the people are engaged in agriculture, (farming and fishing) and trading in the informal sector. The formal sector consists of mostly teachers, bankers and other government workers (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).

This study employed the descriptive and evaluative survey designs, using male single-parents in the Central Region. The descriptive design made it possible to obtain information on the existing situation of the role performance and challenges in the performance of both instrumental and expressive roles by male single-parents. Bell (2010) posits that an evaluative research is the systematic assessment of an operation and/or the outcomes of a programme or

policy, compared to a set of explicit or implicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the program or policy. The evaluative design was used in this study to evaluate how male single-parents adopted managerial strategies to meet challenges they faced. The study population consisted of all male single-parents in the Central Region of Ghana. The Ghana Statistical Service (2012) has data on the distribution of male single-parent households by status for the Central Region. All male single-parents in the entire region could have been used for the study. However, for time and other resource constraints, male single-parents in some of the districts were chosen to represent the population under investigation. A multistage sampling procedure was employed to get a sample which was representative of the population. Firstly, the districts were clustered into two namely: coastal and inland. Secondly, proportionate stratified sampling was employed to select six districts. To achieve this, a sampling frame of names of the LG areas in the region was prepared. Names of the coastal and inland districts were written and folded separately for each stratum. Placed in separate bowls, three papers were picked from the coastal and the inland bowls respectively, provided and all together, six LG areas used for the study. These were: (i) Cape Coast; (ii) Efutu; and (iii) Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese representing coastal areas while (i) Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam; (ii) Agona; and (iii) Assin represented inland areas.
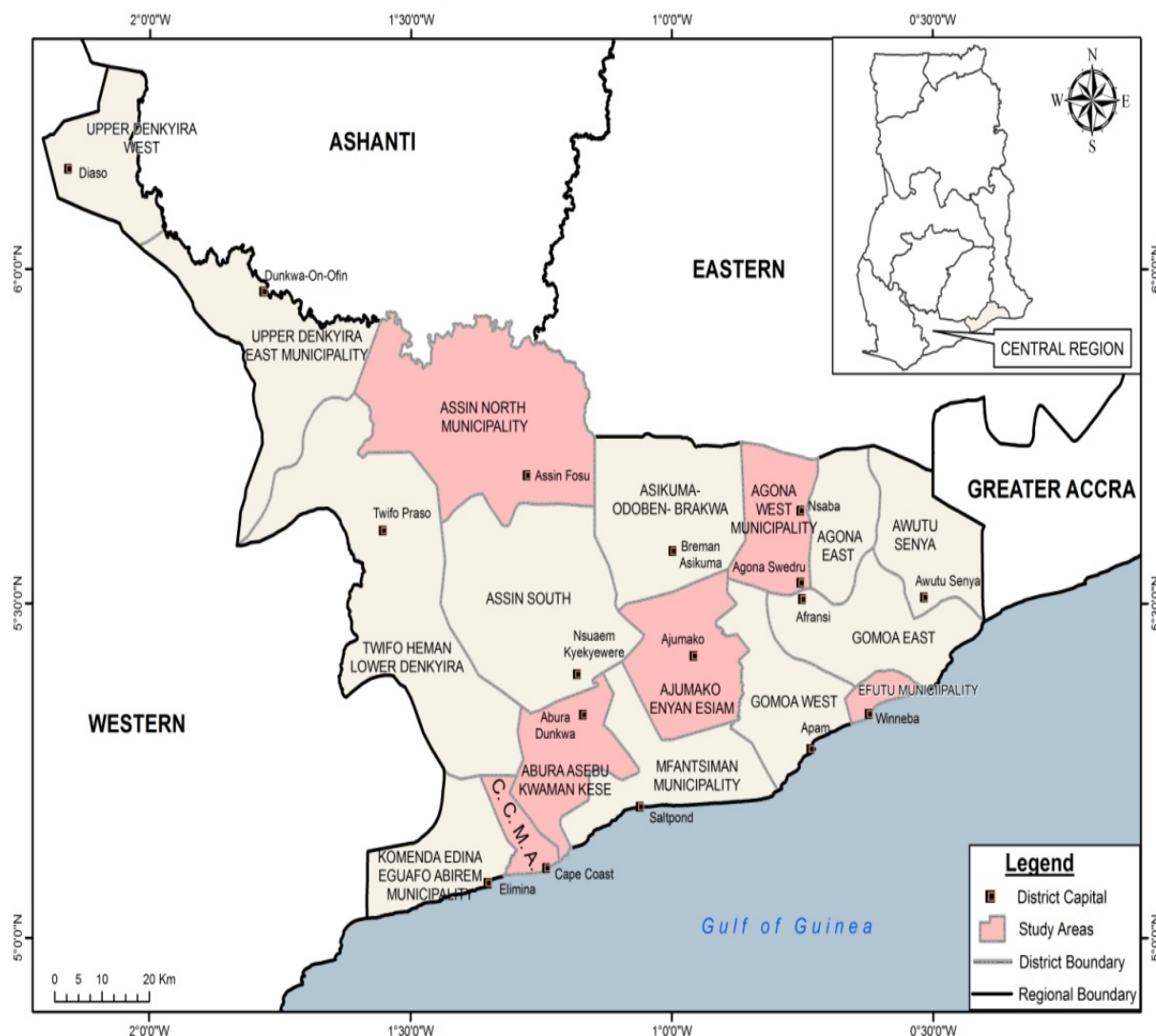

Figure 3: Map of Central Region in Ghana
Source: Cartography Unit, Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC (2014).

At the last stage, the political administrative capitals within the LG areas were purposively selected. One other urban community was randomly selected from each LG area using a sampling frame of names of urban communities obtained from the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs). Names of public schools were obtained from the Assemblies to serve as a sampling frame. Two public basic schools were randomly selected in each community, using the lottery method.

The study used Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for determining the sample size (with 95 percent certainty) for a given population. By the table, for a total accessible population between 1400 and 1499, a sample size of 302 is appropriate. The selected districts in the region have a total population of 1450 male single heads of households. The actual sample size used for the study was 300. The sample size for each district was, therefore, calculated as a proportion of the total sample size (300), based on its population as provided by the Ghana Statistical Service (2003). The number of individuals selected was based on its population.

The difficulty in identifying male single-parents was overcome by identifying pupils living with male single-parents in the basic schools in the selected communities. Teachers in the schools assisted to interview the pupils, and identified those who lived with their fathers alone. In the classrooms, pupils were asked to show by hand if they lived with their fathers only. This was done in all classrooms until the required sample was obtained. In cases where the required sample was not obtained in the classroom, other respondents were referred by an informal net-work, established to identify respondents. The male single-parents were then contacted to participate in the study.

The instruments used for data collection were questionnaire for literate respondents and interview schedule for illiterate respondents. Both the questionnaire and interview schedule comprised of the same items. Both open-ended and close-ended items were used. The questions were grouped under sections corresponding to the specific objective of the study. In the administration of the questionnaire, personal visits were made to the household of the selected families for both the distribution and collection for the literate respondents. Interviews were conducted in the vernacular and recorded in English in the interview sections at agreed date and time at the convenience of the respondents. Respondents were assured of anonymity and maximum confidentiality in order to uphold ethical considerations. The literate respondents were given one week to complete the questionnaires. The month of March 2014 was used for the field work, which was supported by two field assistants.

The completed questionnaires were edited for consistency. To ensure the quality of the data, cross-validation was done by comparing responses with each other to ensure accuracy and completeness. The close ended questions were coded and analysed. Responses to open-ended items were analysed through the categorization of emergent concepts and comparison of these concepts in order to identify common themes. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 16) software was used to process and analyse the data. Frequency distribution tables were used to present data on the roles performed, challenges and effects of the challenges faced by the respondents.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section reports on the background characteristics of the respondents, perceived instrumental and expressive roles, effects of the performance of both instrumental and expressive roles at home on aspects of life and challenges male single-parents face in combining both instrumental and expressive roles at home.

Background characteristics of respondents

The background characteristics of the respondents covered were: age, educational level, occupation, monthly income, number of dependents and the years respondents had been single-parents. The ages of respondents ranged from 31 years to 70 years with the mean age of 45 years and standard deviation of 8.3. The educational levels of the respondents were categorized into: no formal education, basic, senior high school, post-secondary and tertiary education. The occupations captured in this study included teaching, trading, artisanship, farming, driving, administrative work, office work, banking and nursing.

Perceived instrumental and expressive roles at home

The respondents were asked to indicate the kinds of roles they perceived as instrumental and expressive roles at home. Their responses are presented in Table 1. The results show that there were 16 instrumental roles in the home identified by the respondents. These ranged from breadwinner, household head to administrator and social networking. There were marked similarities in the roles perceived as instrumental roles at home. The topmost roles that the respondents perceived as instrumental roles at home were breadwinner (99.3%), household head (93.0%), supervisor (91.7%), decision-maker (91.7%) and leader (91.3%). Other high ranking roles included disciplinarian (89.7%), financial controller (89.7%), advisor (89.3%), helping children to learn (84.3%), planner (83.7%), and establishing standards for achieving goals (83.0%).

Table 1: Perceived instrumental and expressive roles at home

Instrumental roles	Percent	Expressive roles	Percent
1. **Breadwinner**	99.3	1. Child care	98.3
2. **Household head**	93.0	2. Cooking	97.3
3. **Supervisor**	91.7	3. Washing	95.3
4. **Decision maker**	91.7	4. Cleaning the house	93.3
5. **Leader**	91.3	5. Sweeping compound	92.7
6. **Disciplinarian**	89.7	6. Socialization of children	90.7
7. **Financial controller**	89.7	7. Nurturing	90.3
8. **Advisor**	89.3	8. Comforter	89.7
9. **Helping children to learn**	84.3	9. Washing dishes	89.3
10. **Planner**	83.7	10. House keeping	88.7
11. **Setting standards for achieving goals**	83.0	11. Marketing	86.3
12. **Controller**	82.3	12. Time manager	85.0
13. **Manager**	82.0	13. Entertaining	79.3
14. **Identifying / assessing resources**	82.0	14. Establishing a social network in the family	79.3
15. **Administrator**	80.0	15. Ironing	68.7
16. **Social networking**	75.3		

n = 300 respondents, multiple responses
Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Within the traditional household structure, there is a clear division of economic and social roles and responsibilities as to who is supposed to do what. The division of labour was clearly

defined in a system based on age and sex roles. The results of the study agree with those of Boateng (1995) cited in Ardayfio-Schandorf (1995) that, usually, the man is responsible for the instrumental roles such as provision of money for food, clothing, shelter, security, discipline, control and major physical infrastructure that provides comfort and pleasure for the home. In many societies, the man's primary family role is that of economic provider. The traditional father's minimal participation in the day-to-day care of children has been well documented.

Fifteen expressive roles were identified by the respondents in the home (Table 1). These included caring for children (98.3%), cooking (97.3.%), washing (95.3%), cleaning of the house (93.3%), sweeping the compound (92.7%), socialization of children (90.7%), nurturing (90.3%), comforter (89.7%), washing dishes (89.3%), housekeeping (88.7%), marketing (86.3%), time manager (85.0%), and ironing (68.7%). The lowest ranked women's role in the home was ironing. According to Boateng (1995) cited in Ardayfio-Schandorf (1995), expressive roles include housekeeping, cleaning of the house, caring for the emotional well-being of the family, providing nurturing and comfort. The majority of the respondents affirmed to all the roles outlined as women's roles.

The finding agrees with the assertions of Coverman and Sheley (1986) and Levant, Slattery and Loiselle (1987) that women assume responsibility for the day-to-day care and supervision of children, by playing expressive roles. The findings support the structural-functionalism theory which identified two major roles (instrumental and expressive) in the family set-up in terms of the role parents play (Parsons, 1966; Crano & Aronoff, 1978).

Roles respondents performed at home
The respondents indicated 12 main roles they actually performed at home as male single-parents as shown in Table 2. The roles included: cooking (91.7%), gardening (91.7%), caring for small children (87.3%), supervising children's school work (87.0%), washing (82.7%), sending children to and from school (79.0%), cleaning the house (75.0%) and getting the children ready for school (75%). There was no role differentiation in the male single-parent households as these parents performed both the instrumental and expressive roles.

This is in line with Saase's (1994) assertion that, in male single-parent households, only the male parent has custody of the children and bears the burden of performing multiple roles. The male parent accomplished many of the same tasks alone that two-parent families would perform together. Amissah (2014) reported that single-parents often face the challenges of child rearing, maintaining a home, establishing a supportive social life and working full-time with little assistance from other adults. Because of these many responsibilities, single parents often feel overwhelmed, especially during the first two years as single parents.

Parenthood is less challenging under the best of conditions but with one parent, the challenges (economic, emotional, mental, social and physical) are enormous for one-parent household, especially where the other members are young. In the latter case, most of the family responsibilities rest on the person's shoulders. Cleaning the house, cooking meals, keeping up the yard, paying the bills, keeping an eye on the children, and several others, are responsibilities of the single parent.

Table 2: Actual roles respondents performed at home

Actual roles	Percent
1. Cooking	91.7
2. Gardening	91.7
3. Caring for small children	87.3
4. Supervising children's school work	87.0
5. Washing	82.0
6. Sending children to and from school	79.0
7. Cleaning the house	75.0
8. Getting children ready for school	75.0
9. Ironing	72.3
10. Washing dishes	71.3
11. Sweeping compound	71.0
12. Marketing	34.0

n = 300 respondents, multiple responses
Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Effects of performance of both instrumental and expressive roles on aspects of life
The major aspects of the parent life affected by the performance of instrumental and expressive roles concurrently by the male single-parent families are presented in Table 3. The most affected aspects of life were: relationship with children (79.7%); career (60.7%); finances (59.3%); social life (58.0%); leisure (57.3%); and meeting basic needs (50.7%). These aspects of life are fundamental to family survival as observed by Rice (1999). The performance of both roles has also affected housework and self-improvement by 46.0 and 38.7 percent of the respondents respectively.

The performance of the roles could adversely affect the relationship with children of 79.7 percent of the respondents. Wilson (1988) observed that single-parents' attitudes affect their children as they observe and imitate behaviours and attitudes of their parents. About 60.7 percent of the respondents have their career adversely affected as their work outputs are often criticised. This means that employment can have an impact on male single-parents and their concept of self-worth. Segal et al. (1999) have contended that parenthood should be compatible with career goals. Some careers require extensive time away from home, and a male single-parent might not be able to give a child the time and attention needed.

Table 3: Effects of performance of instrumental and expressive roles on aspects of life of respondents

Aspect of life	Percent
1. Relationship with children	79.7
2. Career	60.7
3. Finances	59.3
4. Social life	58.0
5. Leisure	57.3
6. Meeting basic needs	50.7
7. Housework	46.0
8. Self-improvement	38.7

n = 300 respondents, multiple responses
Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Dizard and Gadlin (1990) observed that single-parents often face the challenges of child rearing, maintaining a home, establishing a supportive social life and working full-time with little assistance from other adults. These parents may experience a dilemma of managing career and caring for their children. This is more of a problem for men who place high values upon being a breadwinner, and when their perceptions of self-worth are based on this. Wilson (1988) argued that many single fathers viewed their work as an important source of self-affirmation and self-fulfilment. For those who are unable to find supportive work and environments that are sensitive to their needs as male single-parents, the likelihood of a negative impact on their perceptions of self-worth is increased.

The performance of both instrumental and expressive roles has adversely affected the financial aspect of life of 59.3 percent of the respondents because they spent almost all their monies so they could not save much. Doherty (1991) observes that paying the bills is a major concern for most single-parents. Segal et al. (1999) indicate that most single-parents may have the most difficulty of "making ends meet", especially those who have few job skills or no work history. They, however, contended that, though male single-parents may usually not suffer poverty to the same extent as do female single-parents. Low and unstable finances can lead to family instability.

About 58 percent of the respondents had their social life adversely affected as they did not get time to enjoy leisure with their peers. This is consistent with Wilson's (1988) assertion that single fathers often talk of feeling socially isolated and cut off from peers. Friendship patterns and leisure activities change for many male single-parents and have isolating consequences. Wilson (1988) argues that a supportive social network can improve single-parents' self-image. When single-parents feel good about themselves, they do better at home and at work, which, in turn, ultimately benefits the children. Rice (1999) observes that dating, friendship and other forms of social contact can help male single-parents meet their personal needs.

The study revealed that 57.3 percent of the respondents had their leisure adversely affected. Many mental health professionals advise single-parents to set aside some personal time for recreation and solitude without children. Most single-parents are constantly tending to the needs of others, putting their personal needs on hold. Such selflessness is admirable but can be unhealthy for single-parents and their children. Nearly everyone needs a break from routine stresses of everyday life. Single-parents, who take "time out" for themselves, even just a few minutes a day, are able to approach their roles and responsibilities with renewed energy (Wilson, 1988).

Different parents at different places provide different things for children. However, all children everywhere need some basic things without which they cannot grow and develop fully Basic needs are fundamental for the survival of family members and these include food, clothing, education, health care, security, shelter, clean and safety environment, love and affection. Society expects all parents to provide these basic needs for their children. The family also provides the physical closeness and enduring interaction needed to develop intimacy and the sense of being emotionally close to people.   About 50.7 percent of the respondents reported that despite their role performance at home they had the ability to provide basic needs. However, 49.3 percent reported of their inability to provide basic needs because they were not in gainful employment.

Multiple role performance had adversely affected the housework of 46 percent of the respondents. These respondents reported that were generally less organized when performing

household activities meant for two parents and therefore, complained about a chaotic lifestyle. The result confirms Stacey's (1990) finding that the commonest practical problems faced by single parents include adjusting to job requirements, balancing time between home and work, finding personal time, helping the children with homework, monitoring each child's activity, preparing meals and scheduling bedtime routines.

Self-improvement includes measures male single-parents take to improve themselves in terms of education and training. The results of the study show that self-improvement had affected 38.7 percent of the respondents' opportunities for education and training. Some of the respondents indicated that they had to postpone further studies because their children were young while others reported that they had divided attention and could not focus on their studies. These results agree with Hanson's (1986) assertion that, sometimes, unplanned babies or single-parenthood may cause their fathers to drop out of school in order to earn a living to support the children. These men may be able to return to their education later, but this usually means a double burden of work and study.

Challenges male single-parents face in combining roles at home
In today's society, single fathers have their share of daily struggles and long-term disadvantages (Navarro, 2008). There are many challenges male single-parents go through while bringing up children to achieve a good quality of life. Some even fail to achieve the type of quality of life they expected. The challenges faced by the respondents in combining the instrumental and expressive roles in the home are presented in Table 4. The results show that the respondents were challenged with varying degrees such as: time constraints (73.7%); fatigue (72.7%); loneliness (68.7%); constant stress (60.7%); late meals for the family (59.3%); financial constraints (54.0%); no leisure (52.0%); lateness to work (51.0%), and neglect of some aspects of housework (49.0%).

Amissah (2014) argues that the double work load makes male single-parents tired most of the time, with some experiencing constant stress. These parents scarcely find time to discuss family matters of mutual concern. The situation affects the relationships with their children since they may not be able to give them enough attention and fatherly love. If the children are of pre-school age, male single-parents are faced with the same dilemma as are female single-parents who must work out of finding adequate child care support and services. Even if the man can afford a house-help and child care, he experiences a profound change in the daily maintenance and care and that of his children. Housework also suffers when there is no house-help. Some family meals may be late or they even have to depend on food prepared outside. Cleaning of the house and its environment may not be properly done. Sasse (1994) notes that, performance of dual roles as a home maker and a worker at the same time can be very stressful because there is great demand on the male single-parent's energy and time. Marital separation often gives rise to feelings of anger, loss, loneliness, failure and lack of self-esteem and self-confidence.

Table 4: Challenges and effects of male-single-parents

j) Challenges	Percent	Effects of Challenges	Percent
1. Time constraints	73.7	1. Indebtedness	32.3
2. Fatigue	72'7	2. Poor work output	27.0
3. Loneliness	68.7	3. Poor nutrition	24.3
4. Constant stress	60.7	4. Anxiety	24.0
5. Late meals for the family	59.3	5. Indiscipline and truancy among children	24.0
6. Financial constraints	54.0	6. Fear	22.3
7. No leisure	52.0	7. Social isolation	21.7
8. Lateness to work	51.0	8. Poor health	20.0
9. Aspects of housework are neglected	49.0	9. Child delinquency	17.3
10. Inability to supervise school work	40.0		
11. Inability to cater for school needs	31.3		
12. Children are often late to school	29.3		
13. Poor childcare and support	29.0		
14. Poor performance at workplace	23.0		

n = 300 respondents
Source: Fieldwork (2014)

The nine negative effects of the challenges faced by the sampled male single-parents were: indebtedness (32.3%); poor work output (27.0%); poor nutrition (24.3%); anxiety (24.0%); indiscipline and truancy among children (24.0%); fear (22.3%); social isolation (21.7%), poor health (20.0%); and child delinquency (17.3%) as shown in Table 4. The results suggest that more than two-thirds of the respondents reported that they did not experienced negative effects of the challenges on themselves and their children. These respondents reported that rather they employed different coping strategies and appropriate managerial strategies in the performance of their roles to avoid the negative effects of the challenges. They might also benefit from support and intervention programmes to make the process of single-parenting easier, less stressful, more efficient, and more effective to attain the well-being of families.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
The study has identified instrumental and expressive roles that are performed in the home. The instrumental roles ranged from breadwinner, household head, leader, disciplinarian to

administrator and social networking while the expressive roles included caring for children, cooking, washing, cleaning the house socialization of children and nurturing. The study has revealed that there was no role differentiation in the male single-parent households as they combined and performed both the instrumental and expressive roles. The major challenges facing by the male single-parents included time constraints, fatigue, loneliness and stress. The performance of both instrumental and expressive roles was reported to have adversely affected the fundamental aspects of the lives of the respondents in terms of parental relationship with children, career development, finances, social life, leisure, and meeting basic needs. However, these challenges generally had negative effects on about one-third of the respondents in areas of anxiety, fear, social isolation, poor health and child delinquency.

It is recommended that the local government, central government and non-governmental organizations should undertake human resource development programmes in the Central Region to equip male single-parents with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for the performance of both expressive and instrumental roles in the home. Family life professionals should also expand their programmes to cater for the interests and struggles of male single-parents.

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Strength-based parenting and life satisfaction in teenagers

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Abstract

Two studies demonstrated the positive associations that authoritative parenting and strength-based parenting have with life satisfaction in adolescents. In Study 1, teenagers' (N = 689; Mage = 15.20, SD = 3.80; 52% male) reports of the degree to which their parents demonstrated authoritative and strength-based parenting (SBP) explained over a third of the variance in life satisfaction scores (Adj. R2 = 35%). SBP explained 19% of variation in life satisfaction scores above and beyond the effects of authoritative parenting. Furthermore, SBP prospectively and significantly predicted 5% of life satisfaction in teenagers 12 months later. Study 2 recruited 127 adolescent-parent dyads (Adolescent Mage 15.30, SD = 2.30; 58% female; Parent Mage = 46.01, SD = 11.02; 67% mothers) and found that parent-reports of the degree to which they are aware of their son/daughter's strengths and the degree to which they encouraged their son/daughter to use their strengths explained additional variance in life satisfaction in adolescents beyond their adolescent son/daughter's own strengths-knowledge and strengths-use. It was concluded that strength-based parenting is a significant contributor to life satisfaction during adolescence.

Keywords: parents, strengths, life satisfaction, adolescence, wellbeing, authoritative parenting

INTRODUCTION

The teenage years (i.e., adolescence, ages 13-19) are known to be a challenging developmental period, as evidenced by declines in life satisfaction during adolescence (Aquilino & Supple, 2001; Cimpian, Arce, Markman, & Dweck, 2007; Masten, 2004; Rindfuss, 1991). Such declines have been observed in youth samples in America (e.g., Suldo and Huebner 2004a), Israel (e.g., Ullman & Tatar 2001), South Korea (e.g., Park, 2005), and China (e.g. Chang et al., 2003). This is concerning given that life satisfaction is an especially important contributor to wellbeing during this life stage (Proctor, Linley, & Maltby, 2009). The current study focuses on the influence of two positive parenting styles—authoritative parenting and strength-based parenting—on life satisfaction during adolescence.

Mental health and life satisfaction during adolescence

Adolescence describes the period of transition from childhood to adulthood and is accompanied by wide ranging physical, biological, neurological, hormonal, social, cognitive, affective and behavioural changes (Lerner & Steinberg, 2009). These changes render adolescence a time of intensified vulnerability for the emergence of psychological disorders. Epidemiological research shows that the onset of Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) commonly begins in adolescence (Schwartz, Sheeber, Dudgeon, & Allen, 2012). The World Health Organization's 'Health for the World's Adolescents' report (2014) lists depression as the number one cause of illness and suicide is the third leading cause of death in teens.

Research has highlighted the important role that life satisfaction, defined as one's global subjective assessment of life quality (Diener & Diener, 1995), plays in youth mental health

(Proctor et al., 2009). Life satisfaction (LS) acts both as a buffer against the development of psychological disorders and as an enabler that promotes positive states of psychological wellbeing during adolescence. Illustrating the buffering effect of life satisfaction, adolescents with high life satisfaction have been shown to demonstrate less externalizing behaviours when confronted with stressful life events compared to their peers with low life satisfaction (Huebner, Funk, & Gilman, 2000; Suldo & Huebner, 2004). Demonstrating the enabling effects of life satisfaction, Suldo and Huebner (2006) reported that students who were high in life satisfaction had significantly higher levels of academic, emotional, and social self-efficacy, as well as higher scores on tests of interpersonal and cognitive functioning, and the highest levels of social support (see Proctor et al., 2009, for a review of the youth life satisfaction literature).

Longitudinal and intervention research shows that life satisfaction is both a casual factor in mental health as well as an outcome of good mental health (Gilman, Easterbrooks& Frey, 2004; Suldo & Huebner 2004). Indeed, in an extensive review, Proctor et. al. (2009) concluded that "The youth life satisfaction literature provides clear evidence to suggest that youth life satisfaction is more than just an outcome of various psychological states (e.g., positive affect, self-esteem), it is also an influential predictor of psychological states and psychosocial systems" (p. 604). Thus, more research is warranted into the factors that can boost life satisfaction during adolescence, particularly given the finding that life satisfaction declines during adolescence.

The importance of parenting on LS during adolescence

Recent neuroscientific developments demonstrate the existence of heightened neuroplasticity during adolescence, which renders the adolescent brain particularly sensitive to environmental influence (Andersen & Teicher, 2008; Bateson et al., 2004). The family environment, especially parental-adolescent relationships, is a potent influence in shaping the psychological health of adolescents during this time (Peterson, Bush, & Supple, 1999; Schwartz, Dudgeon, Sheeber, Yap, Simmons, & Allen, 2012; Steinberg & Morris, 2001). The current study, therefore, focuses on the influence of parenting style upon life satisfaction during adolescence. Schwartz et al. (2012) define parenting style as a "broad approach to parenting, including attitudes and beliefs that shape the emotional climate of the family" (p. 448).

Interest in the salutary adolescent outcomes stemming from positive parenting is growing across fields such as family therapy, developmental psychology and public health (Conoley & Conoley, 2009; Sanders, & Kirby 2014; Sheridan & Burt, 2009; Wilson, Havighurts, & Harley, 2012; 2014). To date, the most widely researched positive parenting style is authoritative parenting, which is characterized by parents who are warm, sensitive, supportive, and emotionally available but who also set clear boundaries and rules for behaviour (Gray & Steinberg, 1999).

Authoritative parenting has been shown to act as both a protective factor that buffers adolescents against mental illness and a promotion factor that builds mental wellbeing. As a protective factor, authoritative parenting is inversely related to depressive symptoms in early adolescence, mid adolescence, and late adolescence (Aquilino & Supple, 2001; Sheeber, Hops, Alpert, Davis, & Andrews, 1997; Schwartz et al., 2014). In Gaté et al.'s (2013) longitudinal prospective study, the research team concluded that "One effective preventive approach to improving mental health may be providing parents with psychoeducation concerning the importance of pleasant and affirming interactions with their children" (Gaté et al., 2013, p. 349).

As a promoting factor, authoritative parenting is associated with greater self-esteem, prosocial behaviour, parent-adolescent communication, adolescent behavioural autonomy, and, most

relevant to the focus of the current research, life satisfaction in teenagers (Chang, McBride-Chang, Stewart, & Au, 2003; Herthington & Martin, 1986; Holmbeck, Paikoff & Brookes-Gun, 1995; Leung, McBride-Chang, & Lai, 2004; Peterson, Kennedy, & Sullivan, 1991; Seibel & Johnson, 2001; Suldo & Huebner, 2004b; Suldo & Huebner, 2006).

In summary, authoritative parenting is linked to positive adjustment, including life satisfaction, in adolescent samples. Given that life satisfaction has been shown to be an important predictor of mental health during adolescence, further research is required to examine the role of authoritative parenting and other forms of positive parenting on life satisfaction. The current study adopts a positive psychology approach to explore whether another form of positive parenting—strength-based parenting—also promotes life satisfaction in teenagers.

What is the potential role of strength-based parenting on life satisfaction of teenagers?
In the foundational paper introducing the field of positive psychology, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) put forward a call "for massive research in human strengths" (p. 8) and also called for a scientific understanding of what builds thriving families. The current paper heeds both of these calls and examines whether strength-based parenting is related to life satisfaction in teenagers, above and beyond the effect of authoritative parenting.

Strength-based parenting is "a style of parenting that seeks to deliberately identify and cultivate positive states, positive processes and positive qualities in one's children" (Waters, 2015, p. 690). Waters (2015) found that the degree to which children (Mage = 11.30) reported receiving strength-based parenting positively predicted the extent to which they used strength-based coping strategies and negatively predicted their stress levels. Following a strength-based parenting intervention with parents of pre-schoolers (Mage = 4.40), Sheely-Moore and Bratton (2010) found that parents reported fewer problematic child behaviors in their children. The Triple P positive parenting program which is underpinned by a strength based approach has been shown to lead to reductions in child problem behaviors (Mage = 5.90) (Nowak & Heinrichs, 2008; Saunders).

The empirical research on strength-based parenting has concentrated on child samples, rather than teenagers, and has focused on how strength-based parenting reduces negative outcomes such as stress and problematic behavior, rather than promoting positive outcomes like life satisfaction. Other strength-based approaches (e.g., school-based strengths interventions) have shown that such connecting teenagers with their strengths leads to increases ib life satisfaction (Proctor, Tsukayama, Wood, Maltby, Eades & Linley, 2011; Suldo, Savage, & Mercer, 2013). However, to date, there has been no research on the effect of strength-based parenting on life satisfaction in teenagers. This study extends the current research by investigating whether strength-based parenting is associated with a positive outcome—life satisfaction—in an adolescent sample.

Across two studies, thisresearch paper adopts the two aspects of strengths outlined by Govindji and Linley (2007)—strengths knowledge and strengths use—to test the relationship between strength-based parenting and life satisfaction in teenagers. Strength knowledge is defined as a person's "awareness and recognition of their strengths" (Govindji & Linley, 2007, p. 146), whereas strengths use is defined as the extent to which individuals "use their strengths in a variety of settings (p. 147).

STUDY 1

Study one aimed to test whether: H1) strength-based parenting is associated with life satisfaction and H2) whether strength-based parenting explains additional variance in life satisfaction beyond the effects of authoritative parenting.

These hypotheses were formed on the rationale that strength-based parenting supports and extends the exploratory behaviour that is gained through authoritative parenting. Authoritative parenting creates safe attachment and fulfils the child's fundamental belongingness need (Bowlby, 1969; Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This need satisfaction then stimulates exploratory behaviour that allows children and teenagers to learn about themselves and the world, slowly becoming more autonomous and independent (Bowlby, 1969). It has been argued that strength-based parenting builds on the effects of authoritative parenting by encouraging young people to explore the world whilst deploying their strengths (Waters, 2015). When an adolescent is motivated to explore new situations and new relationships through their strengths, they interact with their environments using their positive traits and natural capacities (Clifton & Anderson, 2002), thus potentially leading to higher life satisfaction.

METHOD

Participants and procedure. Six hundred and eighty nine teenagers (Years 7-12; Mage = 15.20, SD = 3.20; 52% male and 48% female) from a public high school completed baseline measures (T1) of their life satisfaction and the degree to which their parents provided authoritative parenting and strength-based parenting. To test whether authoritative parenting and strength-based parenting longitudinally predicted life satisfaction, high school students reported their life satisfaction again after twelve months (T2). At T2, the sample size was reduced to 581 because final year students from the previous year had graduated.

MEASURES

Life satisfaction. Adolescents completed the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) to measure their global assessment of satisfaction with life. This scale consist of 5 items (α = .90) assessed on a 5 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), with higher scores reflecting higher life satisfaction (e.g., "I am satisfied with my life"; "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.").

Authoritative parenting. Teenagers completed the authoritative parenting sub-scale of Jackson, Henriksen and Foshee's (1998) Authoritative Parenting Index (API), which measures children's perceptions of parenting behaviors (parental warmth, acceptance, involvement, and intrusiveness [reverse-scored]). The scale consists of 9 items (α = .93) rated on a 5 point Liker scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Example items include "My parents make me feel better when I am upset" and "My parents are too busy to talk to me' (reverse-scored). Higher scores reflecting higher perceptions of authoritative parenting behaviours.

Strength-based parenting. Teenagers completed modified versions of Govindji and Linley's (2007) Strengths Knowledge Scale (SKS) and Strengths Use Scale (SUS). These scales define strengths as "the things you are able to do well or do best" (Govindji & Linley, 2007, p. 146). The original SKS assesses people's awareness and recognition of their strengths (8 items; e.g., "I know my strengths well"; "I have to think hard about what my strengths are" [reverse-scored]), whereas the original SUS assesses the extent to which individuals use their strengths (14 items; e.g., "I am regularly able to do what I do best"; "I use my strengths everyday").
In the current study, the items were modified, following Waters (2015), to measure teenager's perceptions of parenting behaviors (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). For example, the

SKS item "I am aware of my strengths" was adjusted to "My parents are aware of my strengths" and the SUS item "I am able to use my strengths in lots of different situations" was altered to "My parents encourage me to use my strengths in lots of different situations." Both modified scales showed high internal consistency (αSKS = .87; αSUS = .94). .

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Preliminary Analyses

Table 1 presents the descriptive and correlational data for the dependent (i.e., life satisfaction) and three independent variables of authoritative parenting, strength-based parenting (knowledge), and strength-based parenting (use). Correlational analysis revealed moderate sized positive associations between teenager's life satisfaction and their assessment of their parents' authoritative parenting (r = .41, p < .001), parents' knowledge of their strengths (r = .45, p <.001), and parents' encouragement to use their strengths (r = .56, p < .001). Parents strengths knowledge was moderately correlated with parents encouragement of strengths use (r = .69, p < .001). Authoritative parenting was moderately correlated with strength-based parenting (knowledge; r = .43, p < .001) and strength-based parenting (use; r = .43, p < .001). Interestingly, whereas mean adolescent-ratings of their parents' use of authoritative approaches were high at 34.11 out of 45 (76%), ratings for strength-based parenting were much lower at 20.80 out of 40 (52%) and 35.71 out of 70 (51%).

Table 1: Intercorrelations between Authoritative Parenting, Strength-based Parenting (Knowledge), Strength-based Parenting (Use) and Life Satisfaction

	M	SD	Scale range	1	2	3	4
1. Life satisfaction	18.52	3.81	5-25	1.00			
2. Authoritative Parenting	34.11	6.04	9-45	.41**	1.00		
3. Strength-based parenting (knowledge)	20.80	4.98	8-40	.45**	.48**	1.00	
4. Strength-based parenting (use)	35.71	9.22	14-70	.56**	.43**	.54**	1.00

N = 662; * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Prior to conducting regression analyses, preliminary analyses revealed that the collinearity statistics (e.g. Tolerance and VIF) were within acceptable limits, and residual and scatter plots indicated no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity for all analyses (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 2009). Thus, assumptions for hierarchical multiple regression were deemed to be satisfied.

Strength-based Parenting Predicts Unique Variance in Teenage Life Satisfaction

A two-step hierarchical multiple regression was used to investigate hypothesis 1. Teenagers' ratings of their parents' levels of authoritative parenting were entered at Step 1. Step 2 entered teenagers' rating of the degree to which their parents had knowledge of their strengths and the degree to which their parents encouraged them to use their strengths.

At step one, authoritative parenting significantly and positively predicted teenager's life satisfaction, $F(1, 623) = 116.48$, $p < .001$, accounting for 17% of the variance. At Step 2, adding

the two strength-based parenting variables as simultaneous predictors more than doubled the explained variance (adjusted R2) to 36%, F (2,621) = 93.22, p < .001. Furthermore, the standardised beta weights reveal that adolescent-reports of the extent to which parents encouraged them to use their strengths (β = .41) substantially outpredicted authoritative parenting (β = .16) and the knowledge aspect of strength-based parenting (β = .14). Thus, strength-based parenting explained significant variance in life satisfaction beyond the positive effects of authoritative parenting, and perceptions of being encouraged to use one's strengths appear to be more influential than reports of whether parents know one's strengths.

Table 2: Results for Hierarchical Multiple regression Analysis Predicting Teenager Life Satisfaction

Variable	β	T	Sr^2	R	R^2	Adj. R^2
Step 1				.41	.17	.17
Authoritative parenting	.41	11.25***	.17			
Step 2				.60	.36	.36
Authoritative parenting	.16	4.33***	.03			
Strength-based parenting (knowledge)	.14	3.55***	.02			
Strength-based parenting (use)	.41	10.32***	.14			

N = 624 *** *p* < .001.

Strength-based Parenting Predicts Life Satisfaction 12 Months Later
A 3-step hierarchical multiple regression tested the longitudinal effects of strength-based parenting. T1 life satisfaction was entered at Step 1 in order to hold it constant in assessing the effect of T1 parenting on T2 life satisfaction. Authoritative parenting was entered at Step 2 and the two strength-based parenting variables (knowledge and use) were entered at Step 3.

Results showed that T1 life satisfaction significantly predicted increased life satisfaction at T2, accounting for 18% of the variance in T2 life satisfaction, F(1,519) = 111.36, p <.001. When teenager's assessment of the degree of authoritative parenting they received at T1 was added at Step 2, explained variance for T2 life satisfaction increased to 25%, F(1,518) = 49.91, p <.001. When the degree to which teenager's rated their parents strengths knowledge and strengths use at time 1 was added, the explained variance increased to 30%, F(2,516) = 21.15, p <.001. In sum, all three steps explained unique significant variance. Furthermore, with regard to the focus of the current study, teenagers' reports of the degree to which they received strength based parenting at time one significantly predicted their life satisfaction twelve months later and explained 5% unique variance.

DISCUSSION
Study 1 investigated the degree to which authoritative parenting and strength-based parenting were associated with life satisfaction in teenagers and whether strength-based parenting explains unique variance beyond the effects of authoritative parenting.
The results showed, firstly, that there was a significant positive relationship between authoritative parenting and life satisfaction. In fact, 17% of life satisfaction in teenagers came from the degree to which they reported that their parents were authoritative. This finding is

consistent with past research that shows authoritative parenting is related to life satisfaction in teenagers (Suldo & Huebner, 2004; 2006), highlighting the importance of positive parenting. Even in a teenage sample, at a life stage where we think they are moving away from needing their parents (Calkins & Bell, 1999; Yap, Allen & Ladouceur, 2008; Steinberg, 2014), these teenagers reported that a significant portion of the satisfaction they received in their life came from whether or not their parents were warm, sensitive, supportive, and emotionally available.

When strength-based parenting was added to the regression equation, explained variance doubled from 17% to 36%. The importance of strength based parenting was shown again at the one year re-test and where strength-based parenting at T1 accounted for 5% of life satisfaction a year later.

The findings suggest that teenagers tend to report higher levels of life satisfaction when their parents are warm, sensitive, supportive (authoritative parenting) and when their parents also seek to identify and cultivate their strengths (strength-based parenting). However, whereas teenagers, on average, provided relatively high ratings of their parents' use of authoritative approaches, they reported that their parents only provided average levels of strength-based parenting. These results suggest that although parents are likely to understand the importance of providing love and emotional support (Eshel, Daelmans, de Mello, & Martines, 2006), they may not be as aware of the importance of deliberately and systematically identifying and building strengths in their children. As such, research exploring the antecedents and outcomes of strength-based parenting is worthy of additional attention.

The study had a large sample size and was longitudinal in nature. Both of these design elements lend confidence to the reliability of the findings and the potentially causal role of strength-based parenting. However, a limitation of the study is that strength-based parenting was assessed using the teenager reports about their parents rather than parents' reports. It may be that adolescents either under- or over-estimated the degree of strength-based parenting they were actually receiving. The second study of this paper addresses this limitation by using a multi-source design to further explore the effects of parent-rated strength-based parenting on life satisfaction in teenagers.

STUDY 2

Study 2 investigated the extent to which parent-rated strength-based parenting (knowledge and use) explains unique significant variance in adolescent life satisfaction beyond the adolescent's own strength knowledge and strength use.

To date, strength research with youth samples has predominantly relied on self-report and shows that a teenager's own rating of their strengths is related to school engagement, self-esteem, life satisfaction, positive affect, negative affect, academic efficacy, self-empowerment, extrinsic motivation, hope, and life satisfaction (Austin, 2005; Froh, Sefick & Emmons, 2008; Kern, Waters, Adler & White, 2015; Madden, Green & Grant, 2011; Marques, Lopez & Pais-Ribeiro, 2011; Proctor et al., 2011).

These self-report findings are useful but can suffer from common source bias and more rigorous designs also include ratings of the young person's strengths by significant others. For example, Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich and Linkins (2009) took teenager self-reports and also asked teachers and parents to rate their students/child's strengths before and after a positive psychology intervention. In the Seligman et al. (2009) study, teachers reports were

related to the degree to which students displayed strengths of curiosity, love of learning, empathy, cooperation, and creativity. The same pattern occurred for parents reports.

In another strengths study that went beyond youth self-report, Spreitzer, Stephens and Sweetman (2009) studied the effects of the reflected best-self exercise on adolescent leaders who were given strength-based feedback from professional and personal sources. Feedback from others was associated with positive emotions, sense of agency, and relational resources in the adolescents. This was the case for feedback sourced from adults with whom the teenager had a professional relationship (e.g., teachers, coworkers, coaches) and was found to be even stronger when the feedback was sourced from adults with whom the teenager had a personal relationship (e.g., parent, family member, friend). Thus, the strengths feedback provided to a teenager by significant adults in his/her life is an important factor in wellbeing.

The current study follows Seligman et al. (2009) and Spreitzer et al.'s (2014) lead by examining the effect of a parent's strengths assessment on the life satisfaction of a teenager. However, in Seligman et al. and Spreitzer et al., the effect of parent ratings on youth wellbeing outcomes was analysed separately from the effects of the teenager's own rating of their strengths which means that, while we know that the strengths ratings of a parent is associated with the teenager's wellbeing, we do not know whether it has more or less of an effect that the teenager's own ratings. The current addresses this gap by examining both the teenager's strengths ratings and the parent's strengths rating in the same analysis in order to compare their relative effects on the life satisfaction of a teenager.

In Study 1, teenagers' ratings of the degree to which their parents provide strength-based parenting significantly predicted levels of life satisfaction. Building on this finding, Study 2, compares the predictive ability of teenager's perceptions and parent ratings of the degree to which parents are aware of and encourage their children to use their strengths and how this relates to life satisfaction in teenagers.

METHOD

Participants and procedure. One hundred and twenty seven teenagers and their parents attended a 2-hour evening workshop run by the researcher who is a qualified psychologist. The workshop focused on using positive psychology techniques to build positive parent-teenager relationships. The invitation to the workshop suggested that the best configuration would be one parent and one teenager (rather than both parents or multiple offspring) because the techniques run in the workshop were based on pairwork. Parents (67% mothers, 33% fathers) ranged in age from 35 to 58 (Mage = 46.01, SD = 11.02). Teenagers (58% daughters, 42% sons) ranged in age from 13-19 years (Mage = 15.30, SD = 2.30).

At the start of the workshop all participants completed a brief battery of scales that assessed strengths knowledge, strengths use, and life satisfaction. Responses to these surveys were used as a starting point of discussion between the parent and teenager before the psychologist introduced participants to the workshop exercises based upon the Values in Action Framework (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) such as a strength card sorting exercise, strength analysis of the parent-teenager relationship, strength spotting, and strength family tree exercise. The surveys were collected at the end of the workshop and formed the data for this study.

MEASURES

Life satisfaction. As in Study 1, teenagers rated their life satisfaction using the SWLS (Diener, et al., 1985; α = 81.

Strengths knowledge and use. Teenagers completed the original versions (i.e., using the self as the referent point) of Govindji and Linley's (2007) Strengths Knowledge Scale (SKS; α = .94) and Strengths Use Scale (SUS; α = .89), described in Study 1.

Strength-based parenting. Parents rated the degree to which they felt they knew their son/daughter's strengths, using an adapted version of the SKS (e.g., "I am aware of my son/daughter's strengths"). Parents also rated the degree to which they encouraged their son/daughter to use strengths, using an adapted version of the SUS (e.g., "I encourage my son or daughter to use their strengths in lots of different situations."). Internal consistencies of these modified scales were acceptable to good (αSKS = .81; αSUS = .72).

RESULTS

As shown in Table 3, teenager life satisfaction was positively and significantly correlated with all four independent variables: teenager-rated strength knowledge (r = .32), teenager-rated strengths use (r = .36), parent-rated knowledge of their teenage son or daughter's strengths (r = .23), and parent-ratings of the extent to which they encourage their teenage son or daughters to use their strengths (r = .43).The two strongest correlations with life satisfaction were with strength-based parenting (use) and and teenagers' strengths use, followed by teenager's strengths knowledge and strength-based parenting (knowledge).

Teenager strengths knowledge was correlated with the knowledge (r = .22) and use (r = .38) aspects of strength-based parenting. Teenager strengths use was also correlated with the knowledge (r = .28) and use (r = .30) aspects of strength-based parenting. Teenage life satisfaction was more highly correlated with the strengths use aspect than the strengths knowledge, as rated by both teenagers and parents.

Table 3: Intercorrelations between Teenager Strengths Knowledge, Teenager Strength Use, Parents Knowledge of teenagers' Strengths, Parents encouragement of teenagers' Strengths Use and Teenager Life Satisfaction

	Mean	SD	Scale range	1	2	3	4	5
1. Life satisfaction	17.36	3.28	5-25	1.00				
2. Strengths knowledge (teenagers)	27.06	6.34	9-45	.32**	1.00			
3. Strength use (teenagers)	50.95	12.25	14-70	.36**	.65**	1.00		
4. Parents knowledge of their son/daughters strengths	23.34	13.56	8-40	.23*	.22*	.28**	1.00	
5. Parents encouragement of their son/daughters to use their strengths	27.96	11.32	14-70	.43**	.38**	.30**	.31**	1.00

N = 127; * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

A three-step hierarchical multiple regression examined the degree to which the four independent variables predicted life satisfaction in teenagers. The sample size of 127 was deemed to be adequate given the number of independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell,

2014). The collinearity statistics (e.g., Tolerance and VIF) were within acceptable limits (Coakes, 2005). Residual and scatter plots indicated no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (Hair et al., 2009).

Age and gender of teenagers and parents was entered at Step 1. Teenager strengths knowledge and use were entered at Step 2. Finally, Step 3 entered the two parent-rated strength-based parenting variables (knowledge and use).

Table 4: Results for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Teenager Life Satisfaction

Variable	β	t	Sr^2	Adj. R^2
Step 1				.08
Teenager age	.27	2.81	.06	
Parent age	-.05	-.56	.00	
Teenager gender	.14	1.53	.02	
Parent gender	-.15	-1.65	.02	
Step 2				.20
Teenager strengths knowledge	.10	.95	.11	
Teenager strengths use	.30	2.71	.06	
Step 3				.27
Strength-based parenting (knowledge)	.08	.99	.01	
Strength-based parenting (use)	.28	3.09	.08	

The demographic variables of teenager and parent age and gender accounted for a significant 7% of the variance in teenager life satisfaction: $F(4,120) = 3.50$, $p < .01$. Specifically, older and male teenagers reported higher life satisfaction. Parent gender and age did not significantly predict teenager life satisfaction.

At Step 2, entering teenager strengths knowledge and strengths use in the regression equation increased the proportion of variance in life satisfaction explained to an adjusted R2 of .20, $F(6,118) = 6.22$, $p < .001$. In other words, teenager's strengths knowledge and use accounted for an additional 13% of life satisfaction above and beyond the effects of age and gender. Of the two strengths variables, only strengths use was a significant positive predictor of life satisfaction. At Step 3, when the two strength-based parenting variables were included, the proportion of explained variance increased by a further 7%, R2 = .27, $F(8,116) = 6.72$, $p < .001$). Of these parenting variables, only encouraged use was a significant positive predictor of life satisfaction.

DISCUSSION

The current results are consistent with past findings that have demonstrated positive associations between self-assessments of strengths and life satisfaction in teenagers (Froh et al., 2008; Marques et al., 2011; Proctor et al., 2011). The finding that strengths use has a stronger relationships with life satisfaction than strengths knowledge is also consistent with past research by Govindji and Linley (2007) who suggest that "it is more important to use your strengths rather than simply to know what they are" (p. 150).

The current study extended previous research by including parents-reports of the degree to which they had knowledge of their son/daughters strengths and the degree to which they encouraged their son/daughter to use their strengths. This type of third party observation overcomes common source bias and allows the relationship between teenager's strengths knowledge and use with their parent's knowledge and encouraged use to be compared vis-à-vis their relative predictive effects on life satisfaction

The strengths knowledge and use of teenagers was significantly correlated with their parents ratings and might suggest that when parents adopt a strength-based approach this spills over to their son and daughter allowing them to more readily see and use their own strengths. In this way strength-based parenting may "activate" a teenager's strengths because it provides a form of relational scaffolding that allows a son or daughter to be more aware of, and make more use, of their strengths. In other words parents who identify and cultivate strengths allow their teenager's to optimize their own strengths, thus enhancing life satisfaction.

In a related finding, Lavy, Littman-Ovadia and Bareli (2014) found that university students who participated in a relationship-based intervention used more of their strengths across 14 days than students in the placebo and control groups. They found that relationships help young people to know and use their strengths. Thus, relationship mechanisms, such as strength-based parenting, may increase strengths knowledge and use in teenagers. This finding adds to that of Study 1 which suggested that encouraging parents to take a strength-based approach is an important pathway for enhancing life satisfaction in teenagers.

However, as with the finding in Study 1 that teenagers rated their parents as providing only moderate levels of strengths knowledge and strengths use, the parents in Study 2 also rated themselves at moderate levels. This suggests that an important future research direction is to find ways to increase strength-based parenting approaches.

The current study overcame the limitation of self-report in Study 1 by using a dyadic design. Other strengths of this study include the use of valid, psychometrically sound surveys and appropriate multivariate statistical testing. However, the study is not without its limitations and given the cross sectional nature of this study, no firm causal conclusions can be drawn. For example, it may be that teenagers who have higher strengths knowledge and use cause parents to more readily see and encourage use of their strengths, rather than the other way around. Longitudinal and intervention research designs are needed to ascertain whether there is a causal connection between strength-based parenting and teenager strengths knowledge and use. This study would have benefited from also measuring A further authoritative parenting in order to see what the unique effect of SBP is.

In addition, the study may have suffered from sample bias given that there is likely to be a self-selection effect of the types of parents and teenagers who sign up for a positive psychology

workshop. For example, it may be that the workshop attracted teenagers and parents who already had a good relationship and were motivated to build further positive aspects. Alternatively, the workshop may have attracted teenage-parents pairs who were struggling in their relationship and looking for some positive solutions. If either of these options is the case then this limits the generalizability to parents and teenagers whose relationships are not at these two extremes. The sample also had a higher proportion of female parents (67%) and female teenagers (58%) which may limit the generalizability to father and sons. Future strength-based parenting research could explore if there are differences between mothers and fathers and also for sons and daughters.

Finally, the survey results may have suffered from demand characteristics given that parents and teenagers were asked to complete the survey at the start of the workshop and were told that their answers would be explored during the workshop. The sample could have been motivated to over-rate themselves on strengths variables given that it was a positive psychology workshop. Moreover, parents may have felt the need to over-rate their scores seeing as they were going to be showing them to their son/daughter. However, the moderate mean scores provided by parents on the strengths knowledge and strengths use scales seems to indicate that the parents did not feel pressure to rate themselves overly-highly.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Life satisfaction is an important psychological outcome to maintain during the teenage years given its link to other mental health indicators (e.g., emotional and social self-efficacy, interpersonal and cognitive functioning). Yet research shows that it declines during adolescence Aquilino & Supple, 2001; Cimpian, et al., 2007; Masten, 2004; Rindfuss, 1991). The two studies in this paper investigate whether positive parenting (authoritative and strength based) promotes life satisfaction in adolescence. The results of both studies suggest that there is an association between parents taking a strength-based approach and enhanced life satisfaction in teenagers

In speculating why strength based parenting enhances life satisfaction, one mechanism may be social verification. When a parent sees and labels the teenager's strengths, it corroborates and verifies the teenager's own strength knowledge, thus, enhancing their life satisfaction. Strength-based parenting, beyond simple confirming the teen's own view of their strengths, may actually help to show the teen some new strengths they did not know they had, thus overcoming "strengths blindness". Evidence in adult samples shows that about 2/3rds of people cannot identify their own strengths (Hill, 2001). To date there has been no equivalent data collected for adolescent samples, however, it is reasonable to assume that similar levels of strengths blindness would be prevalent in adolescent samples, if not even higher levels given that adolescence is a time where identity is shifting and unstable (Steinberg, 2014).

Biswas-Diener and his colleagues suggested that when people value a behavior they see the behaviour as being expected rather than extraordinary, or a strength. This leads to a "psychological blind spot" about strengths (Biswas-Diener, Kashdan, & Minhas, 2011). In an adult sample, Biswas-Diener (2012) discovered the phenomenon of strengths blindness in courageous individuals who viewed their courageous behaviour as ordinary and therefore did not classify it as a strength. Teenagers may also suffer from strengths blindness but if a parent provides them with information about their strengths, this could help to overcome their potential strengths blindness and boost life satisfaction.

Drigotas, Rusbult, Wieselquist, and Whitton's (1999) notion of the Michelangelo effect can also be used to explain why strength based parenting boost life satisfaction in teenagers. Drigotas et

al. (1999) suggest that positive opinions of romantic partners motivates individuals to pursue their best/ideal-self. Partner affirmation of the individual's "ideal self" motivates the individual to acquire the skills, traits, and resources that bring them closer to their ideal self (Rusbult, Kumashiro, Kubacka, & Finkel, 2009). The same phenomenon might occur between parents and their children. When parents look upon their children with a positive viewpoint, it might motivate the adolescent to live up to their expectations and deploy their strengths to be the best they can be.

CONCLUSION

Strength based parenting connects teens to their pre-existing strengths, capacities and talents and encourages teens to use their strengths. In the current study, this was found to be a significant predictor of life satisfaction, beyond the effects of authoritative parenting and a teenager's own ratings of their knowledge and use of strengths. Despite the increased salience of peer relationships during adolescence, parents continue to have a significant influence on wellbeing during this phase of life (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). Strength-based parenting is an exciting avenue of research in the field of positive psychology for how parents can promote positive outcomes for their teenage sons and daughters.

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Trade Liberalisation and Pitfalls to Nigeria's Effective Participation in Global Trade

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Abstract

Globalisation is no longer new on the block. However, scholars are still interested in studying the effects of its aftershocks in the areas of trade, politics and socio-cultural remits in international relations. Conceived and promoted by neo-liberal think-tanks and institutions as the magic wand to socio-economic problems across the globe irrespective of the peculiar challenges of less developed countries compared to the much developed ones, it has turn out to be the exact opposite of the globalization philosophy. This paper examines the globalization philosophy as is affects Nigeria in its bid to actively participates in the global trade as one of the core tenents of a globalised space. It argued that the globalised space is imbued with a lot of asymmetries to the disadvantage of Nigeria to equitably participate in global trade. At best, the paper concludes that under the present circumstances, Nigeria will remain a dependent partner in the globalised equation, unless some remedial measures are taken to harness opportunities available to enhance her marginal participation in the globalised market space.

Key words: trade, liberalisation, economy, constraints

INTRODUCTION

The emergent asymmetries in the global trade system are regarded as some of the greatest challenges to world's economic development, especially in the era of globalisation. The emergent international trade regime, anchored on the concept of globalisation, assumed wide spread entrenchment in the early 1990s. In simple terms, globalisation refers to a process of interaction and integration among people, companies, and governments of different nations, a process driven by international trade and investment and aided by information technology (Hughes, 2009:10). It has impacted on countries and affects socio-economic, political, cultural, technological advancement and other aspects of human endeavour. This influence is glaringly manifested, especially in the economic sphere with trade as its major defining feature. This emergent global economic structure rests on a tripod made up by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). These powerful inteernational organisations are supposedly created to promote fair economic policies that will aid funding and even development in countries, particularly, the developing countries. The developed world and economies in the Western hemisphere These institutions, together with the advanced economies of the west, promoted the ideals of neo-liberalism as a way to reform the economies of the developing countries. Indeed, as pre condition for various forms of adjustment facilities to crisis ravaged economies of Third World countries these predominantly western interest, prescribe the reform of economies of third world countries to conform to the dictates of

Liberalisation, Privatisation and Deregulation. It is in line with this that national, regional and international trade regimes and frameworks have been undergoing varying extents of reform. By this, also, trade is expected to be liberalised to make for the free movement of capital, goods and persons.

Chang (2008) submits that neo-liberals believe that unlimited competition in the free market was the best way to organize an economy because it forces every nation to perform with maximum efficiency in a competitive trade environment. He further submits that under this arrangement, government intervention in trade matters is discouraged and that government intervention is judged to be harmful because of the fact that it reduces competitive pressure by restricting the entry of potential competitors, whether through import control or the creation of monopolies.

There is a theoretical assumption that trade liberalisation will contribute to economic growth and development, and more specifically, it is expected to reduce poverty and improve food availability for local consumption, and raw materials for export. Most economically dependent countries that took western donor institution's advice to liberalise completely did so without restrictions... , hence a large member of developing countries, especially African countries, instituted various forms of pro Bank-Fund trade liberalisation policies (Sharma, 2006).

Nigeria has been in global trade, for all the known reasons. Without a doubt, as most other developing countries, its trade pattern is extroverted, specifically to Euro-American markets. With over two decades since the Uruguay Rounds transformed into the WTO, many African countries, including Nigeria, have been crying out aginst what they call unfair trade. Indeed Nigeria's experience with trade liberalisation challenges the general notion of the promises of international trade ala WTO. While trade liberalisation stands opposed to protectionism and other trade distorting practices, the trade policies of advanced western countries have been shrouded in protectionism, subsidization, etc, etc, thereby impacting negatively on the trade of Nigeria and other African countries.

This paper attempts an empirical analysis of the impact of contemporary global trade regime on Nigeria and its economy, particularly its trade relations with the rest of the world. It relied on both primary and secondary data. This engagement is necessitated by the, often hasty and skewed analysis of the patterns of the impacts of the ensuing trade regime on Africa countries.

The Context of contemporary global trade
The current global trade regime, as organized under the auspices of WTO is, the successor of the erstwhile General Agreement on Trade and Tariff (GATT).The 1947 GATT committed industrialized nations to promote free trade by means of multilateral bargaining (Robertson, 2004: 174). The contemporary trade regime is guided by WTO, which unlike its predecessor, provides a single institutional framework encompassing GATT and all the results of the Uruguay Round. This was inevitable especially, when situated within the broad context of the ongoing globalisation of the ideals of neo-liberalism, the current phase of which began at the end of the Cold War in the 1990s. Globalisation is an ideological notion that seeks to reform, restructure, reposition and remake economic and political processes in line with liberal perception of social reality.

Although not a new phenomenon, it has become the defining process of contemporary world as part of the fallout from the industrial revolution of Europe. The industrial revolution changed the world and triggered a process of interdependence, so too, is the present revolution in

information technology changing the world with far reaching implications (Kwanashie: 2001; 27). Globalisation was first noticed through trade relations among countries and intensified through the role of multinational trading organisations that operate across the globe. The transformation of the Nigerian economy through the policies of deregulation, privatization and liberalization led to downsizing of trade in the economy,

Globalisation reflects the greater openness of national and international economies to greater flows of trade, finance, capital, high technology, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and market integration. Dunmoye, (2007) submits that it encompasses both a description and a prescription. The description lies in the widening of international flows of trade, finance and information in a single integrated global market, while the prescription lies in liberalising national and global markets in the belief that free flow of trade finance and information will produce the best outcome for both growth and human welfare. And the world's economic system becomes more interdependent and people and ideas move around the world in greater numbers, propelled by what geographers term 'space adjusting technologies' (Brunn and Leibach, 1991)

The call for a more open market was intensified on the assumption that economies must grow if poor people are to reap the benefits of globalisation. A standard pattern and idea is expected from all countries, especially the developing countries as they are expected to adopt policies that are consistent with global agenda, which has been impossible for them to resist because of their dependent nature. A large section of global population especially those in the developing world have been excluded from the benefit of globalisation and this has been identified as a major problem of the process. In these countries, the state is weak; the role of the state has been eroded to the point where it can no longer extend the provision of basic public goods such as welfare and stability because of its dependent nature.

Trade Liberalisation
Trade liberalisation is a process of becoming open to international trade through a systematic reduction and elimination of tariff and other barriers between trading partners. However there is no consensus as there are severally diverse opinions on what the term really means and how it could be achieved. The concept has been subjected to a lot of scholarly and political debate as scholars have examined it from the effect it has had on their countries/continent or generally on world economic growth (Bzuneh and Ylheyi. 2014). For the industrialised countries the concept has been a tool in their economic growth, while those of the developing countries especially Africa have expressed that the agreements are not in their best interest.

Historical antecedent of free trade dates back to economic thoughts of the mercantilist era when trade was advanced as a critical factor in the growth of nations. The concept emerged from the French Phrase 'Laissez faire' meaning "allow to do" and was made popular by a group of French writers called physiocrats between the 1750s and 1780s, but it was a group of thinkers known as the British classical school led by Scottish economists Adam Smith, David Ricardo, among others, that gave trade liberalisation its fullest explanation and defence between the 1770s and the 1840s. (Hunter 2001:32). The Laissez Faire policy stated that government generally should not interfere with decisions made in an open competitive market. These decisions included setting prices and wages and making other choices that affected the sale of goods and services. He explained that the physiocrats who were the proponents of laissez faire believed that workers are most productive when people can pursue their private economic interest in relative freedom.

The theoretical assumption of trade in the era of Globalisation and liberalization policy is that, the trade policy forces nations to focus on those products for which theyenjoy comparative advantage, assuming further that trade would result to increased export earnings, which would then be used to import the needs of the country. The doctrine allows the state only those activities which the individual cannot perform like the provision of public goods and services such as health, education, defence, environmental issues, etc, etc. The neo-liberal position advocates the dominance of private enterprise in economic dynamics at all levels.

On the contrary, some of the world's best firms are owned and run by the state (Chang, 2008:21) and they are providing these services profitably. Economic Realities have gone beyond comparative advantage, what matters is competitive advantage. States are central in enhancing the competitive advantage of nations and some of its operatives and only the theory of comparative advantage is not sufficient to explore and explain the reality of contemporary trade.

Most of the provisions of WTO agreement are provisions that are further deepening the same framework that guided trade for a long time such that Nigeria and other developing countries remain largely primary producing countries. And worse still the WTO agreement on intellectual property   Trade Related Intellectual Property Right (TRIPS), by which rights are given to persons over the creation of their mind (www.wto.org, 2015) the person is given an exclusive right over the use of that creation for a certain period of time , basically it is to stimulate innovation. With the dependent nature of the developing countries, and considering the fact that a lot of the innovations are from the developed world, what are the chances of the developing countries registering innovation that would fundamentally alter their trade specialization. The pattern of trade of the developed world, determine the price of raw products as well as those of processed or finished products.

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)
With ICTs, the information structure for the availability and use of information in the area of trade, are scantily available in African countries and the spread and development of ICTs and related technologies is poor. Those who have it manipulate it to determine the supply, demand and consequently prices of products. Nigeria and other developing countries are relatively at a disadvantage which makes trade not so fair to them. Again this brings back-in the issue of the TRIPs, and how they restrict the even spread of relevant technologies to different actors in the trade community. Evidently, the levels of spread and deepening of ICTs between the developed and developing world is such that developing countries lag behind, especially in leveraging such technologies in trade and trade related matters.

Nigeria's Domestic Economic Structure
There is an emerging issue of weather Nigeria can afford to meet the requirements of the global market, especially in terms of complete liberalisation of the economy, given the state of the economy and the structure of its economic and production output. Overtime, Nigeria has adopted various development strategies which have conditioned changes in the country. One example of this was from the early 1960's to mid 1980's when the import substitution industrialization strategy was implemented. This was designed to make the country inward looking. In this policy, there were considerable restrictions and regulations in the trade sector, import duties and tariffs were raised (as much as 70 percent in 1975) to discourage importation. There were quantitative restrictions on some food and other imports through import licensing (Adubi, 1999:105). It must be noted that the tariff policy measures were aimed at raising revenue for government to improve the balance of payment problems and

protect domestic industries. This was however, not effective as it rather encouraged smuggling of finished products from abroad due to the lack of supporting complimentary production of Nigeria' real sector to match demand from an increasing population and domestic market.

More so, the price and exchange control enforced under this strategy stifled non-oil exports, an area of particular interest for Nigeria. This drastically reduced the opportunity for Nigeria to participate in and benefit from foreign trade expansion. The failure of this economic strategy led to a reconsideration of its effectiveness as a strategy to transform the economy and promote development. It was against this background and also of the worsening economic and fiscal crises of the Nigerian state that Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was introduced in 1986. The SAP strategy recognized openness as an effective growth strategy for Nigeria. The SAP policy package included abolition of import licensing system, reduction of import restriction, modification of advanced payment for import duties, overhauling of customs and excise duty schedules, establishment of a Tariff Review Board, allowance of domiciliary accounts operation, abolition of export prohibition, dissolution of commodity boards and establishment of export development fund, export credit guarantee scheme and insurance scheme and export promotion zones (Adubi, 1999:107). Under SAP, emphasis was on diversification of the productive and export base of the economy from oil to non-oil products. In this regard, incentives were put in place to encourage non-oil export production especially in the manufacturing sector. Various agencies were set up to promote export and attract investors. However, the objectives of SAP were not achieved because, economic diversification was not achieved and the structure of productive output remained the same with oil maintaining its dominant export position. Instead, Nigeria went on to promote trade and development through her signatory and membership of various bilateral, regional and multilateral trade agreements like ECOWAS, ACP/EU, WTO, etc, etc.

The WTO which is the dominant multilateral trade structure in the international system requires major changes and restructuring in line with globalisation. Nigeria accessioned the policy in 1997. This is the force behind reforms in Nigeria's trading endeavours. The Nigerian economy had to be restructured as part of and in conformity with the growing global economy. With the ushering in of the 1999 democratic dispensation, government became eager to show some dividends of democracy by reformation which raises the problem of how to conceptualize Nigeria's trade development strategies.

Under the Obasanjo administration (1999-2007) both internal and external pressures were on Nigeria to reposition the economy to enable it achieve the basic aspirations of the people and that of the global system. Standard behavioral patterns and ideas as determined by the dominant forces in the international organisations and the developed economies were expected from virtually all countries, most especially from the dependent third world countries (Kwanashie, 2007:17). These dominant forces ensure that the less developed countries adopt policies that are in line with global agenda even when they are not equipped politically and economically enough to implement them.

Challenges of Nigeria's Participation in Global Trade

Nigeria is ill prepared to cope with any negative outcome arising from trade liberalisation. Its weak domestic economic capacities have contributed to the reason why Nigeria cannot compete and benefit from global trade. Nigeria, like other African countries, is facing serious economic and developmental challenges in the face of rapidly changing global economy. It faces

Poverty, hunger, and unemployment because the benefits of basic economic growth have not sufficiently trickled down to the populace and has lagged behind in exploiting the benefits of the process. A number of factors account for this wide gap between the economic integration of Nigeria and the world market. Some of these factors shall be considered briefly.

The Lack of Necessary Infrastructural and Institutional Support

The growth benefits from trade reforms are likely to be limited in countries whose entrepreneurs are constrained by weaknesses in the institutional and market infrastructure for production and trade, and Nigeria is also not spared in this regard. This is evident in many developing countries that it has been   difficult and expensive to develop effective trade. Infrastructural inadequacies have been reflected in poor road networks, costly transports, rail net works, epileptic power supply, telecommunication, water supply, inadequate storage capacity, etc.

Nigeria's infrastructure for instance, due to neglect and poor maintenance regime, was allowed to decay for so long (Kwanashie: 2007:23) the power sector has been a major flaw in Nigeria's economic performance, the state of electricity supply have undermined productive activities for years. Although the federal government has made efforts to address this problem with the injection of $20 billion since 1999 to date but the sector generates only 4,000 megawatts (distributes even less) (www.vanguardngr.com, 2015) this has brought darkness, frustration to Nigerians. However, most parts of Nigeria are yet to experience uninterrupted power supply. Industries and Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) need electricity to function effectively and make them competitive. Communication, which is very essential for effective trade has been far reaching. Although there are efforts in this direction as internet use and GSM Communication are still expensive when compared with those obtained in other more developed countries. The high cost of obtaining communication equipment and accessing the internet has negatively affected Nigeria and other less developed countries' competitiveness in global trade.

Structure of Production and Export Earnings

The structure of output matters in the economic development of nations, but with the present structure of output, Nigeria and other less developed countries would find it difficult to achieve economic growth in this era of globalization. Economically, dependent economies such as Nigeria remain principally primary raw commodity exporters and the dependence of African countries on a small number of export products has increased in the period following liberalisation (Nigeria: Vision20:20 Programme). Many less developed countries especially in Africa are characterized by mono-product economies and dependence on primary commodities for the bulk of their export receipts and as such, their markets are mainly with the industrialized countries where they are junior partners since the trade is on unequal trade levels. This structure of export could be traced to the colonial era when the developing countries had related to the world market mainly as exporters of raw-materials and importing manufactured finished goods in the (North/South Trade) which has been a problem for their economic growth.

In Nigeria the Obasanjo regime's initiative on agriculture to promote non-oil export as a strategy towards changing the dependence on oil as a major source of income, embedded in NEEDS Policy to promote export and more foreign exchange earnings, did not create much impact on the agricultural sector. Apart from being dependent on primary products, a mono-product economy like Nigeria, especially in terms of exports represents an extreme case with its over dependence on one commodity – crude-oil for over 95% of export earnings and over

80% for domestic revenue (Obadan: 2003;18). With the present structure of output, Nigeria can hardly achieve economic growth through its existing trade policy in this era of globalization.

Table 4.1: Real GDP Growth of Nigeria

2012	2013	2014
6.7	7.4	7.2

Source: africaneconomicroutlook.org

From the above table, Nigeria's GDP increased from 6.7% in 2012 to 7.4 in 2013 and dropped to 7.2 in 2014 though it seem to be increasing but it is not enough to make a significant impact on the economy.

Falling Prices of Raw Material

The demand for the type of raw materials produced by Nigeria and other, mostly African countries is not rising, which means that increased export can lead to falling prices instead of increased revenues. With the fall in commodity prices, many commodity dependent developing countries continue to experience deterioration in their terms of trade and reduction in export earnings. This negatively affects the opportunities of countries to generate resources for other investment projects and increase their level of development since agriculture is the major foreign exchange earner. With trade liberalisation, It is argued that through efficiency gains from resource allocation based on comparative advantage countries are able to generate the foreign exchange necessary to import whatever quantities of food they consume over and above what it is efficient to produce (Mohammed, 2012: 44) this process is expected to play an important role in poverty reduction in labour abundant developing countries, and raise the income of workers but that has not been the case.

Indeed, this trade regime attenuates the capacity of Nigeria to effectively participate in contemporary global trade by making it import dependent.

Low Levels of Industrialisation and Manufactured Exports.

Africa currently accounts for less than three percent of the world trade in manufactures and slightly less in services (Obadan; 2003:18).This figure is very small when we consider the fact that manufactured exports have been the key to effective participation of the countries in East Asia where they have achieved spectacular growth rates and poverty reduction. African countries are yet to diversify to the use of modern technology to create high value added goods and services to be sold in the international market.

In 2008 overall, export performance in African countries following trade liberalisation has been disappointing. African exports of manufactured goods continued to grow at a lower rate in volume terms. Recent changes in the share of African exports going to North America meanwhile, have been driven mainly by trends in oil exports, which are independent of the trade liberalisation process. (Vision2020:20)

In Nigeria for instance, the industrial policy structure has not been favorable as high cost of industrial goods, notably raw materials, machineries and spare parts, among others, have been a hindrance. Industries cannot work full capacity; the absence of both domestic and foreign resources to attain full utilization that can generate greater output is inadequate. In addition production will continue to be uncompetitive by lack of value addition¬¬¬. Nigeria's

manufacturing sector is still inadequate, the contribution of the Manufacturing Sector to GDP dropped from 5.9 in 1999 to 3.9 in 2006 (CBN Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 16, Dec. 2005 and 2006). Despite her huge earnings in petro- dollar, it still faces problem of industrialization which is likely to undermine her from benefiting fully from global trade.   Among African Countries, Nigeria's manufactured export share is low. It was 0.7 between 2000-2006, while that of South Africa was 13.2 percent within the same period (Vision 20:20, 20). This development adds credence to the question- how technically equipped to deal with global competition are Nigerian firms?.

Low Level of Industrial Technology
Industrial Technology is an essential aspect in global trade. Over the years there has been a tremendous use of information technology innovations in health, agriculture, engineering, biotechnology, etc, in creating new opportunities in trade and other aspects of globalisation. These opportunities are fundamental and are rapidly changing how businesses, government, and organizations operate. But the benefits of the technological revolution have not reached the poor, especially those in developing countries. The transfer of technology encouraged by the new world order has had some constraints. Some scholars like Dyke (1999), khor (2003), among others, have argued that, these innovations have further widened the gap between the 'haves' and 'haves nots'

Some of the necessary technologies have been protected by registered trade mark and secrecy and the adaptability of some of them require high level expertise or capability. These high transaction cost would raise the cost of input which many of the developing countries cannot afford. The level of technological development in Nigeria is low and this has constrained the manufacturing sector from meeting global standards. However, from another perspective, the low level of industrial technology in Nigeria could be attributed to her dependent position in the international system and. the fact that indigenous technology or innovations are not encouraged by government. The knowledge from the 'so called Aba made" and computer village(s) are allowed to waste. More over, any possible innovations from such sources are more likely to be killed at birth by aspects of the WTO agreements, TRIPS for instance.

Inadequate Domestic Investment Capital
Many entrepreneurs in Nigeria face major financial problems associated with capital formation and access. This low level of finance is linked to the low level of savings which limits access to capital and its accumulation. Developing countries that are seriously in debt with poor credit rating where both import and export financing are facing significant problem. In addition the domestic financial sector is poorly developed and this is further exacerbated by trade liberalisation policy. Many developing countries generate the bulk of their revenue from import and export tariffs. Their reduction or removal negatively affects revenue generation, and this forms a bottleneck for investment and access to working capital. In Nigeria, the National Saving Rate (savings/GDP ratio) has been less than 15.0 percent since 1991 while domestic investment rate (investment/GDP ratio) has not exceeded 9.0 percent since 1990 (Adewuyi, 2003:419).The implication of this is that savings is low and cannot be transformed into investment, domestic capital has been difficult to source, lending rate have also increased, even the interest on savings have also declined, thus discouraging saving and capital accumulation.

Lack of Bargaining and Negotiating Capacity
This is also a major hindrance to Nigeria's competitive participation in global trade in the era of trade liberalisation. By being dependent on developed countries and international

organisations for aid, donations and loans, the developing countries have been drained of their capacity to negotiate. The powers of the UN, in which the South is in a favorable position, have been diminished, as the mandate and power of the institutions under the control of the developed countries (IMF, World Bank and WTO) have been increased tremendously. The rapid spread of international capital and the sustained internationalisation of the state have resulted in the gradual diminishing of national control of the local economy.

This action has led to the erosion of national sovereignty and narrowing the ability of government to make responsive choices or make policy decisions critical of the existing global framework that conditions the behaviour of Nigeria and other developing countries. Most of these policies may not be in the interest of the countries concerned but they have to comply since they are signatories with the agreement. For instance in the Trade Related Investment Measures, (TRIM), the least developed countries are very unfavourable it will be difficult for them to come with any innovation that would meet trade specification because of their low levels of industrial technology development. The agreement pressurizes the government of these countries to give up their power to improve conditions on the entry and operation of foreign capital and investment. With this WTO agreement, Transnational Corporations (TNCs) have achieved so much international economic powers that in the event of the failure of states to survive the WTO conditionalties, they may be compelled to give up their capital rights and sovereign authorities to the monopolies of the TNCs (Khor, 2003). The developing countries have not been able to organize themselves to coordinate on polices and negotiating positions in WTO and other international organisations and this has constituted a major hindrance to their participation in the international system.

Human Capital Quality Issues
Human capital is an important factor in development in general and economic development in particular. It is human capability and productivity engendered through knowledge and skills acquired from education, training and experience and facilitated by an enabling environment (Anya, 2011:116) Many developed countries like Japan, Singapore, etc, etc that have been successful in terms of development in recent decades because they have invested in education and health in addition to the exploitation of natural resources. Singapore for instance has no natural resources to speak of and a population of three million, yet today Singapore exports over six times as much as all developing countries combined (Stefan; 2006:72).

Although there are many factors behind the success story of the developed countries, the most important seems to be the high level of education which informed its technological know-how and specialist skills which has become important for today's globalised world. Many countries in Africa are rich in natural resources but could not be called rich nations because they have not been able to use the advancement in science and technology to add knowledge in the production of goods and services. Nigeria like many developing countries is yet to achieve high level of advancement in human capital as their societies are not knowledge dependent and driven.

Coupled with the above is the issue of '' brain drain'' or loss of skilled manpower through emigration (Minter, 2011) which the process of globalisation engendered. A lot of qualified and capable hands have migrated to the developed world in search of greener pastures, thus reducing the number of specialized hands in the developing countries which experience about 43.2% of brain drain (Minter, 2011) most of which are medical doctors and nurses. Nigeria, for some decades now has lost a lot of highly specialized and skilled men and women to brain

drain. Needless to add, contrary to all posturing, the vale added by drained brain to the process of development of western countries far outstrips the value of total annual remittances by migrant labour.

Political and Systemic Factors

In keeping with the dictates of the ideals of neo-liberalism, certain political pre-conditions must be fulfilled for a country to be an active trade partner. One of those conditions is engendering democracy and 'Good Governance' which has gained increasing prominence in development. It embraces a wide range of aspects relating to how government exercises power at both central and local levels. These are anchored on sound macro-economic policies, credible, predictable and honest criminal justice system, public sector that is reasonably efficient and uncorrupted, a democratic society that enables a functional interplay between state market and civil society. (Stefan, 2002:71)

Most developing countries have not been able to meet up with the above aspects. Political instability and in some cases armed conflicts have been common place in these countries. Most of them do not have functioning democracies and have undergone dramatic political changes like coup d'état with changes in leadership especially in Africa. Many African Countries have at various times experienced political instability as a result of civil strife, ethnic and religious conflicts, like in the case of Liberia, Cote d'ivoire. Sierra Leone, etc that led to insecurity of lives and property. Political insecurity in these countries would discourage foreign investors and other opportunities that would benefit the country. In Nigeria, the Boko Haram, Niger Delta question and other cases of religious and ethnic crises that have created insecurity and disrupted foreign investment and flow of business in the country.

Systemic Corruption

Corruption is a common denominator in almost all Nigerian systems. Any country that is confronted with this monumental problem cannot immediately take advantage of opportunities provided by the global economic structure. Corruption is still pervasive in the country as Nigeria ranked 136 out of 175 countries in the corruption perception index for 2014 (transparency .org, 2014). The ICPC and EFCC have helped in instilling fear in Nigerians but they have not been able to stop corruption. A lot of bribery is carried out for things to get done and about 80 percent of Nigeria's oil and natural gas revenues accrues to just one percent of the country's population, the other 99 per cent of the population receive the remaining 20 percent of the oil and gas revenues, leaving Nigeria with the second lowest per capita oil export earnings put at $212 (N28, 408) per person in 2004. (Oloruntegbe 2009:4) Several years of economic mismanagement and corruption restricted economic growth, leaving Nigeria's GDP per capita under $300 and placing the nation amongst the 20 poorest nations in the World.

Measures Required in Maximizing Global Trade.

It has been argued that liberalisation creates opportunities to accelerate economic growth of nations, but experiences have shown that this growth is unevenly spread. This idea could be attributed to the fact that countries are differently endowed and positioned and may not be able to take equal advantage of the global market (Asobie; 2001:25). Experiences have shown that the developed countries stand a better chance to benefit from the opportunities created by the global market than the developing countries. Africa must strive to be more competitive by addressing these challenges to properly integrate into the world economy, maximize the benefits of trade liberalization if any and in turn globalisation. Since Nigeria, like other developing countries cannot opt out of the changes in the international system, it needs to devise options to enable her become more competitive and increase its chances of benefiting

from the global economy. The following proposals are made to prepare it to face these challenges;

Diversification and Developing Manufactured Export Capability
There should be an increase in the competitiveness of non-oil exports by improving their qualities and reducing cost of production. Experiences have shown that export of products with no value added have been a major factor in the poverty of less developed countries. Export products diversification from dependent natural commodities to manufacturing will promote economic growth in these countries. The root to additional value is for producers to take control of processing and marketing. In Nigeria there is a strong case by government for value addition in products to enable them meet international best practices but the success rate has been low. The government needs to do a lot in this area. It should borrow a leaf from the success story of Ghana which has increased the value of cocoa. The Ghana Cocoa Processing Company (CPC) has increased the value of raw cocoa beans by means of an expansion that has increased total output significantly and an increased marketing strategy, higher grades of the product are produced CPC exports 95% of its finished cocoa products (African Business August-September 2010:30).

Also non-oil export could be diversified into non-traditional markets. Nigeria should explore other countries where good market prospects exist like Japan, Asia and Mexico instead of just relying on trade partners like E.U and American. Encourage more intra Regional/African trade. This views premised on the evidence that trade within regional groupings like ECOWAS, SADAC etc is increasingly becoming a vehicle for restructuring macro-economic and structural policies, promoting large scale investment and ensuring economic efficiency this form of trade is encouraged as a response to the force of globalisation.

Ghana has excelled in marketing and selling services, to the extent that some multinational corporations like Mobil and Nestle have domiciled aspect of their business there.

Human Capital Development
A globalised world brings increased mobility and the threat of brain drain. For some time now, the developing countries have had to contend with the challenges of keeping well trained professionals from moving to wealthier countries. Experiences from countries especially Japan has proved that human Capital Development is a central point of development and output growth. Nigeria needs to maintain and improve and maintain its capacity to retain skilled and knowledgeable individuals. These people would serve as capable hands to study and absorb the new technology being transferred. More efforts need to be focused on education to make more Nigerians literate. To help in development and for government to have what to fall back to in a situation where the oil reserve depletes

The need to improve standard and quality of products.
The need to ensure high standard for Nigerian products is important for global trade. Since, many Nigerian products are considered sub-standard; government should ensure that product specifications and standards are met. If possible higher standards must set for the products to enhance their competitiveness in the global market. Attempts should be made to remove all constraint to agricultural and other non oil sectors in order to boost output and export.

There should be more awareness by the Nigerian Export Promotion Council through seminars and conferences to better inform the general public on the required international standard and

full information of WTO provisions to enable such operators to complain to the appropriate government organs when the product in the external market fail to meet standards.

Public-Private-Partnership (PPP)

The private sector has an important role in trade corroboration since they are more likely to be exposed to market opportunities. Globalisation encourages this sector because of the reduced emphasis on national governments on trade related issues. With PPP, investors will gain exposure to the sector and encourage greater participation of the private sector in delivering infrastructure, health care, education, and transportation. This would promote trade and inter-relationship among nations. For instance, the Lekki-Epe Expressway in Lagos will facilitate the movement of goods and services across Lagos, especially for the proposed Lekki Free Trade Zone that will promote economic activities in the area.

CONCLUSION

Although, Nigeria has made and still is making efforts to properly integrate into global affairs and derive the benefit of trade liberalisation, a lot is still needed to enable it excel. Many countries in the developing world are highly indebted; which has denied them effective participation, some cannot participate in global trade because their products lack value addition. With the reduction in the support given to cash crop production reduced, production cost and export prices are likely to increase with the attendant loss of competitiveness for such produce in the international market. In this era of globalisation, any nation that aspire to develop through export trade must expand the manufacturing sector and also comply with internationally accepted standards to enable its products compete in the global market.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Nigeria needs to intensify efforts to attract both foreign and domestic investors into the export sector to enhance its international trade participation. This is even more necessary with the insecurity in the country.

1. The federal government should domesticate the concept of trade liberalisation to incorporate current modes of production and marketing to encourage local production and export. The system operated in India, China and other Asian continues where they ensure that the interest of their country is taking into consideration in any dealings with the developed world should also be adopted by the Nigerian government.
2. Industries that are growing or stable should not be liberalised except those that are not doing well and government should take over and restructure privatized industries that are not doing well.
3. Reversed engineering should be encouraged in Nigeria, cottage industries in places such as Aba and other Igbo and non Igbo towns should be supported . The government should adopt a guided form of liberalisation that would protect domestic industries, encourage product diversification and processing which add more value to products and increase their bargaining power in the international market.
4. Nigerian government should diversify the economy through ICT to ensure innovations and specialization that would enhance trade

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Economic Impact of Organic Farming; Cases from the Farmers of Nepal

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Abstract

Economic status of various social groups and families is a key foundation for a sustainable development of that particular society. For Nepal, agriculture is still a key base of economic growth and national development. Practice of Organic farming as an emerging practice among Nepalese farmers because of its socio-economic benefit in long term. Expected benefits of organic farming systems are not yet visible in Nepalese agricultural practices because of the lack of study on it. However, there is growing interest in the literature that adoption of such systems produces multiple environmental, social, and financial benefits that can contribute in solving pressing agricultural problems in Nepal. The main objective of this study was to focus in exploring economic impact of organic farming in livelihoods of farmers of Nepal in general. This study was conducted in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktpur and Dhading district. Purposive sampling technique was applied for this exploratory research and structured questionnaire was administered to carry out this research. . Preliminary findings showed that the average annual income of Nepalese farmer was better than the average income of those people who do physically labour work in private and public sector. Economically, farmers were found satisfied and encouraged to expand their organic business. There was significant difference in the level of income between the study districts. Because of the market access and quality and quantity of production made the significant difference in the level of income. There was need of consumers' awareness program so that farmers will get the good prize of their production. Besides that government should be responsible to manage the organic market.

KEYWORD: Economic, Farming, Impact, Organic, Nepal

INTRODUCTION

Development approaches of Nepal are predominantly based in subsistence Agriculture. According to the Agriculture and Food Security report of USAID, Over 70% of Nepal's population works in the agriculture sector (USAID, 2015), therefore Nepal is still understood as an agricultural country. This claim has also been evidenced by the Statistical Information on Nepalese Agriculture- 2011/2012 that reported by stating in total agriculture has 35% contribution in GDP of Nepal (Agri statistics Section, 2011/2012). It is believed that civilization began with subsistence agriculture. Not only did villages, towns and cities begin to flourish, but so did knowledge, the arts and the technological sciences. And for most of history, society's connection to the land was intimate. Human communities, no matter how sophisticated, could not ignore the importance of agriculture. To be far from dependable sources of food was to risk malnutrition and starvation (One Country, 2013).

This article discusses on organic farming that is essentially traditional farming based on knowledge and techniques gathered over thousands of years of agriculture practices prior to the chemical farming revolution. Vegetable farming is the traditional farming system practiced

by farmers in rural village. Although the production is less in large areas but because of higher selling price has compensate with it. In that cost of production is less than of conventional system because the cost of fertilizer is not required. Farmers use cow dung, chicken manure, compost, application of wood ash, cattle urine for top dressing and incorporation of credible parts of vegetable into the soil as organic manure produced in an around by them self. Farmers situated in the hills not only produce vegetables for domestic consumption, but also for sale in the market for cash income. By which they educate their children, increase their land (Anjana Malla Pradhan, 2015, p. 924). There is no precise beginning to organic agriculture. Some people say that all agriculture before the 20th century was organic, but in fact organic agriculture is much more than the absence of modern fertilizers and pesticides. In the first half of the 20th century several people began to question the movement towards intensification and monoculture in agriculture and to look for holistic, ecological, systems approaches that would preserve the quality of the land. Some of the best known of these figures are Sir Albert Howard in India and Britain, Rudolf Steiner in Germany, and I.J. Rodale in the US. Many people credit Sir Alfred Howard with being the founder of organic agriculture and look to his book, An Agricultural Testament, as laying the groundwork for the field (University of Wisconsin, 2014).

Organic farming is known to be environmentally sustainable, but can it be economically sustainable, as well? The answer is yes, according to new research in the Sept.-Oct. issue of Agronomy Journal. In an analysis of 18 years of crop yield and farm management data from a long-term University of Minnesota trial, an organic crop rotation was consistently more profitable and carried less risk of low returns than conventional corn and soybean production, even when organic prime premiums were cut by half (Delbridge, Coulter, King, Sheaffer, & Wyse, 2011). Organic agriculture can contribute to uplift the economic status of farmers because of the lower cost production of organic farms than conventional farms.

According to the Organic Field Crop Handbook of Canadian Organic Growers , Organic farms have lower costs of production than conventional farms, with much less emphasis on purchased inputs. Synthetic fertilizer and pesticide purchases are eliminated, and costs of purchased feed, veterinary bills, and replacement livestock are lower. In addition, organic farmers have lower fixed (overhead) costs for depreciation and interest charges attached to capital inputs, such as machinery and equipment. On balance, input costs are lower on organic farms (Canadian Organic Growers, 2011). On the basis of analysis of cost and benefit of farming, it can be assumed that organic farming has significant contribution in the economic uplift of farmers. In relation to the findings of previous study and experiences shared by the organic farmers, the study was set the objective to identify the economic impact of organic agriculture on farmers after involving in organic farming. The farmers were asked about the changes of their social status as well as economic status after involving in organic agriculture.

METHODS

The study was based on the mixed method; quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Quantitative data was supported by the qualitative data to support the analysis of quantitative findings. The study was descriptive as well as exploratory design. Data was collected from the 578 farmers of Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktpur and Dhading district of Nepal. Because of the limited numbers of organic farmers, the study had adopted the purposive sampling technique to select the farmers and consent was sought in advance. Structured questionnaire survey was done among the organic farmers to collect the quantitative data and semi-structured interview checklist was used to collect the qualitative data from the organic farmers and concerned

expert of organic agriculture. Quantitative data was analysed by using the statistical software and qualitative data was analysed manually in narrative form.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The study was conducted among the 578 organic farmers where 66.9% (392) male followed by 33.1% (194) female participated in the study. The district wise data showed that in total 8.5% (50) organic farmers from Kathmandu, 28.3% (166) from Lalitpur, 19.1% (112) from Bhaktpur and 44% (258) from the Dhading district participate in the study. Minimum 15 to maximum 85 years old people were involved in the organic agriculture. There were 25.9% (152) farmers illiterate followed by 30.5% (179) had primary level education, 9.7% (57) had lower secondary level, 14.5% (85) had secondary level, 10.9% (64) had intermediate level, 6.3% (37) had Bachelor level and 2% (12) had masters and above level education. In total, 27.3% (158) said that they were doing the Coffee, 1% (6) was doing Tea, 80.3% (464) was doing Vegetable, 17.1% (99) was doing Fruits, 18.2% (105) was doing Spices, 2.6% (15) was doing meat items (meat/fish/poultry), 28.7% (166) were doing the livestock, 16.1% (93) were doing milk and dairy products and 7.1% (41) were doing others.

Total organic agricultural land

The data collected from the farmers interviewed in this research, it was found that organic agriculture was doing in minimum 1 ropani (0.0509 hectare) to 55 ropani (2.799 hectare) lands. In average, 1 household = 6.2656 (0.31 hectare) land was cultivated for the organic agriculture. The organic farmers shared that the land was not adequate for them to produce the organic items as the demand of market. The study districts are located in the hilly areas of Nepal so geographically also agricultural land size is not enough. On the other hand, because of the increasing size of population and plotting of land for housing also made problem to get the appropriate land for organic agriculture. Farmers also shared that they could not do the organic agriculture near to the road side because of the polluted dust and air pollution by transportation, made the disturbance in quality and quantity of production so they had to choose the land of remote areas which had problem of easy transportation and market access.

Table 1: Total organic agricultural land (unit in Ropani where 1 Ropani=0.0509 hectare

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Land size for organic agriculture	578	1.00	55.00	6.2656	6.61546
Valid N (listwise)	578				

Source: Field Survey, 2015

As the survey report of FiBL – IFAOAM 2014 reported that there was 10273 Hectares land covered by the organic farming in Nepal which was increased by 18.1% from 2011 (8697 ha.) to 2012. The total organic agricultural land of Nepal shares 0.12% of world organic agricultural land (Helga Willer, 2014, p. 40).

The USDA 2012 Census of Agriculture ranks Wisconsin second in the nation for the total number of organic farms, with 1,180 farms. This represents approximately 8% of the organic farms in the U.S. According to data from the USDA National Organic Program, the number of certified organic farms in Wisconsin grew 77 percent from 2005 to 2013 (Carusi, Gurda, McNair, Pfeiffer, & Silva, 2015, p. III). Wisconsin is fourth in the country in terms of organic commodity sales, valued at $122 million. This accounts for one percent of Wisconsin's total agricultural sales and about four percent of the nation's organic sales. Wisconsin's lower

ranking in organic sales versus organic farm numbers (where it ranks second) is a result of the high value vegetable, fruit and nut crops produced in the top three states, California, Washington and Oregon (Carusi, Gurda, McNair, Pfeiffer, & Silva, 2015, p. 6).

Ownership in land using for organic farming

The data analysed in this research showed that in total 78% (457) farmers said that they were using own land for organic agriculture followed by 14.3% (84) had taken land in rent, 6.8% (40) said that they used own land and some land was taken in rent also and 0.9% (5) had used others' land. Other means unused public land and land of relatives. District wise, in total 3.9% (23) farmers of Kathmandu had their own land using for the organic agriculture followed by 27.5% (161) of Lalitpur, 7.2% (42) had Bhaktpur and 39.4% (231) of Dhading. Similarly, comparatively, high number (8%) of farmers of Bhaktpur district had taken the land in rent. Sometimes, the farmers has to face the loss from the selling of organic product in rented land because they have to pay the rent and bear the cost of investment in seeds, labours, transportation.

Table 2: Ownership in land using for organic farming

			Name of Districts				Total
			Kathmandu	Lalitpur	Bhaktpur	Dhading	
whose land are you using for farming?	Self	Count	23	161	42	231	457
		% of Total	3.9%	27.5%	7.2%	39.4%	78.0%
	Rent	Count	16	2	47	19	84
		% of Total	2.7%	0.3%	8.0%	3.2%	14.3%
	Self + Rent	Count	11	1	22	6	40
		% of Total	1.9%	0.2%	3.8%	1.0%	6.8%
	Others	Count	0	2	1	2	5
		% of Total	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.3%	0.9%
Total		Count	50	166	112	258	586
		% of Total	8.5%	28.3%	19.1%	44.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Annual income of farmers from organic farming

The primary data collected from the farmers reported that the range of annual income was NPR 2000/- to 30, 00,000/-. The mean annual income was NPR 1, 27,813.11. Average income of farmers was seemed good which can support to manage the basic needs of their family.

Table 3: Annual income of farmers from organic farming

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Annual Income	511	2,000	30,00,000	127813.11	277648.291

Regarding the income of organic agriculture, there is some misconception among those farmers who are not doing the organic agriculture that they will have to bear the loss from the organic agriculture. But Pharsuram Acharya, Owner of Annapurna Organic Agricultural Industry was not ready to accept the misconception of loss of organic agriculture. He said, "Organic agriculture itself is sustainable system so it is totally misconception that farmers have to bear loss from organic agriculture. If farmers get the access on market and get the good

price of product then organic agriculture support to increase the socio-economic status of farmers."

United State Department of Agriculture has reported that the consumer demand for organically produced goods has shown double-digit growth during most years since the 1990s, providing market incentives for U.S. farmers across a broad range of products. Organic products are now available in nearly 3 of 4 conventional grocery stores, and often have substantial price premiums over conventional products. Organic sales account for over 4% of total U.S. food sales, though organic products account for a much larger share in some categories. Certified organic acreage and livestock have been expanding in the United States for many years, particularly for fruits, vegetables, dairy, and poultry. The U.S. Department of Commerce began adding codes for selected organic products to the U.S. trade code system in 2011, and the tracked value of organic imports and exports has been increasing (United State Department of Agriculture, 2015).

The importance of organic agriculture is highlighted in previous study in relation to their contribution in economic development of farmers. A previous study has stated that 'Money can grow on trees, and so can jobs -- if those trees are organic'. The report of Farm Bill and beyond had highlighted the importance of organic farming to increase the job opportunity and income sources. Organic agriculture can have a strong positive impact on the U.S. economy and is good for job creation, says a new study by Organic Farming Research Foundation (OFRF) (Redell, September 30, 2011).

ANOVA of total income

This study was conducted among the 4 districts of central hill of Nepal so the study analysed the analysis of variance of income among the 4 districts. The finding of ANOVA showed that there was significant difference (F = 13.901 & P = .000) between and within groups of district regarding the annual income of organic agriculture at 95% confidence interval.

Table 4: ANOVA of total income

ANOVA of Total Income					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2988124199092.684	3	996041399697.561	13.901	.000
Within Groups	36327048203059.960	507	71650982649.033		
Total	39315172402152.640	510			

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Organic agriculture can be beneficial for farmers, although the transition period is often financially difficult. The organic sector accounted for less than 3% of total food sales in the US in 2005, but growth is strong and is projected to remain well above 10% per year. This strong growth has attracted the attention of large corporations, from processors and distributors such as Kraft and General Mills to retailers such as Wal-Mart (University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2014).

District wise Multiple Comparisons of income

The F-test showed the significant difference between the districts so the study also analysed the multiple comparisons of individual districts to know the difference between the two districts. The data presented in the table no. 5 Showed that there was significant difference between the Kathmandu and Lalitpur district regarding the annual income at P = .007 at 95%

confidence interval. Similarly, there was highly significant difference between the Lalitpur and Bhaktpur district regarding the annual income at P = .000 at 95% confidence interval. The data also presented the significance difference between the Bhaktpur and Dhading at P = .000 and Dhading and Kathmandu at P = .022. but there was no significant difference between the Lalitpur and Dhading as well as Bhaktpur and Kathmandu.

The three districts (Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktpur) districts are located in within the Kathmandu valley. There are more similarity in the climate, geographical structure, development and distribution of population. Though, the annual income was significantly difference between Kathmandu and Lalitpur and Lalitpur and Bhaktpur. The reasons were the access on market, quantity and quality of productions, numbers of conscious consumers and purchasing capacity of consumers. Kathmandu district is highly populated than the Lalitpur and Lalitpur is highly populated than the Bhaktpur so it makes the difference in the selling of products which finally effect in the income of farmers.

Similarly, analysis showed that within Kathmandu valley also, there was no difference between the Bhaktpur and Kathmandu. The annual income was found similar between these two districts. Bhaktpur is famous for the agriculture products and Kathmandu is the main market for selling the goods. Bahaktpur can produce high amount of production because of the availability of adequate agriculture land and Kathmandu has capacity to consume much production so income level of farmers of Bhaktpur and Kathmandu may be similar.

Table 5: District wise Multiple Comparisons of income

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Annual income of organic farming Bonferroni						
(I) Name of districts	(J) Name of districts	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Kathmandu	Lalitpur	153933.917*	47409.390	.007	28362.97	279504.86
Lalitpur	Bhaktpur	-207770.943*	36923.572	.000	-305568.61	-109973.28
Lalitpur	Dhading	-20551.470	27591.185	1.000	-93630.90	52527.96
Bhaktpur	Kathmandu	53837.025	51944.673	1.000	-83746.30	191420.35
Bhaktpur	Dhading	187219.472*	34811.956	.000	95014.74	279424.20
Dhading	Kathmandu	-133382.447*	45783.975	.022	-254648.23	-12116.66
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Regression analysis

From the analysis of linear regression, it is found that the R^2 value is .161 which means that demographic variables (address, age, sex, education, year of experience, total organic land of individual farmer) only explain 16.10% of the variation in the Annual income of organic farming (dependent variable). The adjusted R^2 value is .150 which means that the different demographic variables contributed only 15% in annual income of organic farming. The remaining 85% were contributed by other factors which are not included in this study.

The regression analysis on all six demographic variables were found significant at p ≤0.05 (.000), at F = 13.901 to total annual income of organic farming. However, it was found out that only two variables were significant which have p-value ≤ 0.05, namely educational status and total agricultural land using by the farmers. Rest four variables i.e. Address, age, sex and year of experiences of respondents were not significant to total income since the p-value of each was .151, .968, .387 and .311 respectively. We may conclude by saying that at least two demographic variables, namely educational status and total organic agriculture land of respondents has impact on total income of organic agriculture.

Table 6: Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.401[a]	.161	.150	258329.943
a. Predictors: (Constant), land size, Edu, year of experience, Sex of respondents, Age of respondents, Name of districts				

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	-84588.374	91345.626		-.926	.355	-264064.019	94887.271
	Name of districts	18397.046	12805.059	.068	1.437	.151	-6762.300	43556.391
	Age of respondents	-44.816	1112.280	-.002	-.040	.968	-2230.221	2140.589
	Sex of respondents	-23456.135	27084.860	-.039	-.866	.387	-76672.396	29760.126
	Education	41286.061	8040.872	.242	5.135	.000	25487.377	57084.744
	Year of experience	-1957.294	1931.326	-.048	-1.013	.311	-5751.959	1837.370
	Total organic agriculture land	14860.080	2072.483	.319	7.170	.000	10788.071	18932.089
a. Dependent Variable: Annual Income of farmers								

Source: Field Survey, 2015

CONCLUSION

In reality, organic agriculture is not new phenomena in Nepal since the conventional farming is also followed the similar system of organic agriculture. However theoretically, it makes the different between the conventional and organic agriculture. In Nepal, conventional farming has its own traditional way of farming and in the recent days excessive use of chemical fertilizers to increase productivity giving less care on the possible risk on health of consumers. There has not been any trademark to recognize the conventional agriculture but organic farming has certain rules, principles and trademark which ensure the quality of organic agriculture. The same trademark also ensures the price of production. The study found that the annual income of farmers was better than the simple labour work. Social status of farmers was also uplifted because of the better economic status. They shared that they could easily manage the health

and education of their children and also manage the daily expenditure of house. As organic farming has been attracting youths gradually, which is being seen as supportive to retain youths in agriculture and look for internal livelihoods options rather than going for international labour migration. . The data of this research showed that involvement of youth is increasing in organic agriculture which can support to sustain it in long run. There is need of educated person in organic field because the data also showed that there was significant effect of education to determine the income of farmers. Distribution of income was significantly difference between the districts because of the quality and quantity of production and their access on organic market. Land size had significant effect in income of farmers so there is need to increase the size of organic land to increase the level of income. Level of consumers' awareness and their purchasing capacity also play the vital role to determine the income of organic agriculture. So, it is also recommended to concerned organization to launch the consumers' awareness program. Government should encourage the farmers to expand their organic business by supporting to manage the organic market. Auction market can be one strategy to protect the farmers from the loss of their organic productions.

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