

ADVANCES IN SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH JOURNAL

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Overcoming High Communication Anxiety of Trainee-nurses with a Two-dimensional Approach at the Zuarungu Health Training School, Ghana

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Abstract

High communication anxiety (HCA) dispossesses individuals' inter-personal communication skills that are needed in the academia and at other public places. Admittedly, research on HCA abounds but lack holistic remediation in providing a comprehensive cure. In Ghana, knowledge on how teachers can effectively manage HCA and its instruction is limited. Moreover, most teachers have limited knowledge of how instruction may be ineffective due to HCA. Interestingly, nursing is constantly evolving. And to-be-nurses who have high communication anxiety may suffer many effects while in training and in practice if their HCA is not ameliorated. Because, nurses, by the nature of their work, cannot be shy, avoid public communication or inter-personal relations that are needed in providing effective health service. This study was to actualize classroom participation in order to reduce the HCA of 50 to-be-nurses with a two-dimensional approach involving communication instruction and motivational persuasive contexts that co-constructed inter-personal communication relations. The study resulted in reducing trainees' fear of speaking in public and great improvement in their 2014/2015 second semester GPAs.

Keywords: anxiety/apprehension, communication, debating, high, instruction, overcoming.

INTRODUCTION

Every person experiences some communication anxiety or nervousness in public speaking (McCroskey, 2001). It is however, the uniqueness of it, especially with potential health workers, which is the thrust of this study that matter. Communication anxiety or fear of speaking in public grounded in personality characteristics or situational anxiety (Witt, Brown, Roberts, Weisel, Sawyer & Behnke, 2006) has immeasurable consequences on people suffering from it. In the classroom, its effects are both instructional and social as students suffering from especially extreme communication anxiety tend to obtain low grade point scores and talk less or show less interest in public communication activities (Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth & Harter, 2003). Further consequences such as avoiding communication situations (Beatty, 1988), and being less competent, less composed and less attractive (McCroskey & Leppard, 1975) are detrimental to academic progress.

Though research has suggested ways of managing the effects of high communication apprehension, scholars have not specifically and most especially in the Ghanaian health training schools, considered reducing high communication anxiety for improved health service delivery. Interestingly, health and/or nursing training must be interactive in order for trainees to fully appreciate health instruction that will ground in-depth understanding of health issues, positive academic results and eventual handling of health cases.

This study thus ameliorated student nurses' extreme communication anxiety (also known as high communication apprehension) with a two-dimensional approach at the Zuarungu Health Training School, Ghana. The twofold instructional approach included a 3-credit communication course, (Communication & Study Skills) that offered all 250 trainee-nurses instruction on communication and its related concepts for a semester (which compares with Pearson et al, 2003 Skills Approach) and debating lessons that epitomized MacIntyre, Babin & Clement, 1999 variety of situations and William J. Bryan (cited by Carnegie, 1955) that 'the ability to speak effectively is an acquirement rather than a gift'. Pearson et al, MacIntyre et al and Bryan approaches suggest that increased exposure to public speaking reduces communication anxiety.

The communication course imparted listening, reading, writing and speaking skills and their related mechanics while the debates increased trainee-nurses' public speaking exposure through persuasive dialogues in class and among themselves. The debating approach was grounded mainly on its interactional relevance in building self-confidence and providing space for speech.

The debating sessions constructed pedagogic communication contexts which provided trainees an enabling opportunity to express their reflections both in writing and speaking after appreciating the various motions that were given them. The overriding aim was to get trainee-nurses speak constantly. Again, the use of debates compares the behaviourists contention that language is a behaviour that develops as other skills through regular practice.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The action research methodology was used for this study. The study added debating sessions to further the objectives of the 3-credit communication course (Communication & Study Skills) regarding overcoming high communication anxiety of selected trainees. Eighty (80) trainees were first purposely sampled from a total of 250 first year trainees by me with the assistance of the academic-tutor and the class-tutor. Subsequently, the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24), appendix A, was administered on the 80 purposely selected trainees leading to a sample size of fifty (50) who were immersed with the two-dimensional approach. The sample size comprised 30 females and 20 males; all ranging from ages twenty (20) to twenty-six (26). The 50 students were further pre-observed for a week regarding their communication anxiety using basic checks of high communication anxiety as was administered on them.

The additional instructional intervention (the debates) was administered twice a week on Tuesdays and Fridays for four months till the end of the second semester of the 2014/2015 academic year in the first year class. Each session lasted three hours from 7:00 – 10 pm each meeting day. On each of these days, trainees came with informed ideas and poised to argue their opinions on a given motion or topic (which were self-selected through ballot at immediate past sessions).

Pragmatically, the trainees verbally expressed their views on topics involving health, nursing, science or technology, sexuality, religion, education and politics. A few of the topics or motions included:

Health/Nursing/Science/Technology

- Students in the rural schools have more advantages than those in the urban schools, Traditional foods have no virtues,

- Technology has made the world a better place,
- Modern society has nothing good to offer the youth,
- In a developing country, it is more useful to study science than business,
- The computer has worsen writing,
- The demerits of mobile phones outweigh their benefits in modern life,
- Science has done more harm than good to humanity,
- Science has made a great difference to our lives than religion,
- The rise in science is the cause of decline in faith,

Gender/Sexuality/Education/Religion/Politics

- Women are better nurses than men,
- Women are sexually weaker than men
- Courtships are no longer useful,
- Students in rural health institutions are harmful,
- The problems of unemployment among school leavers stem from a bad system of education in a country,
- Inter-school sports promote division among students,
- Day schools are better than boarding schools,
- Religion has failed our society,
- One's personality is determined by nature not by nurture,
- Tribal associations should not be allowed in public secondary schools,
- Traditional rulers have no place in a modern democratic nation,
- Ghana is better off with agriculture than with oil, etc

The arguments were always verbally presented; trainees spoke without reference to any prepared paper. Trainees were always regulated, at each session, into two groups: the Cons and the Pros, just for identification. Trainees, on a face-to-face sitting arrangement, took turns to express their views or messages to their colleagues and audience with a maximum of two points each on their selected motions or topics. Trainees were adjudged on each session but these were not made known until the final session. During the debate sessions, trainees were advised to speak loud, look into the eyes of their co-debaters as well as audience and to freely move about while speaking. Once a debater ended, I signaled the corresponding respondent to express or present his/her views. At the end of each day's session, two volunteers from the audience summarized the main arguments of each of the two main groups while other members of the audience stated what interested them most and why. I played a supporting role of helping trainees gather points before actual debate sessions and a corrective role on aspects that were noted as wrong or unconvincing reasoning.

Trainees were closely monitored with some scaffolding activities. Trainees' verbal and argumentative skills including conversation and participatory levels were observed. Finally, a self-appraisal (appendix B) was conducted at the end of the programme on all the 50 trainees.

Data was collected using observation and a self-appraisal tool. Trainees GPAs were also analyzed. First, pre and post observations were made during debate sessions and normal classroom sessions. These observations were to measure trainees' high communication anxiety including weaknesses and strengths before and after the intervention. Besides, the entire process was video-recorded. The video-recordings were used to augment the study of trainees' progress in terms of overcoming challenges that amounted to high communication anxiety.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Pre-intervention Observation

The entire 250 students were qualified for the two-year certificate health-assistant training programme. Most of them however had weak grades (D7 or E8) a fail grade (F9) in English Language at the West African Senior School Certificate Examinations – WASSCE. The sampled 50 trainees had scores above 80 in the PRCA-24 and low scores, ranging from 15 % to 30 %, in the first semester results of ‘Communication & Study Skills’. They also appeared shy, participated less and spoke less in class. It was further noted that all 50 trainees had very low Grade Point Average (GPA) of 1.0 to 2.0 in the first semester. Most of the teachers including the one in-charge of academics confirmed that the sampled 50 trainees hardly ask questions in class despite their poor performance. Trainees’ speeches had errors including tense, pronunciation and dangling constructions.

Table 1: Pre-intervention observation of 50 trainees’ classroom speech attitudes

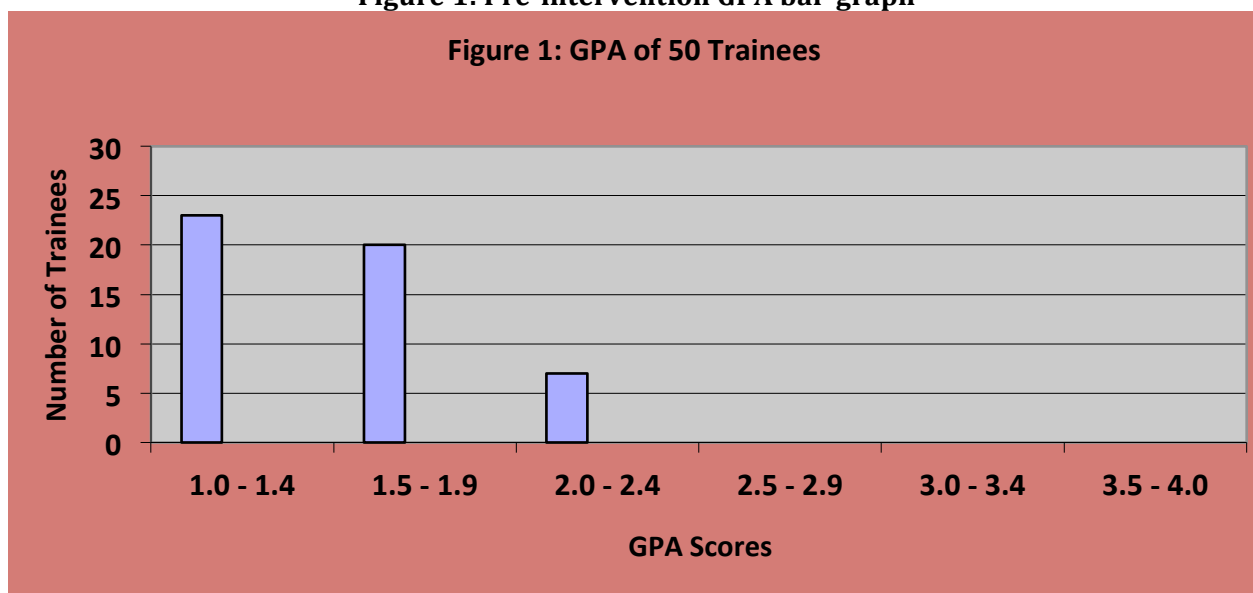
Attitude	Number of Trainees	Percentage
Shy-Speaker	21	42%
Spokeless but not Shy	13	26%
Shy-Speaker & Spokeless	16	32%
Total	50	100%

Table 1 indicates that trainees had varying high communication apprehension indicators that may be the bases for their errors in tense, pronunciation and misuse of modifiers. These errors culminate in making trainees less confident in class. A further study of their first semester GPAs is analysed in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Pre-intervention GPAs of 50 trainees

GPA	Number of Trainees	Percentage
1.0 – 1.4	23	46%
1.5 – 1.9	20	40%
2.0 – 2.4	07	14%
2.5 – 2.9	0	0%
3.0 – 3.4	0	0%
3.5 – 4.0	0	0%
Total	50	100%

From Table 2 above, 23 trainees (representing 46 %) had 1.0 to 1.4 GPA, 20 trainees (representing 40 %) had 1.5 to 1.9 GPA and 7 trainees (representing 14 %) had GPA 2.0 to 2.4. Nobody got GPA ranging from 2.5 to 4.0. The majority (86 %) of the sample size had very low GPA which compares (McCroskey & Andersen, 1976) that students with high communication anxiety score low overall GPA. The bar-graph below simplifies the performance of the 50 sampled trainees as it skews negatively.

Figure 1: Pre-intervention GPA bar-graph

Post-intervention Observation/Self-appraisal

During and after the intervention, the following developments were noted. Most of the sampled trainees were highly motivated to express themselves on the various motions or topics. They thus argued constructively and confidently and willingly participated in the debating activities. They also raised objections and issues of interest during debating sessions and discussed other worrying issues such as topic difficulties. They also participated actively and satisfactorily during normal Communication & Study Skills lessons. Their contributions during Communication & Study Skills lessons were logical, devoid of tense errors and jumbled constructions. These indicators showed that the trainees had remedied considerably their high communication apprehension.

In order to ascertain the reduction, the GPAs of the 50 trainees in the second semester were collected as shown below.

Table 3: Post-intervention GPAs of 50 trainees

GPA	Number of Trainees	Percentage
1.0 - 1.4	01	02%
1.5 - 1.9	02	04%
2.0 - 2.4	18	36%
2.5 - 2.9	19	38%
3.0 - 3.4	10	20%
3.5 - 4.0	0	0%
Total	50	100%

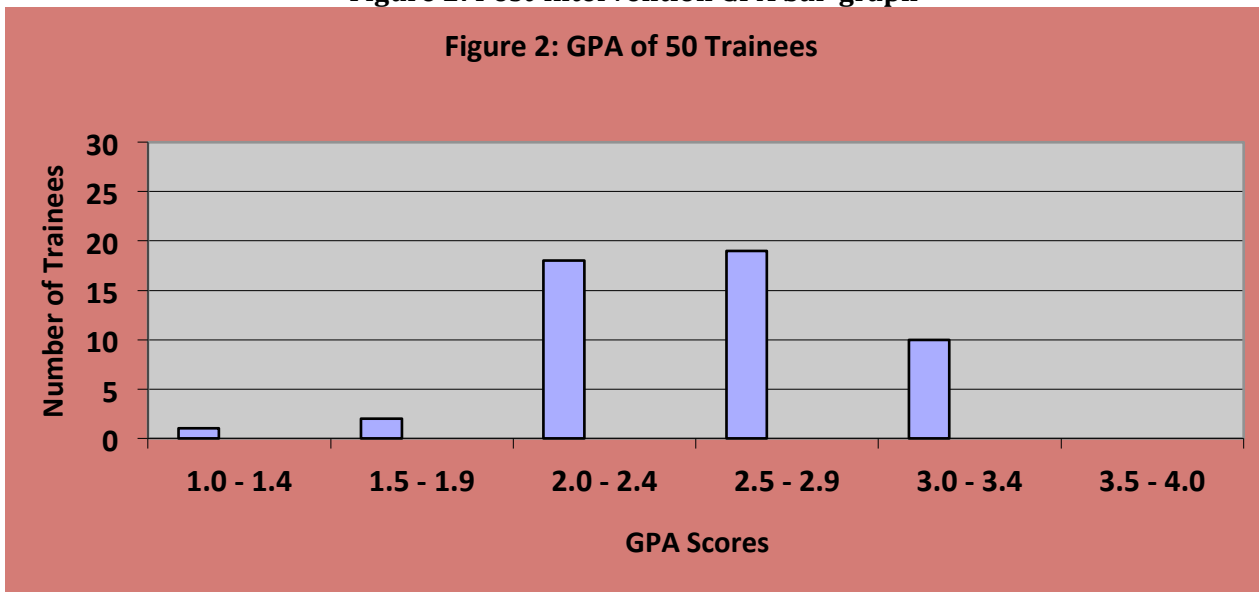
From Table 3 above, 1 trainee (representing 2 %) obtained 1.0 to 1.4 GPAs against 23 trainees (representing 46 %) in the pre-intervention GPAs (Table 2). Also, 2 trainees (representing 4 %) obtained 1.5 to 1.9 GPAs against 20 trainees (representing 40 %) who had 1.5 to 1.9 GPAs in the pre-intervention GPAs (Table 2). Again, 18 trainees (representing 36 %) had 2.0 to 2.4 GPAs against 7 trainees (representing 14 %) in the first semester GPAs. Further, 19 trainees (representing 38 %) got 2.5 to 2.9 and 10 trainees (representing 20 %) obtained 3.0 to 3.4 GPAs against zero in the pre-intervention GPAs of 2.5 to 4.0. Nobody got GPAs from 3.5 to 4.0.

Tentatively, at the 1.0 to 1.4 GPA range, 22 trainees (44 %); while at the 1.5 to 1.9 GPA range, 18 trainees (36 %); and 11 trainees (22 %) at the 2.0 to 2.4 had improved their GPAs respectively. This implies a substantive 29 trainees (58 %) had improved their GPAs.

That is 50 trainees (pre-intervention GPAs) of 1.0 to 2.4 minus 21 trainees (post-intervention GPAs) of 1.0 to 2.4 GPAs. Thus, $50 - 21 = 29$.

Notably, the Zuarungu Health Training School standard end of year progression GPA is 2.0 (Minutes, 2011/2012 Academic Board). It implies that a large number of 47 trainees (representing 94 %) of the 50 sampled trainees obtained promotion as against 7 trainees (14 %) that would have been promoted as per the pre-intervention GPAs in Table 2. Below is a bar-graph showing the post-intervention GPA performance of the 50 trainees.

Figure 2: Post-intervention GPA bar-graph



The post-intervention GPA bar-graph (Figure 2) is averagely (majority of trainees scored between 2.0 to 2.9 which gives an average score of 2.45) and positively skewed. The average performance signals some significant improvement in trainees' GPA in the second semester. Nonetheless, 3 trainees (representing 6 %) could not improve their GPAs and per the standards will not be promoted since their overall GPAs for the second semester were below 2.0.

Finally, a self-appraisal (Appendix A) was conducted on the 50 trainees to assess their high communication anxiety status. The self-appraisal had three sections titled I, II and III. The 12-questions self-appraisal sought responses regarding the benefits of the approach and ways of further managing high communication anxiety since no one therapy works for all (Dwyer, 2000).

CONCLUSION

The study found that there are high communication anxiety (HCA) students in the 1st year class of the 2014/2015 academic year of the Health Assistants Clinical Training programme at Zuarungu. It also noted some consequences of HCA students having few friends and being less confident especially in answering questions in class and during examinations which result in low GPA.

Significantly however, adequate communication instruction including motivational contexts like debates can reduce high communication anxiety of students by making them good speakers who will intend perceive themselves as competent and are more likely to engage in inter-personal communication contexts.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Since every person possesses some amount of communication apprehension, communication instructors need to scan every class for the identification of students with high communication anxiety for early remediation. It is my hope that further research on communication anxiety and propaganda will produce findings to advance the understanding of persuasive communication. Probably worthy researching, is establishing the relationship between communication anxiety and nonverbal communication behaviour.

Generally, Ghanaian health and nursing instruction should adequately employ ways or motivations toward reducing HCA in order to get par with international health/nursing standards in the area of inter-personal communication.

APPENDIX A: PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION (PRCA-24)

The PRCA-24 is an instrument widely used to measure communication apprehension. It is composed of twenty-four statements concerning feelings about communicating with others. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neutral = 3; Agree = 4; Strongly Agree = 5

1. I dislike participating in group discussions.
2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.
3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.
4. I like to get involved in group discussions.
5. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.
6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions.
7. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.
8. Usually, I am comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.
9. I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.
10. I am afraid to express myself at meetings.
11. Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.
12. I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting.
13. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.
14. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.
15. Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.
16. Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.
17. While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.
18. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.
19. I have no fear of giving a speech.
20. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
21. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
22. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
23. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
24. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.

SCORING

Group discussion: 18 - (scores for items 2, 4, & 6) + (scores for items 1,3, & 5)

Meetings: 18 - (scores for items 8, 9, & 12) + (scores for items 7, 10, & 11)
 Interpersonal: 18 - (scores for items 14, 16, & 17) + (scores for items 13, 15, & 18)
 Public Speaking: 18 - (scores for items 19, 21, & 23) + (scores for items 20, 22, & 24)
 Group Discussion Score: _____
 Interpersonal Score: _____
 Meetings Score: _____
 Public Speaking Score: _____

To obtain your total score for the PRCA, simply add your sub-scores together. _____
 Scores can range from 24-120. Scores below 51 represent people who have very low CA. Scores between 51-80 represent people with average CA. Scores above 80 represent people who have high levels of trait CA.

APPENDIX B: HIGH COMMUNICATION ANXIETY POST-INTERVENTION SELF-APPRAISAL SHEET

SECTION I : <i>Appraise yourself by choosing or ticking the choice or choices that correspond to your current high communication anxiety</i>					
No.	Item	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have been exposed to many communication contexts				
2	The two-dimensional approach was complementing, interesting and I enjoyed				
3	I feel that the approach can reduce high communication anxiety of students				
4	I still feel tensed when speaking in public or to friends/classmates				
5	With the skills acquired I am prepared to communicate in public without fear				
6	I am not confident to ask questions in class				
7	My GPA has improved				
SECTION II: <i>Rate (1 to 4) the following activities in order of further reducing your high communication anxiety</i>					
I will continue to rehearse my notes, thoughts, speeches and ask questions in class and other public places					
I will always look at my audience, friend(s) or teacher(s) and speak loudly or conversational enough to their understanding					
I will communicate reluctantly with friends while in class and various publics					
I will talk less in public because I continue to feel shy					
SECTION III: <i>Which two ways of the following will you recommend for reducing high communication anxiety</i>					
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	
Regular practice of rehearsing notes, thoughts and speeches	Sitting in a comfortable chair in public	Interviewing others on academic topics and those of personal interest	Knowing topics, audience and discussing relevant aspects of the topics before actual contexts	Ever ready to take any instruction aimed at managing high communication anxiety	

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Methodological Preconditions of Institutionalization in Educational System of Russia

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Abstract

The article covers basic concepts which describe methodological premises of institutionalization of modern education, namely: “innovative quality”, “technologies of training/education” and “ideology of culture”. The authors dwell on the development of institutionalization meta-theory. As for the key principle of the meta-theory, the authors mention its poly-structural nature. The article also provides proofs to support relevance of the use of institutional analysis procedure. The article also describes the algorithm of institutional analysis for functioning and transformation/modernization of institutes that constitute modern educational system of Russia.

Keywords: The concept of “institutionalization” in modern education; meta-theory of institutionalization; projecting cluster, experimental approbation and duplication of new educational technologies; institutional analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Institutionalization of modern education is considered to be the quality which refers to condition of institutions that arrange social and cultural interaction in society. These institutions provide social order and enable to eliminate ambiguity in organizational, social and economic relations. In this respect, the concept “quality”, interpreted in the context of functioning and development of institutions of the society of knowledge being in progress now, [1] can be defined as the key notion.

Modern objective reality is characterized by transformation of institutions. Institutional models of objective reality determine the main participants and relations between them concerning various objects. These models structure the relations by means of rules, norms and standards. Institutional models also characterize methods of interaction in various spheres of society, culture, economy, education, each of which having its own functional content [2].

Changes of objective reality stipulate changes in qualitative condition of institutions. However, time factor of these changes can vary. Deep-rooted norms, rules and functions of institutions may collide with the introduced innovations. Any conflict means development, and it takes time to resolve it. Institutionalization in this context becomes the factor of innovations [3].

SECTION 1. METHODOLOGICAL PREMISES OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION IN MODERN EDUCATION

Differentiation of innovations which conditions dynamics of institutionalization is determined by a certain feature of human perception, referred to as intentionality.

Intentionality stands for human ability to relate objects of the real world to concrete functional content. Formation of new institutional facts can be correlated to collective intentionality. Collective intentionality grants a status function to an object. The object gets institutionalized, i.e. there occurs the fact of educational, economic, cultural, etc. reality, existing as a certain institution.

A status function includes a certain function/range of functions which cannot be exercised on the basis of the functions already inherent in the phenomenon. Collective intentionality provides rather long acceptance of functions/range of functions. As a result of this acceptance, a new institutional fact appears [4].

However, objects of social and economic reality have quite complicated logical structure, whereas objects of objective reality can get status-functions, typical for more than one institution. The system of such kind is formed on the basis of main functional features, a certain set of rules that cause possibility of institution existence. Discrepancy of objective reality causes the need for transformation, that is, changes of qualitative characteristic features.

Any innovation promotes and determines formation of new institutional facts which may be created on the basis of agreements and achieve potential of collective intentionality as a result [5]. Dynamics of any system development, in particular, of educational system as a multiple-factor phenomenon, can be traced at the level of institutionalization. In this context, institutionalization enables to integrate two vectors of changes in educational reality, namely: the vector of innovative development of institutions, that is, breaking the system stability; and the vector of qualitative determination of the functional content of institutions, constraining innovations and initiating the process of collective intentionality. In this connection, in terms of institutionalization, the concept "quality" includes some features of the notion "innovation". They both become conceptual vectors of modernization.

The concept "innovative quality" becomes one of methodological premises of modern education institutionalization. It is aimed at exercising the function of collective intentionality and leads to concentration of new knowledge up to certain degree that promotes transformation of institutions and grants them new quality [6]. As for methodology of education institutionalization, let us mention evolution theory. This approach makes it possible to consider educational system as the one that undergoes continuous and preconditioned changes, when the present can be treated as the result of the past and, at the same time, condition for the future, and the mechanism of changes is based on variability, inheritance and selection [7].

The main assumptions of evolution theory can be applied to educational system, namely: 1) system developmental path is shaped by previous evolution, causing continuity (stability) of features and natural selection of ideas, approaches, technologies in relation to the elements of educational system functioning in ever changing conditions of the objective reality; 2) possibility of casual or accidental developmental paths that arise under the influence of external factors. Thus, while considering institutionalization of modern educational system, one should outline the factors of evolutionary heritability and factors of variability, or innovation factors. In due course, as collective intentionality functions are exercised, these factors gain the status of the inherited ones [8].

Evolutionary approach allows keeping integrity and basic quality features of the object during gradual updating of its components (technologies, organizational forms, behavior stereotypes, etc.). Meanwhile, the innovations integrated into basic system construct, cause a conflict. Thereby, evolutionary transformation/ modernization of institutions take place.

Institutional structure is inert. Inertness of institutions, i.e. nonresistance to changes, arises from the nature of institutions as those.

According to J. Hodgson, institutions are steady systems of the existing and deep rooted public rules and customs that structure social interactions. Language, money, law, systems of measures and weights, table etiquette, businesses and other organizations – all these are institutions. Partial stability of institutions is determined by their ability to successfully create stable expectations, concerning people's behavior [9]. Let us note that inertness causes possibility of blocking rather effective institutions that can be characterized as innovative (B. Arhtur, P. David) [10; 11; 12; 13].

Institutions refer to steady systems which influence organizations/establishments and individuals by means of descending causal relationship, or, according to J. Hodgson, "transforming descending causal relationship" [14]. The heart matter of the influence consists in changing the preference function of actors, included in the sphere of their influence. That is, institutions, influencing the deep-rooted habits of certain mentality and behavior, form preferences. Social interactions, in their turn, also influence institutions by means of, for example, demand for prestigious professions, causing the changes in market prices for educational services.

The leading part in mechanisms of descending causal relationship belongs to teaching and learning that can be defined as transformation of individual qualities and preferences [15]. In this respect, learning does not only characterize cognitive abilities of a person, but also sets the vector for qualitative changes of institutions in terms of reverse, this time, ascending causal relationship. [16]. Therefore, teaching technologies are defined as the main factor of educational system institutionalization.

"Highly" innovative teaching technologies condition innovative quality of institutions, being the important factor of institutional modernization in education. In this connection, the concept "teaching/nurturing technologies" becomes methodological precondition of institutionalization of educational systems in terms of modernization.

New pedagogical technologies stipulate qualitative change of institutions. Institutional inertia in the system of such kind will lead to the fact that both positive and negative changes can gain cumulative effect, due to a relatively strong position of rather inefficient institutions which

determine preference functions of actors and do not allow taking steps that will further introduce changes into the developed form of interactions of the latter [17].

Institutional inertia is a kind of protective response of the system to the destroying it technological and institutional innovations [18], especially when the introduced institutions and technologies conflict with each other. Institutional inertia is the negative factor which slows down modernization of education. Institutional inertia becomes apparent, for example, in recurrent return to obsolete institutional schemes that mismatch developed economic conditions. Inertia creates institutional traps [19; 20; 21; 22; 23; 24].

There are two basic approaches to defining the terms “institutional traps”: a) V. Polterovich treats them as inefficient, but steady norms that have self-supporting nature [25]; b) as effect of blocking – according to D. Nortu, the taken once decision cannot be cancelled. Institutional conflict is formed - between the rooted and introduced norms, and, as a result, either nonviable institutions, or steady, though inefficient formations occur [26].

Stability of institutional traps means that, at insignificant temporary external influence on the system, it remains trapped, only slightly changing parameters of its condition. After disturbance is eliminated, the system gets back to its former condition of inefficient balance. [27].

It is necessary to note that during evolution of the system, mechanisms that enable to find the way out of the trap can be spontaneously formed. But the following scenario is also possible: inefficient norm can be replaced, broken as a result of reforming influences.

The following institutional trap can be observed in modern Russian education: great demand for education leads to constant increase of the expectations concerning level of education. Meanwhile, the state, communities and businesses prefer not to invest funds necessary for maintaining good quality of education. The situation of permanent underfinancing of educational programs is peculiar to Russia. It leads to a lot of negative consequences which reduce the quality of education as a whole.

So, institutions define laws for society development, providing its integrity and being regulators of public phenomena in economic, political and cultural spheres of society. In terms of institutionalization, culture is considered to be the system that provides support of significant institutional samples [28]. In the given context, culture can be defined as ideological background of institutionalization that provides system integration of public groups, according to the main function of ideology, i.e. to preserve both political and economic structures and to form the corresponding systems of values, shared by the majority of population.

As for one of the premises of institutionalization in educational system, the concept “ideology of culture” can be mentioned. It refers to support of significant, traditional institutional images and creation of new ones in accord with the existing objective reality [29].

Therefore, the concepts “innovative quality”, “teaching/nurturing technologies”, “ideology of culture”, treated in the given research as methodological premises, form integrative semantic field of the new integrated concept, referred to as “institutionalization of modern educational system”.

SECTION 2. DEVELOPING META-THEORY OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Any concept means a kind of universal code, decoding of which is the process of disclosing and developing the individual, the personal on the basis and in the context of the special and the general. The concept integrates multivariate number of notions, providing complementary aspect of theoretical constructs and forming meta-theory of institutionalization.

The processes of globalization, expansion of informational space, intense communicative interactions between representatives of different cultures have become socio-cultural preconditions of institutionalization meta-theory.

Procedural nature of the meta-theory permits to present education as an institutional matrix of system development. This system shapes vectors of modernization on the basis of possible integrative interaction between various poly-structural institutional complexes, which adjust life of modern states.

The main principle of meta-theory is its poly-structural nature which describes the main features of organization, functioning and development of education. Poly-structural organization of educational establishments and the structures supporting them (firms, banks, associations, etc.) represent the system association of people who jointly realize certain programs and reach some purposes and whose behavior is guided by certain rules and procedures. Meanwhile, each establishment has its own resources, purposes, traditions, etc. Poly-structural systems form real or virtual clusters, stipulating opportunity for decentralized management and use of virtual methods of running the system.

A cluster refers to the system of distributing new knowledge and educational technologies. The program "Innovative Russia – 2020" stipulates creation of the network of regional and industrial clusters which are supposed to fulfill competitive potential of the region. Innovative educational and hi-tech clusters are to be created in the European and Asian parts of Russia. The problem of creating educational clusters as well as clusters for development and distribution of innovative educational technologies is one of modern priorities. Cluster educational technology in the given context is considered to be the institution of modern education that provides replication of technologies [30].

Occurring institutional changes are interconnected: transformation of one of them causes changes of the others connected with it. Dynamics of institutionalization in modern education will require application of institutional analysis.

Institutional analysis stands for the method of studying condition, features of functioning and transformation/modernization of the institutions that form modern educational system. Institutional analysis is aimed at subjects or education participants, namely, teachers and students. Estimation of institution efficiency correlates with the quality of its "product". A person/graduate/worker/expert can be named the product of education. Results of participants' activity ("products" of education) cause necessity of transformation/modernization of institutions.

Institutional analysis on the basis of the subject approach is conditioned by multidimensionality of institutional environment, as well as by the fact that a person is the core of institutionalization, of transformation/modernization of other processes which shape development of culture, society and the state.

Considering the above-stated, the following algorithm of institutional analysis can be offered: organization of cluster as an institution of innovation. Methodology, technology, scientific and methodical toolkit of an innovation is further worked out in the scope of the cluster. Further experimental approbation takes place, efficiency estimation based on monitoring of experimental activity, examination for stating repeatability of the received results. The last stage (in case the previous ones are passed successfully) - registration of the innovation as an institution [31].

Thus, we offer the procedure of innovations institutionalization that provides theoretical and methodological grounds and technological, instrumental, scientific and methodical support. Cluster as an institution becomes the necessary structure which promotes modernization of modern education in the institutionalized format.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Institutionalization has become the key feature which characterizes development of modern education in the newly developing society of knowledge.
2. Methodological premises of institutionalization in educational system are defined by the concepts "innovative quality", "technologies of teaching/education", "ideology of culture".
3. The meta-theory of institutionalization is grounded by socio-cultural preconditions, such as globalization processes, expansion of information space, intense communicative interaction between representatives of different cultures.

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Clinical Outcome of Clip-Less Cholecystectomy Versus Conventional Laparoscopic Cholecystectomy

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Abstract

Background: Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the gold standard worldwide in the surgical treatment of cholecystitis and symptomatic gallstone because it gives well known and more definite advantages if compared with the open procedure. The traditional Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is usually performed by mean of the dissector, the electrosurgical hook, spatula and /or scissor, this method has been used in most centers. Now Harmonic scalpel is used widely to include surgery of head and neck, chest and liver, spleen kidney, adrenal glands colon, rectum and others.**Aim:** We present this paper in a trial to evaluate the safety, efficacy and clinical outcome of Laparoscopic cholecystectomy using harmonic scalpel for securing cystic duct and artery compared with conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy. **Patients and method:** Prospective interventional study was carried out from 1st February 2012 to 14th January 2013, 60 patients were included by laparoscopic cholecystectomy for symptomatic gallstone disease at Slemani Teaching Hospital. The primary outcome was the duration of the operation .the second outcome was the conversion rate .The third outcome was perforation of gallbladder during dissection .the fourth outcome was bleeding during the operation and all were reported intra operatively. All possible complications and clinical outcomes in 30 days period compared in both groups.**Results:** This study was conducted in a period from 1st February 2012 to 14th January 2013, during this time sixty patients were included to this prospective randomized study, the patients were divided in to two groups each with 30 patients with the mean age 39.0 ranging from 22 to 66 years. They were 85 % female and the remainder were males with non-significant results statistically regarding age and gender. We found; The mean operative time was (33.17±8.23) in group A and (18.53±2.37) in group B ; $p = <0.001$, The incidence of gall bladder perforation was 43.33% in group A and 13.33% in group B; $p= 0.010$, The incidence of pain at 24 hour postoperatively is significantly more in group A compared with group B; $p= 0.021$. **Conclusion:** We found that harmonic scalpel cholecystectomy is comparable to conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy in, shortening the time of the procedure and has less sequels and complications in comparison to conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy.

Key Words: Conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy, harmonic scalpel laparoscopic cholecystectomy, pain, gallbladder perforation and duration of operation.

INTRODUCTION

Laparoscopic cholecystectomy (LC) is the gold standard worldwide in the surgical treatment of cholecystitis and symptomatic gallstone because it gives well known and more definite advantages if compared with the open procedure (1, 2).

From the late 1980s LC was popularize by Mouret and Dubois, in the Europe and United States (3) and a dramatic increase in its use for cholecystectomy occurred during the 1990s.

The ultrasonic activated device (USAD) was invented in 1994 by Amaral(4) to simultaneously perform hemostasis and dissection, this device is excellent for coagulation dissection of soft tissue and is currently used for numerous kind of endoscopic surgery, such as cholecystectomy (5), large intestine operations (6)gastrectomy(7) and liver resection (8).

The traditional LC is usually performed by mean of the dissector, the electrosurgical hook, and spatula and /or scissor, this method has been used in most centers.

Deep tissue damage with possible distant tissue damage by the high frequency electro surgery involving vascular and biliary structure in the vicinity of cystic duct and artery(9-10), bile leakage due to slippage of clips(11-12), and collateral injuries i.e. visceral and solid organ injury due to frequent instrument exchange, which is sometimes performed without optic guidance.

There is possibility that the clips could migrate or fall off and cause bile leakage(13,14),further more monopolar and bipolar electro cautery can lead to thermal injury to the CBD and liver.

It has been reported that 90% of visceral injuries and 15% of bile ducts injuries and electrosurgical burn during LC have been associated with monopolar electro cautery.(15,16)

The majority of electrosurgical injuries manifest late or goes unrecognized. Ultracision Harmonic scalpel, Ethicon end surgery contain a generator producing acoustic waves at a frequency of 55,000 Hz , the waves are transferred to the active blade of the instrument , vibrating harmoniously at the same frequency allows 3 effects that act synergistically , coagulation, cutting and cavitation, It is also an effective tool for closure of biliary tract and vessels whose diameter is less than 4mm to 5mm as certified by FDA in 2006.The primary use of harmonic scalpel in the LC is for the division of cystic duct and artery and liver bed dissection.(15, 16)

Vibration of the blade generate frictional heat ,denaturing protein in blood to arrest hemorrhage , at the same time the mechanical action of the ultrasonic vibration perform dissection(17).

In addition to the direct cutting action of the vibrating blade ultrasound waves cause cavitation fragmentation of tissue and additional cutting effect (18) .The coagulation effect occur due to protein denaturation (19). In contrast to electrical and laser coagulation working with harmonic scalpel produce lower production of thermal energy 80Co thus causing significantly less damage to the adjacent tissue (20).

The temperature obtained and lateral energy spread are lower than those detected when monopolar hook is used thus reducing the risk of tissue damage (21-22).

Now Harmonic scalpel is used widely to include surgery of head and neck, chest and liver, spleen kidney, adrenal glands colon, rectum and others (23, 24).

This paper is a trial to evaluate the safety, efficacy and clinical outcome of LC using harmonic scalpel for securing cystic duct and artery compared with conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy.

PATIENTS, MATERIALS AND METHODS

Prospective interventional study was carried out from 1st February 2012 to 14th January 2013, 60 patients were included by laparoscopic cholecystectomy for symptomatic gallstone disease at Slemani Teaching Hospital. The exclusion criteria included patient with history of upper abdominal laparotomy, suspicion of gallbladder malignancy (based on radiological feature of ultra sound or CT scan) and pregnant women. The subject of this work approved by the ethical committee of Iraqi board of medical specialization in general surgery.

All patients were signed the informed consent and subjected to thorough history and clinical examination focusing on manifestation of gallstone disease. The following investigations were performed liver function tests (total serum bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, SGPT), HCV, HBsAg and HIV markers and abdominal ultrasound to show the state of liver, portal vein, gallbladder and common bile duct and CT scan and MRCP for suspected cases of CBD stone and malignancy of gallbladder, but intraoperative cholangiography is not performed and not available in our center. The patients were randomized into two groups: group A, LC was done using clips and cautery method and group B, LC was done using harmonic scalpel. Each group included 30 patients.

Operative procedures were performed with the patient under general anesthesia, placed in supine position, reversed Trendelenburg position with the right shoulder up and tilted to left. A uniform laparoscopic technique was performed using conventional four ports namely the supra-umbilical port, a port 6 cm below xiphoid in the midline and two ports below right costal margin, one at right midclavicular line and the other at anterior axillary line. Pneumoperitoneum by CO₂ gas at maximum pressure of 14 mmHg was used. Dissection of the gallbladder was initiated at the triangle of Calot with identification and skeletonization of both cystic duct and artery.

In group A LC was done using clips and cautery method: using non-traumatic dissecting forceps for dissection of Calot's triangle. Clipping of both cystic duct and artery by metal clips whereas the division of cystic duct and artery achieved by scissor after that dissection of gallbladder from its bed done with electro cautery hook finally the gallbladder was delivered through the supra-umbilical port.

In group B, LC was done by harmonic scalpel which is used for dissection of Calot's triangle and then occlusion of both cystic duct and artery. The harmonic scalpel was used in dissecting of Calot's triangle with the power level set at (5) which translated into more cutting and less coagulation. For the closure of both cystic duct and artery the instrument was set at power level (3) which translated into less cutting and higher coagulation. The cutting end of cystic duct was checked for presence of any bile leakage or stone.

The primary outcome was the duration of the operation. The second outcome was the conversion rate. The third outcome was perforation of gallbladder during dissection. The fourth outcome was bleeding during the operation and all were reported intra operatively.

Operative time was measured from the insertion of last port to delivery of the gallbladder. The post-operative pain was observed during the first 24hour.

Post-operative analgesia was given in the form of paracetamol 600 mg IV injection bid and hyoscine injection 20 mg bid. Post-operative vomiting assessed during the first (24) hour .The length of hospital stay was determined by the patients' needs and post-operative recovery. In the first post-operative day liver function tests were done and repeated in visits on 7th and 28th days.

Numeric Pain scoring system

Rating	Pain Level
0	No Pain
1 – 3	Mild Pain (nagging, annoying, interfering little with ADLs)
4 – 6	Moderate Pain (interferes significantly with ADLs)
7 – 10	Severe Pain (disabling; unable to perform ADLs)

ADL= Activity of daily living

The Numeric Rating Scale (NRS-11) is an 11–point scale for patient self-reporting of pain. It is for adults and children 10 years old or older. (25)

RESULTS

This study was conducted in a period from 1stFebruary 2012 to 14th January2013, during this time sixty patients were included to this prospective randomized study ,with the mean age 39.0 range from 22 to 66 years, with the mean age 39.0 for group A and 41.0 for group B. They were 85 % female and the remainder were males with non-significant results statistically regarding age and gender. The mean operative time was (33.17±8.23) in group A and (18.53±2.37) in group B; p = <0.001

Table 1 explores duration of operation (33.2 minutes) was reported among group A and mean duration (18.5 minutes) was reported for group B, these associations statistically was highly significant p = < 0.001

Table1 shows association between clip and harmonic scalpel cholecystectomy and duration of operative time.

Type of operation	Operative time (Minutes) Mean± Std. Deviation	P value
Harmonic scalpel	18.53±2.37	<0.001
Clip	33.17±8.23	

The incidence of gall bladder perforation was 43.33% in group Aand13.33% in the B group; p = 0.010.

In the group Atow patients were converted to open cholecystectomy, one of them due to common bile duct injury and the other due to uncontrolled bleeding, but in the harmonic scalpel group all the cases were completed laparoscopically.

Table II shows complications in each group of A & B

Variables	Types of operation		P values
	Group B N 30	Group A N 30	
Conversion to open cholecystectomy	0(0.0)	2(6.66)	0.150
Gall bladder perforation	4(13.33)	13(43.33)	0.010
CBD injury	0(0.0)	1(3.33)	0.313

The incidence of pain at 24 hour postoperatively is significantly more in the group A compared with group B; $p = 0.021$

Moderate and severe pain was reported in group A (43% and 17%) respectively. Mild postoperative pain was reported in harmonic group B (73%) while largest percentage of these associations statistically were significant; $p = 0.021$

Table III shows association of post-operative pain between clip cholecystectomy and harmonic scalpel cholecystectomy

Severity of abdominal pain	Types of operation		P values
	Harmonic	Clip	
Mild	22(64.7%)	12(35.3%)	0.021
Moderate	7(35.0%)	13(65.0%)	
Sever	1(16.7%)	5(83.3%)	

Table IV showing Postoperative complications between the two groups

Variables	Types of operation		P values
	Harmonic No.(%)	Clip No.(%)	
Right shoulder pain	3(50.0)	3(50.0)	1
vomiting	10(41.7)	14(58.3)	0.292
jaundice	0(0.0)	1(100.0)	0.313
postoperative bleeding	0(0.0)	1(100.0)	0.313

Table V shows perioperative details of the liver function test in both group A & B

	TSB (0.3 -1.1)mg/dl Mean± S.D	SGPT Male: (10-40) units/L Female: (8-35) units/L Mean± S.D	S.ALP (40-12) units/L Mean± S.D
Preoperative			
Clip	0.81±0.10	12.6± 3.97	36.72± 14.48
Harmonic	0.80±0.10	11.6± 3.9	43.74± 13.68
Postoperative			
Clip	0.83± 0.09	18.71± 11.36	45.80± 20.81
Harmonic	0.82± 0.09	15.50± 9.18	48.71± 16.05
P values	0.141	<0.631	<0.214

Each returned questionnaire was given an identity number. Prior to data entry and analysis, the questions of study were coded. The data was entered into a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet, after data cleaning; the data was transported into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences-version16.0) package software program for statistical analysis.

Descriptive statistics (numbers and percentage) were calculated for all variables, as well as analytical statistics was done to find the relations between variables. Statistical tests such as Chi-square, and T-test were used. A p-value < 0.05 was considered as significant

DISCUSSION

The harmonic scalpel has been proven to be effective and safe instrument for hemostasis and dissection in laparoscopic surgical procedure ,to date the primary use of harmonic scalpel in LC has been for the division of cystic artery and liver bed dissection ,advancement in harmonic scalpel blade tip now provide for the reliable ultrasonic division and closure of the cystic duct.(26) In addition harmonic scalpel is also an effective tool for closure of biliary tract and vessels whose diameter is less than 5 mm as certified by FDA in 2006.(15, 16) In contra to conventional laparoscopic cholecystectomy, harmonic scalpel save time and clips, make imaging like MRI possible if needed in the future.

Ultracision Harmonic scalpel, Ethicon end surgery contain a generator producing acoustic waves at a frequency of 55,000 Hz , the waves are transferred to the active blade of the instrument , vibrating harmoniously at the same frequency allows 3 effects that act synergistically , coagulation, cutting and cavitation (27).

In this paper the mean operative time was significantly shorter in the harmonic group (18.53±2.37) versus the clip group (33.17±8.23)as a result reached by Samer et al.(28). Who reported the statistically significant shorter mean operative time in the harmonic group which could be attributed to several factors; the statistically significant lower incidence of gallbladder perforation in the harmonic scalpel group with subsequent avoidance of time loss in abdominal lavage and spilled stone retrieval on the other hand the harmonic scalpel is multifunctional instrument . It replaces the four instrument that used routinely in laparoscopic cholecystectomy , namely the dissector , clip applier ,scissor and electrosurgical hook or spatula. (28)

Harmonic scalpel prevents the frequent blind extraction and reinsertion of these different instrument with the subsequent avoidance of time loss, also reduce the risk of visceral and solid organ injury associated with multiple instrument exchange and loss of necessary pneumoperitonium. (29)

Finally the activation of the harmonic does not form smoke, so allow the surgeon to work in a clean operative field throughout the operation. While the use of electro cautery causes smoke formation in the abdominal cavity and decrease visibility. Moreover, smoke must be evacuated by opening the valve of the trocars thus causing repeated loss of pneumoperitonium and a subsequent time loss.(30)

The reported incidence of gallbladder perforation during the LC ranged from 10 to 30% in some studies.(31) While we found just (43.33%) in conventional clip cholecystectomy group and (13.33%) in harmonic scalpel group.

Janssen et al(31)prospectively randomized 199 patient to either harmonic scalpel or electro cautery in the dissection of the gallbladder from the liver bed in the LC .The use of harmonic scalpel was associated with a statistically significant lower incidence of gallbladder perforation compared to electro cautery(16 % vs 50% respectively , p value < 0.001) (32)

So harmonic scalpel devices are preferable over electro cautery in dissection of gallbladder in LC because of minimal local thermal injury no leak of electrical current so no risk of distant tissue damage. In addition the elimination of inadvertent sometimes unrecognized electrical arcing injury with their hazardous squeal supporting the role of harmonic scalpel as potentially safe instrument for dissection. (33, 34)

Samer et al (35) reported that the use of harmonic scalpel was associated with a statistically significant lower incidence of gallbladder perforation compared with clip and electro cautery LC (10 %to 30% respectively p <0.002). (35)

In this paper postoperative pain is significantly lower in harmonic scalpel group in comparison with conventional clip group. P= 0.021. The incidence of pain is significantly more in the clips and cautery group at 24 hours postoperatively when compared with harmonic LC the statistical difference may be related to several factors such as shorter duration of operation so we use less amount of gasses and less incidence of gallbladder perforation in harmonic group so less escape of bile in the peritoneum.(36, 37, 38) The severity of pain was calculated using the numerical pain scoring system.

Factors known to predispose to bile duct damage have included the use of diathermy producing what become known us the diathermy induced bile duct injury.(39,40, 41) The absence of bile duct injury in our study compared to current literature (42-43)adds further evidence to the safety of harmonic scalpel in the dissection of biliary structure in the laparoscopic cholecystectomy thus causing significantly low damage to the adjacent tissue. (44)The greater cost of harmonic scalpel when compared with the cost of electro cautery probe, has been regarded as a potential disadvantage. However in LC using harmonic scalpel is cost effective when considering that we use fewer overall instrument compared with combined cost of using multiple instrument also we are able to carry out more procedure on average list as a result of the shorter operative time and less complication and early hospital discharge and less pain eliminating all these costs makes it cost effective.

CONCLUSION

The harmonic scalpel provides complete hemostasis for all patients and is a safe alternative to standard clipping of cystic duct and artery. It provide a shorter operation time , less evidence of gallbladder perforation, less postoperative time and less rate of conversion to open surgery.

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Psychosocial Correlates of Substance Abuse among Women in a Psychiatric Facility in Nigeria

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Abstract

Psychoactive drug use among the female folk is fast becoming a matter of concern in many countries with gradual increase in the number of female drug abusers. In Sub-Saharan Africa, drug abuse was a male issue hence very little research has carried out among women drug abusers. The objective of this study is to identify the psychosocial variables that are linked to drug abuse among women. The study was conducted among female patients with DSM V diagnosis of substance use disorders in the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital, Lagos, Nigeria. There age range between 18 and 56. Socio-demographic questionnaire was administered to assess age, marital status, educational and employment status of the participants. In addition, information on their history of drug use were collected. Also, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale were administered on all the participants. Data obtained were analysed with SPSS version 16. The results shows that most of the participants were single, unemployed and either students or graduates of tertiary institutions. The drugs they abuse were mainly alcohol, nicotine and cannabis. They were introduced to drugs by friends, started using drugs before the age of 25 and were motivated by the need to derive pleasure. Psychological assessment did not show high level of anxiety or depression among the participants. However, they reported that drug abuse had diminished their health, social and occupational status. The findings reveal the need to address the issue of substance abuse among female adolescents to prevent increase in the number of female drug abusers.

KEY WORDS: Substance abuse, Psychosocial, Psychiatric facility.

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, drug abuse has been documented to be more prevalent among men than women in many parts of the world. For example, alcohol and drug use disorders were found to be more prevalent among men than women [5]. However comparison of prevalence rate among men and women reveal that the gap in the rate among the two genders is smaller for the abuse of pain relievers and tobacco than other substances. A 12 months prevalence rate among men for pain reliever was 1.4% for men and 1.1% for women 18-25 years and 0.5% versus 0.4% for those above 26 years. For tobacco dependence, the rate is 31% for men and 27% for women. A study conducted in Nigeria on abuse of tobacco shows a lifetime prevalence

of 69.4% for men and 46.5% for women. The difference for the abuse of non-prescription drug was 16% for men and 12% for women [4].

The difference in drug use among men and women has been attributed to biological and psychosocial differences between the two genders [2]. Women are at a higher risk of developing health problem like liver damage, brain damage and heart problem as a result of alcohol abuse than men. Women smokers are at higher risk of cancer and heart problem than men. Also, women are more stigmatized than men for drug use [3].

Despite the risk involved, drug use among women appears to be on the increase and this has become a cause of public concern in recent times. There also seems to be an increase in the number of female patients admitted into facilities for treatment of disorders of psychoactive drug use. In the 1950's, it was estimated that there are five or six male substance abusers to every female substance abuser. Estimates in the 1990's indicate that the ratio became approximately three males to every one female [1]. The Centre for Substance Abuse Treatment (1996) reports that 4.5 million women are alcohol abusers and 3.1 million women use illicit drugs on regular basis.

Reports from substance abuse prevention 1991 indicated that single, divorced or separated women were more likely to drink heavily and experience alcohol-related problem than women who were married or widowed. Unmarried women who were living with a significant other were also reported to most likely develop drinking problems. Furthermore, they also reported that heavy drinking was associated more with women who were young and unemployed in the United States than those who were employed. Demographic of women substance users also include low level of education, low income and family history of drug problem [7]

In Sub-Saharan Africa, less attention has been paid to the issue of drug abuse because of the notion that drug abuse is peculiar to men. There is therefore a paucity of reports on drug abuse among females in Nigeria hence the need for this study.

OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this study is to determine the pattern and correlates of psychoactive substance abuse among women on admission for substance abuse disorder.

METHOD

Design

Survey design involving the use of questionnaire and self report psychometric instruments was used to conduct the study.

Instrument

Socio-demographic questionnaire was designed to assess age, gender, marital, educational and employment status of the participants. In addition, the participants were requested to supply information on their history of drug use, that is the type of drug, onset and length of use, mode of use, reason for use and problems associated with drug use. Thereafter, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale developed by Zigmond and Snaith (1983) [8] was also administered. The scale is a 4 point Likert-type scale comprising 14 items with 7 (designated as A) measuring hospital anxiety and the remaining 7 (designated as D) measuring level of depression. Each item is scored between 0 and 3 thereafter, the participant's scores in the 7 items of the two subsections are added to obtain score on anxiety and depression. A score of 0-

7 in any of the two indicate normal level, 8-10 show borderline abnormal while 11-21 indicate abnormality.

Participants

The participants were all female patients with DSMV diagnosis of substance use disorders aged between 18 and 53. They were patients with disorders of psychoactive drug use admitted in the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital, Yaba, Lagos, Nigeria between January 1, 2014 and December 31, 2014.

Procedure

Informed consent was obtained as a pre-requisite for inclusion into the study for all the participants. No form of coercion or inducement was used to force an otherwise unwilling patient to participate in the study. The instrument was administered to them individually. Each of the participants was given the instruments to fill during their clinic days. No time limit was imposed for the test administration as each filled it in the clinical room located in the ward. The testing lasted for an average of 10 minutes. Data obtained was analysed with SPSS version 16.

RESULTS

Descriptive analysis

Means and Standard deviation were computed on the measured variables. The result of the analysis are presented in Table I.

Table I: Means and Standard Deviation Of the measured variables

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age of Respondents	17	33.06	12.20
Age at first use of drug	17	20.94	7.01
Duration of drug use	17	6.73	5.84
Anxiety score	15	5.29	4.70
Depression score	14	4.50	3.69

Table I shows that the mean age of the participants was 33.06 years while the mean age at first use of drug was 20.94 years thus showing that many of them started using drugs at the late adolescent stage. Mean duration of drug use was 6.73 years. The mean anxiety and depression scores are 5.29 and 4.50 respectively both of which are within the normal range.

Descriptive statistical analysis on the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants shows that 10 out of the 17 participants (71.4%) stay with relatives although only 52.9% were single. Six out of the participants were once married but now either separated(5) or divorced(1). 64.7 % of them are either students or graduates of tertiary institutions. However, 58.8% were unemployed.

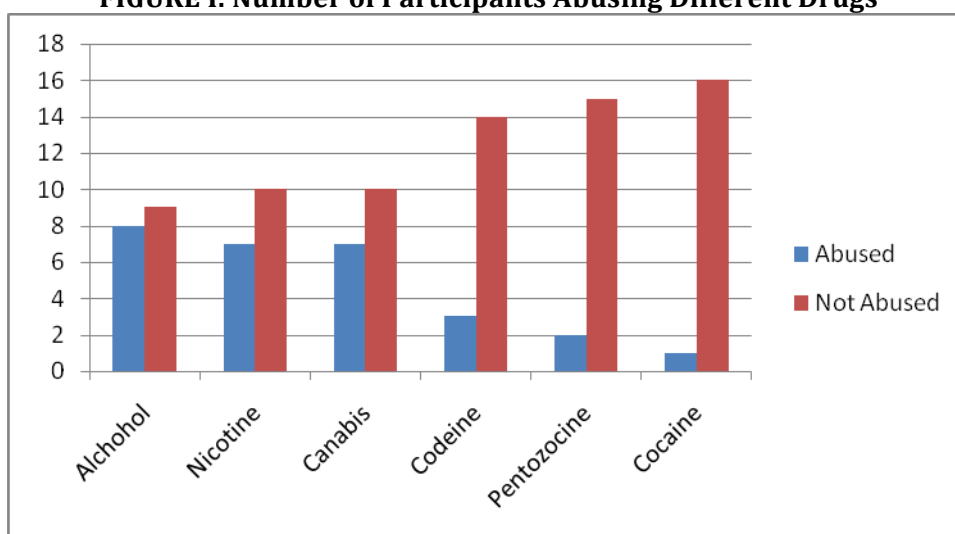
The result also shows low incidence of drug use in the participants' family. Only 6 (35.24%) of the participants reported drug use by their fathers while 1 person reported drug use by siblings. Twelve (70.6%)of the participants were introduced to drugs by friends whereas only a few were introduced to drug through other sources.

The number of participants who had abused different drugs were calculated. The result is presented in table II and figure I

Table II: Number of Participants Abusing Different Drugs

Drug Abused	Abusing	Not Abusing
Alcohol	8	9
Nicotine	7	10
Canabis	7	10
Codeine	3	14
Pentozocine	2	15
Cocaine	1	16

FIGURE I: Number of Participants Abusing Different Drugs

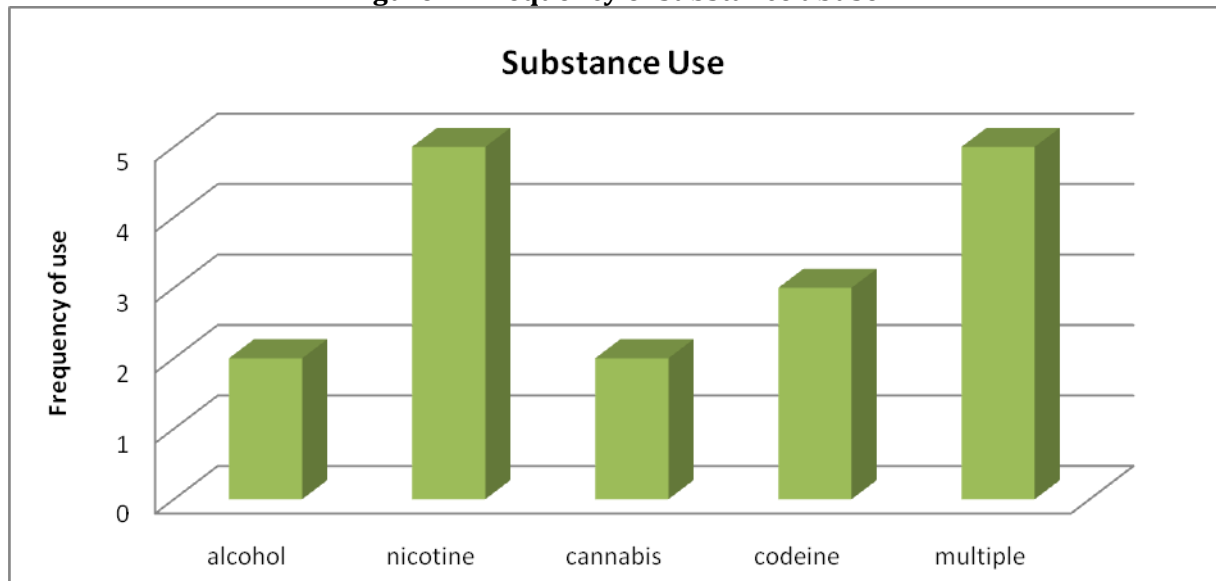


The above table and figure shows that most of the participants had abused alcohol, nicotine and cannabis. The exact drugs abused by each of the participants were analyzed and the result was presented in table III and figure II

Table III: Frequency of substance abuse

Substance	Frequency	Percent
Alcohol	2	11.8%
Nicotine	5	29.4%
Cannabis	2	11.8%
Codeine	3	17.6%
Multiple	5	29.4%
Total	17	100.0%

Figure II: Frequency of substance abuse



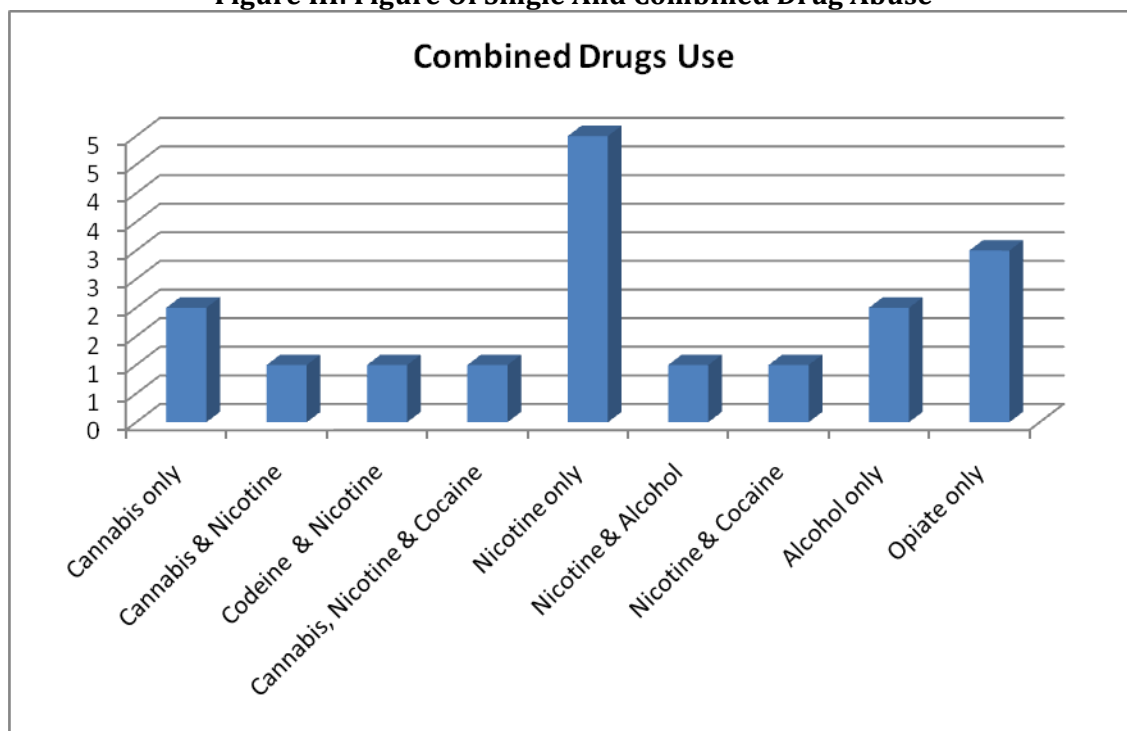
The above shows the prevalence of nicotine, codeine, cannabis and alcohol single drug abuse and high prevalence of multiple drug abuse.

The multiple drug abuse cases were further analysed. The result is presented in table IV and figure III

Table IV: Analysis of single and combined drug abuse.

Drugs	Frequency	Percent
Cannabis only	2	11.8%
Cannabis & Nicotine	1	5.9%
Codeine & Nicotine	1	5.9%
Cannabis, Nicotine & Cocaine	1	5.9%
Nicotine only	5	29.4%
Nicotine & Alcohol	1	5.9%
Nicotine & Cocaine	1	5.9%
Alcohol only	2	11.8%

Figure III: Figure Of Single And Combined Drug Abuse



The above show that cannabis was abused alone and also combined with nicotine and cocaine. Nicotine was abused alone and also combined with alcohol, codeine and cocaine.

Hypotheses Testing

Marital Status was cross tabulated with each of the substance used as recorded individually to establish relationship or influence between the two variables. Null hypothesis of no relationship was tested against the existence of a relationship.

When the Pearson Chi-Square value returns an Asymptotic Significance less than 0.05, the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected otherwise we retain the H0 and conclude that there is no relationship between the two variables.

From tables Va-Vg below, only cannabis hypothesis would be rejected..

Table Va: Crosstabs for Chi Square Tests

Variables	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
alcohol * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%
nicotine * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%
cannabis * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%
codine * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%
pentazocine * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%
cccaine * status	17	94.4%	1	5.6%	18	100.0%

Table Vb: alcohol * marital status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	single	separated	divorced		
Alcohol	1.00	1	6	2	0	9	2.15
	2.00	1	3	3	1	8	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

Table Vc: nicotine * marital status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	single	separated	divorced		
Nicotine	1.00	2	3	2	0	7	3.79
	2.00	0	6	3	1	10	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

Table Vd: cannabis * marital status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	single	separated	divorced		
Cannabis	1.00	2	3	5	0	10	0.03
	2.00	0	6	0	1	7	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

Table Ve: codeine * marital status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	single	separated	divorced		
Codeine	1.00	2	7	4	1	14	0.85
	2.00	0	2	1	0	3	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

Table Vf: Pentazocine * status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	Single	separated	divorced		
pentazocine	1.00	1	9	4	1	15	0.21
	2.00	1	0	1	0	2	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

Table Vg: cocaine * marital status

		Status				Total	χ^2
		married	single	separated	divorced		
Cocaine	1.00	2	8	5	1	16	0.82
	2.00	0	1	0	0	1	
Total		2	9	5	1	17	

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study has shown that most of the women being treated for drug dependence in the facility investigated were in the early adulthood stage who started taking drugs in the late adolescent stage. They were also single, divorced or separated. This is in line with the 1991 report from substance abuse prevention which showed that women with alcohol-related problems were mostly single, divorced and separated. It was also noted that

they live with relations. It is likely that their immediate family members do not associate with them probably due to high level of stigmatization of drug addicts in the society.

Another finding of the study is that many of them had tertiary education. This contradicts the finding by Wetermeyer et.al [7] which show that women who abuse substances in America had low level of education. The difference may be due to lack of access of to drugs or fear of stigmatization. Many of the participants were unemployed. This finding confirms the findings by Wetermeyer et.al [7] where many female substance abusers were observed to be unemployed.

The research findings also reveal the prevalence of multiple drug use. This has serious psychological and health implications. The interaction effect of multiple drug use is damaging to the brain and other vital organs of the body like the liver and the heart.

The few number of participants is an indication that drug problem is not rampant among women as it is among men in Nigeria. This is attributable to the social stigma associated with drug use in general and also the tendency to put female children and adolescents under surveillance. However,

In conclusion, the issue of drug abuse among women should be addressed at all levels considering the growing trend and pattern of abuse. Attention should be paid to peer interactions among young adults, especially those in the tertiary institutions where monitoring is very minimal.

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A Database Model for Increasing the Success of Interior Design in Open Plan Offices in Terms of Acoustic Comfort

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Abstract

The relation between office interior design and employee performance has been an important area of research since many years. Many institutions have been trying new designs and techniques in new buildings within the purview of the studies done in this regard with an eye to increase the efficiency of their employees as well as retaining their employees by attracting them. To this end, the purview and purpose of this study have been determined as proposal of a database model for increasing the success of interior design in open plan offices in terms of acoustic comfort. Whom and how the data base model will be utilized as the study's methodology has been described at the first stage. Subsequently, classification systematic of the database model has been created. The database model has been fictionalized in a holistic way basing on this classification systematic at the final stage. It is ensured to have access to design rules created as a result of various scientific studies as to increase interior design success in open-plan offices in terms of acoustic comfort by virtue of the proposed database model proposed within the purview of the study. Furthermore, it will be also enabled to reach information needed in application of design rules in the database and as to the products or materials sold in the sector. In other words, it will be possible to see which design rule will be able to be realized by which material or product and company information as to them will be made available. In addition, numerous different statistical results such as graphic of registration on the basis of design rule classes, number of design rules on the basis of products, will be able to be obtained thanks to the proposed database model. Such results will be able to be employed for different purposes in both academic and sectoral levels.

Keywords: Open-plan office, noise and sound control, employee performance, office interior design, performance-based design

INTRODUCTION

"Office interior", unlike other places, has a different significance for human life considering the time spent therein [1; 2; 3; 4]. The relation between office interior design and employee performance has been an important area of research since many years. Many institutions have been trying new designs and techniques in new buildings within the purview of the studies done in this regard with an eye to increase the efficiency of their employees as well as retaining their employees by attracting them. Employee needs in other words user requirements in the office interiors designs have begun to be taken into consideration much more to this end. [5; 6]. Govindarajulu and Bonnie [7] state on this issue that the businesses in the 21st century show a strategic approach in environmental management to increase their efficiency by raising the performance level of the employees [8]. In other words, satisfaction of the employees with the

office space in our day is considered as an important factor in the success of an institution and an effective indicator for increasing the performance of the employees. This finding is supported by the research conducted through Dole and Schroeder in 2001 which has revealed that the employees who are satisfied of the physical work space at their work places accomplish better results in their works [9]. Moreover, it is also declared in the findings of the research carried out through Patterson et.al. [10] that the companies with more satisfied employees, are likely to achieve better jobs, especially in terms of productivity and profitability [8].

New requirements as to the advancement of technology, increase in the number of employees, development of different work models and the needs for using the space more efficiently have led to variations in arrangement of interior of offices. And this has necessitated categorizing the types of office plans to evaluate the relation between employee performance and interior arrangement correctly.

It can be observed that types of office plans are basically categorized in five different ways as a result of literature researches made in this context [9;10; 12; 13; 14; 15; 16; 17; 18; 19; 20; 21; 22]. These office plan types are the combination of data in the table named "Office types defined by different architectural and functional features" used in "Office type in relation to health, well-being and job satisfaction among employees" article of Bodin of Danielsson and Bodin [11] and data in the book of Van Meel, et al. [23] named "Planning office spaces: a practical guide for managers and designers" which is titled as "Cell office, shared office, open plan office, flexible office and combi office"

It has been revealed that offices are of particular importance compared to all other spaces in terms of human-space relation and office interior design has been found to be very effective in terms of employee performance as a result of all this literature work carried out. Furthermore, it has been identified that the office plan types have to be considered to describe the relation between employee performance and office interior design correctly.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purview and purpose of this study have been determined as proposal of a database model for increasing the success of interior design in open plan offices in terms of acoustic comfort. The reason of limitation of this study with "open-plan office" is that 70% of all office plan types in the world are consisted of "open-plan offices" in terms of intensity of use [24; 25]. The reason of discussing acoustic comfort in interior design is Karaaslan and Yazıcıoğlu's [26] determination of "in-office noise" as the most important factor affecting the employee performance in open-plan offices by 56%. It will be described at the first stage by whom and in what way the data base model will be used as the study's methodology. Subsequently, classification systematic of the database model will be created. The database model will be fictionalized in a holistic way basing on this classification systematic at the final stage.

DETERMINATION OF HOW AND BY WHOM THE DATABASE MODEL WILL BE UTILIZED

The main purpose of the database model which will be proposed for improving the performance of interior design in terms of acoustic comfort in open-plan offices is establishing the relation between developments in the sector and the scientific studies carried out on this subject and to provide access of information to relevant parties. Accordingly database model will be able to be used as shown in Table 1.

Table1. Utilization of the database model

User	Means of usage
Interior architect-practician	They will be able to reach the design rules created as a result of a variety of scientific studies in the literature for increasing interior design performance in terms of acoustic comfort in open-plan offices and use them at different stages of their projects.
	They will also be able to have access to information as to design rules in the database obtained by various scientific studies and as to the products or materials sold in the sector. In other words, it will be possible to see which design concept can be performed by which the material or product and will also be able to have access to company information of foregoing.
Academician	They will be able to have access to all of the scientific studies on the subject systematically.
	They will be able to see in which areas the relevant scientific studies have been conducted intensively and rarely. This will help the academics to determine the studying areas more accurately.
	They will be able to see which scientific studies conducted on the subject correspond to the products or materials in the sector.
	They will be able to add the scientific studies they have conducted on the subject to this data base and establish the sectoral relation with the study subject thereof.
Sector	The sector will be able to follow scientific studies that have been conducted as to the products or materials in the sales line thereof and use them in their product R & D works.
	The sector will be able to enter the information as to new products to the database and establish the relation between these information and the academic studies.

DETERMINATION OF CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMATIC OF THE DATABASE MODEL

Systematic classification of the design rules to be included in the database will be firstly identified in order to determine by which classification systematic the database model will be configured. Later, it will be determined how the relation will be established between the information of the product or materials which are required and which are sold in the sector in the process of application of these design rules.

Determination of Classification Systematic of Design Rules

The following steps will be taken with a view to determine the systematic classification of the design rules in the literature which will be obtained by virtue of the scientific studies:

- a. Determining the stages of the open-plan office interior architecture projects: For determination of the stage of design rules in the database
 - b. Determination of the interior components of the open-plan office spaces and activity areas: For identification of which design rules in the database belong to the which interior components
- a. Determining the stages of the open-plan office interior architecture projects
Phases of the interior design project basically consist of five stages disregarding the size and purview of the project. These are respectively as follows [27]:
 - Preliminary preparation stage
 - Schematic design stage
 - Design development stage
 - Approval stage by preparation of official documents

- Application stage

Preliminary preparation stage, schematic design stage and design development stages of interior design project stages defined hereinabove will be utilized mainly when configuring the database model which will be proposed for increasing the interior design performance in terms of acoustic comfort in open-plan offices and they will be titled as follows:

- Preliminary preparation stage
- Determination of user requests and requirements
- Analysis of space
- Design stage

The approval stage by preparation of official documents and application stage will be excluded from the scope of the database model. The reason for this is that the model database will not include information and application techniques as to official proceedings for improving acoustic comfort.

- b. Determining the interior architecture components of the open-plan office spaces and activity fields
 Determining the interior architecture components of open-plan office spaces and interior components of the activity areas it belongs to is necessary to determine which design rules in the database belong to which interior architecture components. The results provided from literature research carried out to this end were observed to be as Table2.

Table 2. Interior architecture components of open-plan office spaces and activity areas

References	Spaces and activity areas in open-plan offices
[28]	Entrance / Reception Individual (cellular) office Cubicle Open office Meeting rooms Conference rooms Open activity, rest and working areas for everyone Copier and printer Kitchen Toilet
References	Interior architectural components of spaces and activity areas in open-plan offices
[29; 30]	Floor Wall Ceilling Mobile and stationary dividing element Furnitures Doors Windows Installition Sound systems Lighting elements Accessories

Design rules classification systematic in the database model in line with all these results obtained are structured as specified in Table3.

Table 3. Classification systematic of products or materials of companies within the data base model

Main group	Sub-group	Design Rule No	References
Preliminary preparation stage	Determination of user requests and requirements Analysis of space	KU01, KU02,... M01, M02,...
Design stage	Space and activity areas in open plan offices Entrance / Reception Individual (cellular) office Cubicle Open office Meeting rooms Conferance rooms Open activity, rest and working areas for everyone Copier and printer Kitchen Toilet	G01,G02,... H01, H02,... C01,C02,... AÇ01, AÇ02,... T01, T02,... KS01, KS02,... OA01, OA02,... F01, F02,... MU01, MU02,... TU01, TU02,...
	Interior design components for sapce and activity areas in open plan offices Floor Wall Ceilling Mobile and stationary dividing element Furnitures Doors Windows Installition Sound systems Lighting elements Accessories	D01, D02,... DU01, DU02,... TA01, TA02,... B01,B02,... M01, M02,... K01, K02,... P01, P02,... TS01, TS02,... SS01, SS02,... A01, A02,... AK01, AK02,...

Creation of Systematic for Establishment of Relation between Design Rules and the Sector
It has to be determined firstly how the data sets in which the products or the materials of the companies will be included will be structured for the creation of systematic for establishment of the relation of the design rules and the sector. To this end, a market research was carried out at this stage of the study and it was decided to make the structure as shown in Table4 in line with the results obtained.

Table 4. Classification systematic of products or materials of companies within the data base

Design Rule no	Name of Product/Material	Web address of Product/Material	Firm Name	Firm contact information	Firm web address
OA01					
D06
TS03					
.....					

The relation between the design rules set classification systematic of which is defined in Table3 and products or materials systematic of companies systematic of which are defined in Table4 will be established by the code defined as " Design clue no. "

FICTIONALIZING THE DATABASE MODEL

Conceptual model has been transformed into a relational database model in objective model size basing on the output of the works within conceptual dimension hereinabove and by using Microsoft Access Relational Database Development Platform. The tables in which the information is organized within the scope of model in conceptual dimension and the relation between them can be seen in Relationships Screen in Figure 1.

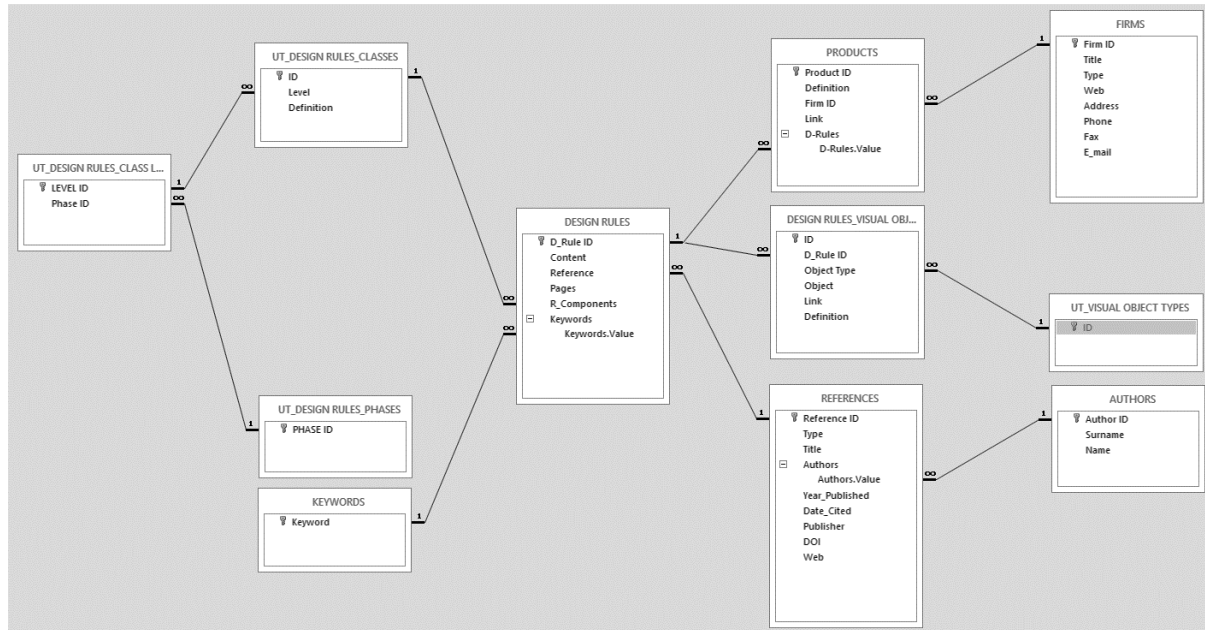


Figure 1. The relationships screen representing the conceptual structure of the model: Relationships between tables and relational database architecture

The model provides access to a large number of interfaces fictionalized as modules by an Opening Interface reached at the beginning (Figure 2). These modules are listed below:

- Design Rules Module
- Products and Companies Module
- References and Authors Module
- Supporting Objects Module
- Reporting Module

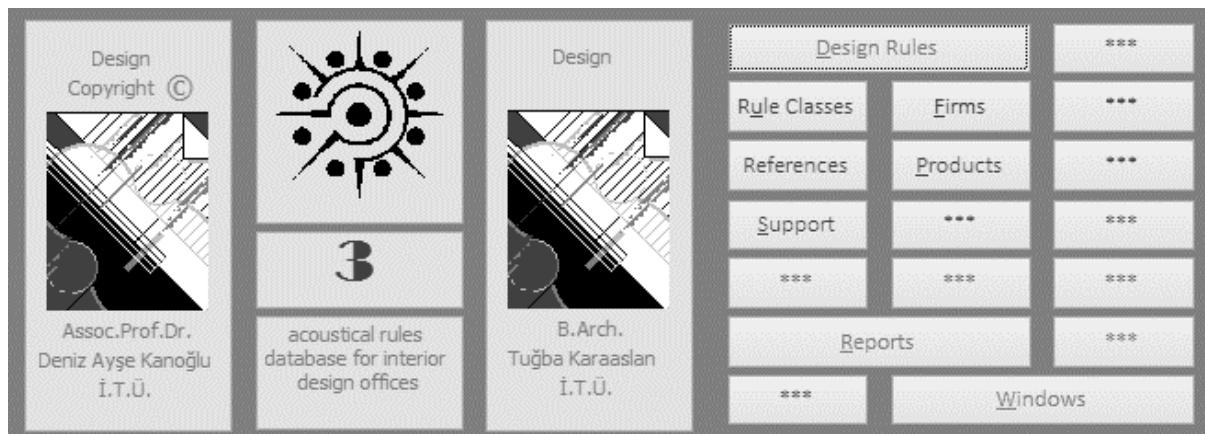


Figure 2. The opening interface

Design rules determined from the literature and transferred to the system can be seen as a list in Design Rules Interface Display and Filtering Interface accessed from the opening interface (Figure 3); selections made from the parameter groups in the drop box located on the right side can be reported by filtration with the desired parameters (reference publication design class rules, keywords).

D_Rule ID	Content	Reference	Pages	R_Components	Keywords
A_01	Tavan yansımaları, 1970' lerde yaygın olarak kullanılan ve özellikle workstationlar arasında bulunan "kusuurlu bölgelerde	RF_003		A	NA
A_02	Apık planlı ofislerin tasarımı esnasında aydınlatma armatürleri belirlerken, sesin armatür yüzeyi üzerinden yansımaları	RF_000		A	NA
A_03	Apık planlı ofislerin tasarımı esnasında aydınlatma armatürlerinin belirlemesinde, sesin armatür yüzeyi üzerinden yansı	RF_000		A	NA
A_04	Apık (parabolik panjurlu lambalar) aydınlatma armatürleri sesi dağıtmaktadır (Alkan, 2008; Yüce, 2009). Bu apık	RF_000		A	NA
A_05	Derin hücreli parabolik aydınlatma armatürleri, zamanla daha iyi ipik kalitesi sağlamakta, daha az güç gerektirmekte ve	RF_000		A	NA
A_06	Apık planlı ofis tasarımı yapılırken, asma aydınlatma armatürleri için delikli ya da dübükey yüzeylerden oluşan tipler teri	RF_000		A	NA
A_07	İndirekt lambalar (çalışma birimlerinde bölme üstüne yerleştirilen dolaylı aydınlatma fişurleri), birimlerine bağlı olar	RF_000		A	NA
AC_01	Apık ofis alanlarının iç mekan düzenlemesinde, akustik anlamda mahremiyet ve kapallılık seviyesini yükseltmek için duv	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_02	Apık ofis alanlarında, çalışma istasyonu, geçiş alanı, donanım yerleri vb. özel ve genel alanları tanımlamak için bölmeler	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_03	Apık ofis yerleşimi dolayısı ile kolaylaştırıcı nitelikte alanlanmalıdır (Alkan, 2008). Aksi takdirde dolayım yollarının kullanı	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_04	Apık ofis alanlarında özellikle yüksek konsantrasyon gerektirilen ofis alanları, genel alanlardan ve yoğun trafikt	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_05	Apık ofis alanlarında, yeterli düzeyde mahremiyetin sağlanabilmesi için, çalışma birimleri birbirlerine uygun mesafede	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_06	Apık ofis alanlarında, yeterli düzeyde mahremiyetin sağlanabilmesi için, çalışma birimleri birbirlerine uygun mesafede	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_07	Apık ofis alanlarında kullanılan bölmelere yakın yerleştirilmelidir. Böylece defraksiyon (kırılarak yayılım) apık çok büy	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_08	Apık ofislere ait iç mekan düzenlemesi yapılırken takım çalışmasının gerçekleştirileceği alanlarda, küçük ve alçak banyerler	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_09	Apık ofislerde yer alan tüm paneller ve diğer geniş yüzeyler için malzeme seçimi yapılırken ses emicilik değerinin SAA (Sou	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_10	Apık ofislerde tavanelarla ilgili malzeme seçimi yapılırken ses emicilik değerinin SAA (Sound Absorption Average) ≥ 0.	RF_000		AC	NA
AC_11	Kapalı ofis düzeninden apık ofis düzenine geçiş, sadece mekansal değil, aynı zamanda kültürel bir dönüşüm olduğundur	RF_000		AC	NA

Figure 3. Design rules monitoring and filtering interface

Reference publication information, design rules for class information and keywords can be defined in the Interface Design Rules Definition reached from here by selecting from the relevant tables and by relating with the selected design rule (Figure 4).

The interface shows the 'Design Rule ID' as AC_08. It includes sections for 'Reference' (RF_000), 'Comment' (AC), 'Date' (NA), and 'Keywords' (NA). The 'Content' section describes the rule's application in office design. The 'Related Visual Objects' section lists 'Arch_Design_Su_V' and 'Büyük İmaj'. The 'Selected Object's Details' section provides information about 'Takım çalışması alt bir alanda, çalışanlar arasında direkt, kırılarak v'.

Figure 4. Design rules defining interface

Products Interface is the second interface which can be accessed through the opening interface. In this section, the products existing in the market can be recorded by relating to design rules which have been identified in the literature and transferred to the system (Figure5).

Product ID	Definition	Firm ID	Link	D-Rules
ECO_ACUSTA_SCR	Ecophon Akusto™ Screen	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Vertical-applications/Akusto/	AC_02, AC_09, AK_01, B_03, DU_01, DU_04, DU_05, F_01,
ECO_ACUSTA_WP	Ecophon Akusto™ Wall Panel	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Vertical-applications/Akusto/	AC_02, AC_09, AC_09, B_02, B_02, B_03, B_05, B_08, B_10,
ECO_COMBISON	Ecophon Combison™	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Combison/	H_03, MB_03, OA_01, OA_02, OA_04, OA_05, T_01, T_05,
ECO_FOCUS	Ecophon Focus™	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Focus/	G_01, G_02, H_02, MB_03, OA_01, OA_02, OA_05, T_01, T_05,
ECO_GEDINA	Ecophon Gedina™	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Gedina/	MB_03, TA_04, TA_05, TA_07, TA_13,
ECO_MASTER	Ecophon Master™	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Master/	AC_10, AK_01, F_01, F_02, G_01, G_02, K5_04, K5_10, K5_15,
ECO_MASTER_ALPHA	Ecophon Master™ Alpha	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Master/	T_08,
ECO_MASTER_GAMMA	Ecophon Master™ Gamma	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Modular-ceilings/Master/	T_08,
ECO_SOLO	Ecophon Solo™	SGE	http://www.ecophon.com/en/products/Tree-hanging-units-and-baffles/Solo/	AC_10, G_01, G_02, K5_10, K5_15, MB_03, OA_02, T_01,

Figure 5. The identification interface of the relation between the products existing in the market and design rules

Companies Interface where the companies which are the producers or suppliers of the products described in this interface and companies which are the publishers of reference that publications is also accessible from the Opening Interface (Figure 6).

Firm ID	Title	Type	Web	Address	Phone	Fax	E_mail
SGE	Saint-Gobain Ecophon	Manufacturer	http://www.ecophon.com/	Saint-Gobain Ecophon AB Box 500 SE 265 03 Hyllinge Sweden	+46 42 17 99 00	+46 42 22 59 29	
T&F	Taylor and Francis	Publisher	http://www.taylorandfrancis.c				

Figure 6. Identification and Monitoring Interface of Producer/Supplier/Publisher Companies

Another interface which can be accessed through the Opening Interface is the Support Information Interface which is accessible to the following data sets:

- Design Rule Classes List (Figure 7)
- Design Rules Class Levels List (Figure 8)
- Phase List of Design Rules (Figure 9)
- List of Authors (Figure 10)
- Keywords List (Figure 11)
- Design Rules Visual Object Types List (Figure 12)

ID	Level	Definition
	GENERAL	All Items
A	COMPONENT	Lighting elements
AÇ	SPACE	Open office
AK	COMPONENT	Accessories
B	COMPONENT	Separating elements
C	SPACE	Cubicle
D	COMPONENT	Floors
DU	COMPONENT	Walls
F	SPACE	Photocopy and printer
G	SPACE	Entrance/Reception

Figure 7. Identification and monitoring interface of Design Class Rules List

LEVEL ID	Phase ID
COMPONENT	DESIGN
GENERAL	PRE_DESIGN
SPACE	DESIGN

Figure 8. Identification and monitoring interface for levels related to Design Rule Classes (space/component)

PHASE ID
DESIGN
PRE_DESIGN

Figure 9. Identification and monitoring interface of the phases of the Class of Design Rules

Author ID	Surname	Name
AUT_000	Available	Not
AUT_002	Kring Herbert	R.
AUT_003	Aknesil	Erdem
AUT_004	Acar	B.
AUT_005	Bradley	J.S.

Figure 10. Identification and monitoring interface of the authors of the publications



Figure 11. Identification and monitoring interface of keywords



Figure 12. Identification and monitoring interface of visual objects types associated with design rules

Finally, graphic type of reports obtained by making numerical analysis via transmitted data to the system can be accessed from the Reporting Interface (Figure 13 and Figure 14).

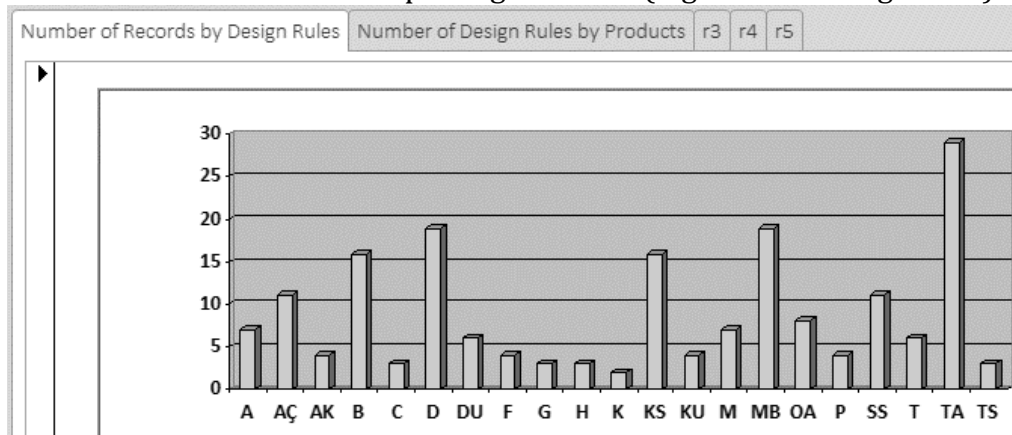


Figure 13. Graph of recorded numbers based on Design Class Rules

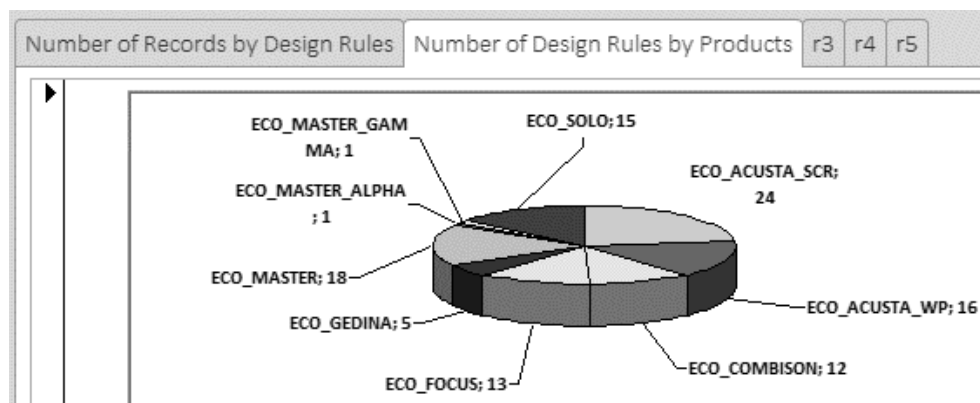


Figure 14. Graph of the number of Design Rules on the basis of products

RESULTS

Design rules in the literature created as a result of various scientific studies for increasing interior design success in terms of acoustic comfort in open-plan offices will be reached by virtue of this database. In addition access will be provided to information related to products or materials needed in the application phase of the design rules in the database and which are sold in the sector. In other words, it will be able to be seen which design rule can be performed with which material or product and company information related to them will be able to be accessed.

When the database is used by academics making researches in the field of acoustic all the scientific studies made on acoustic comfort in open-plan offices will be reached by virtue of a specific systematic and it will be able to be observed the subjects on which there is and on which there is not intensity.

Companies working in the field of acoustic in the sector will be able to follow the scientific studies which have been made as to the product or material within the sales range thereof thanks to the database and use them in their product R & D works.

In addition, numerous different statistical results such as graphic of registration on the basis of design rule classes, number of design rules on the basis of products, will be able to be obtained thanks to the proposed database model. Such results will be able to be employed for different purposes in both academic and sectoral levels.

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Peace Education as a Recipe for Terrorism in West Africa

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Abstract

Peace is a sine-qua-non for development all over the world. The current trend of terrorism reflects the need to deliberately teach culture of peace and tolerant attitude among youths. According to Ogunyemi and Adetoro (2013), the need to 'catch them young' to curtail culture of violence and aggressive behaviours among the adolescents needs urgent attention. Most nations in West Africa had witnessed and are still witnessing several political, religious, socio-cultural and ethnic-related conflicts that have claimed many lives and properties in the last three decades. Prominent among these is the rampaging Boko Haram insurgency that has claimed over 15,000 lives since 2009 with more than 300 schools damaged or destroyed and over 800,000 children displaced in North Eastern Nigeria (UNICEF, 2015). This worrisome trend calls for new strategies to promote peace culture through education. This is why UNESCO (1998) canvassed that Peace Education should be taught as a veritable means of promoting necessary attitudinal change to evolve a culture of peace and non-violence behaviour. This paper therefore intends to explore the various theoretical background that are relevant to behaviour modification like Bandura (1976) social learning theory; Jenkins (2006) and Kester (2007) pedagogies of engagement theory. These theoretical frameworks were used to justify Learning Together and Constructive Controversial classroom engagements for attitudinal transformation against terrorism. With copious evidences, the various multi-track peace education approaches like tolerant sociometry, and Reciprocal Peer Relations Conditional Learning (RPRCL) were recommended to form parts of the curricula recipe to stem the rising tide of terrorism in West Africa. Good governance was also suggested to be the pillar for the peace education curricula rescue.

INTRODUCTION

The culture of peace seems to be lacking in some notable West African countries. This is due to "unwholesome state-civil relations" and "the current spate of terrorism" (Adeyemi, 2013). Although terrorism is generally considered a recent development in West Africa but the use of terror as a strategy is not new. According to Ewi (2012), a bomb exploded in Accra in 1964 predating the assassination of President Kwame Nkrumah while kidnapping, hijacking, hostage-taking, murder etc. were common phenomena during political activities of post-independence era. The coups and counter-coups coupled with ethnic massacre as witnessed in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire and Guinea added more to the volatility of insecurity in the 1980s and 1990s in West Africa. The recent 2015 palace coups in Guinea Bissau and Burkina Faso no doubt indicated that polity in West Africa is still fragile.

Transitional criminal activities like kidnapping, sea piracy, human trafficking, cybercrime, etc have continued to pose serious challenges to governance in West Africa. According to Vorrath (2013), they constitute "crime-terror nexus" for the people of West Africa. The activities of Boko Haram insurgency has reached a crescendo such that it is networking with renown terror organizations like Al Shabaab of East Africa, Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM) and recently the Islamic state of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) to commit genocide in West Africa. It is on

record that the six year old Boko Haram insurgencies in Nigeria, Niger, Chad and Cameroon has left more than 20,000 people dead (Petesch, 2015) and over 1.4 million people displaced from their homes (Oduala & Ola, 2015). Consequently, the United States of America recently decided to commit 300 of its troops along with surveillance drones to combat the militants in Cameroon (Sahara Report, 14th October, 2015).

The questions this paper therefore attempted to answer are:

- What are the scholars' positions on the concept of terrorism and its root in West Africa?
- What forms and theoretical frameworks are available to explain the causes of terrorism in the sub-region?
- What is the position of peace education to build culture of peace in minimizing terror acts in West Africa?
- What other transformational learning pedagogies are available to combat terror behaviour in the minds of West Africans?

Terrorism in West Africa Conceptualized with its Background

Terrorism as an act of violence, threat of violence, intention to coerce, compel or intimidate a population or government into some form of action (Maogoto, 2003 cited by Minteh & Perry, 2013) emanated from political and socio-religious movements in West Africa. Right from the days of anti-colonial struggle to the era of coups and counter-coups, combined with anti-government social movements were later to be complicated with religious fundamentalism which continuously fuel terror acts in West Africa. It is even on record that criminal elements trading in kidnapping, hostage and drug trafficking, cybercrime, suicide bombing, health-terror etc have compounded the problem by exploiting the protocol on free movement of persons in West Africa (Odiogor, 2013).

A survey of literature by Afokpa (2013) suggests that most scholars agree that criminality and terrorism serve the same purpose of "unlawful use of force or violence against people and government", sometimes with "inspirational ideologies" and "hatred" as the motivational factors (Minteh & Perry, 2013). Statistically, Ewi (2012) recorded 50 major terror attacks in West Africa between 2000 and 2009 which swelled up to 300 attacks between 2010 and 2012. He also reported that 90% of the attacks occurred in Nigeria with 65% of them having to do with religion.

While reporting transnational organized crime in West Africa as diverse and complex act of terrorism, Vorrath (2013) noted that challenges of violent attacks were often associated with oil and minerals' piracy along the Gulf of Guinea, oil bunkering in the Niger Delta, illegal exploitation of gold and diamonds in Ghana, rubber and timber theft in Sierra Leone, human and drug trafficking enroot Senegal. Even the 2009 assassination of the President and the Armed Forces Chief of staff in Guinea-Bissau was linked to drug-related terror act (Vorrath, 2013). Indeed, West Africa is regarded as the most vulnerable to terrorist attacks because of management problem in the extractive industries, trans-border criminal networks, bad governance and illegal supply of small arms and light weapons (Bolaji, 2014). Added to these factors are chronic corruption, weak institutions, farmers-grazers land conflict, porous borders, ethnic and religious violence (Ewi, 2012).

Forms and Theoretical Frameworks on Causes of Terrorism in West Africa

According to Udeh (2011), the United States of America classified terrorism into six categories thus:

- **Political Terrorism:** This involves violent criminal behaviour that is often exhibited during electioneering campaigns or post-election violence, in order to capture power by all means. According to International Relations and Security Network (2012), the relationship between terrorism and electoral violence has been well established. This was the case of post-election violence in Cote d'Ivoire that claimed more than 3000 lives between 2011 and 2013 (Genocide Watch, 2013). As well as the tragic post-election violence of April 2011 that claimed more than 1000 lives in Nigeria (Osimen & Ologunowa, 2015).
- In Nigeria, opposition groups mostly northerners felt the election was a political manipulation in favour of President Goodluck Jonathan to the detriment of the "unofficial power-sharing agreement" in Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) that was to lead to Northern hegemony until 2015 (Udama, 2014). There was even speculation that these disenchanting Northern political elites later transformed into sponsors of Boko Haram sect to make Nigeria ungovernable. Evidences are bound that during the 2007 and 2011 elections, some Nigerian Northern Governors had been sponsoring the Boko Haram leaders as their political protectors (247 Ureports, 2015). Even the Nigerian Army on September 26, 2015 raised an alarm that they have information that some prominent individuals and political groups who hail from Borno State in particular and North-East generally are determined to scuttle the fight against Boko Haram terrorists in order for them to continue to enjoy certain benefits (Nigerian Eye September 26, 2015). Earlier, Chad Republic and France interest in oil drilling in Chad basin had been well documented as a reason for international partisanship (The Cable, 2015, Ukwu, 2015; Ends 2014 & Freedom Africa 2014). Even, a former Governor of Borno State was said to be a big player in the Chad oil and gas industry and at the same time introduced two former Nigerian Presidents to the lucrative investments (Freedom Africa, 2014). Hence, political terrorism can be linked with some economic gains of some individuals and international community.
- **Civil Disorder:** This is a common type of terror act in West Africa. It is described as a collective violence that interferes with the peace, security and normal functioning of the community (Udeh, 2011). Cases of such are bound on boundary disputes, traffic and students' riots, market disturbances, borders' clashes, farmers-grazers land conflicts etc. indeed, the June 21st 2015, Sodom and Gomorrah riots in Accra occasioned by peoples' displacement after a demolition exercise (The Guardian June 22, 2015) as well as the July 30, 2015 students' riots that claimed two lives in Northern Ghana were examples of civil disorders (Daily Guide July 31, 2015). Equally, the protest of Nigerian youths in Cote d'Ivoire on May 6, 2013 over maltreatment by state securities was another example of civil disorder (Premium Times May 6, 2013). It is also on record that the Modakeke-Ife and Umuleri-Aguleri massacres of the 1980s and 1990s respectively in Nigeria were civil disorders that could be likened to terrorist acts (Fatile & Awotokun, 2009; Nwanegbo, 2009).
- **Non-Political Terrorism:** This in the view of Udeh (2011), refers to conscious design to create and maintain a high degree of fear for coercive purposes, but the end is individual or collective gain rather than the achievement of a political objective. Consequently, other terror acts like kidnapping, cybercrime, narco-terror, armed robberies, abduction and human trafficking come under non-political terrorism. A current case of cyber terrorism was the duping of Nigeria's Vice-President to the tune of 8 million naira (Nairaland Forum October 24, 2015). Indeed, sporadic kidnapping and hostage-taking for ransom have been major source of AQIM and Boko Haram financing in West Africa. Goita (2011) reported that AQIM alone received a total of 70 million dollars as kidnapping ransoms and 60 million dollars for 600-kilogram cocaine shipment between 2006 and 2011. The Hezbollah connection in the illicit funding of

terrorism through Lebanese diamond trading in Sierra Leone and importation of used cars from United States of America to Togo and Benin with narcotic trafficking from South America were reported to have fetched an estimated 329 million dollars out of which about 150 million dollars was seized between 2011 and 2012 (Afokpa, 2013). Hezbollah through Lebanese commercial activities is seen as both a bigger terrorist and criminal group financing its terrorist affiliates with AQIM and Boko Haram in West Africa. Boko Haram bank robberies' fortune was also reported to have fetched terrorism in Nigeria between 500 million and 1 billion Naira (3 to 6 million dollars) in 2011 alone (Afokpa, 2013).

- Indeed, kidnapping for ransom in Nigeria has become a good source of enrichment for both local and international criminal gangs. Nigeria was ranked 11th on world highest kidnapping prevailing countries in 2008 (Okoli & Agada, 2014). At the local scene, around the Niger-Delta region, the movement for the Emancipation of Nigeria Delta (MEND) and the 'Bakassi boys' in the Eastern region were allegedly engaging in frequent hostage-taking, kidnapping for ransom, pipeline vandalization, oil theft, arson and ambush between 2008 and 2012 (Adeyemi, 2013). Ngwama (2014) also reported that more than 200 foreigners were kidnapped between 2006 and 2008 in the region with the sum of over 600 million naira collected as ransom. In addition, sometimes the victims were maimed, raped, or killed while the families and associates are knocked down by intractable trauma (Ngwama, 2014). It is even on record that the former Governor of Nigeria's Central Bank (Prof. Charles Soludo) had to pay as much as 200 million naira to secure the release of his father from kidnapers in 2010 (Adeyemi, 2013), while the former Secretary to the Federal Government of Nigeria, Chief Olu Falae had to pay a ransom of 5 million naira for his release from his abductors in 2015 (Badejo, 2015). Thus, prices for ransom are quoted based on the worth of the victim (Adeyemi, 2013).
- **Quasi- Terrorism:** This refers to activities that are incidental to the commission of crimes of violence that are similar in form and method to genuine terrorism (Udeh, 2011). These include various forms of domestic violence, rape, customs – smugglers encounters, plane hijacking etc. These are common daily affairs which in most cases may lead to government declaration of curfew as a result of wanton destruction of lives and properties. All the cultists' activities in schools and communities with their attendant maiming and killing of people can be categorized under quasi-terrorism.
- **Limited Political/Religious Terrorism:** These acts of terrorism are committed for political or religious motives but not for the purpose of capturing or controlling state. Most religious fundamental conflicts like that of Christianity versus Islam and Islam versus traditional religions are of limited dimensions. For examples, the Maitatsine religious riots of 1980 in Kano that claimed 4,177 lives with extensive destruction of property, the Kataf (Christians) versus Zangon (Muslims) conflict of 1992 in Zaria, the Sharia law crises of year 2000, all in Northern Nigerian can be categorized as religious terrorism (Ugwu, 2009). Indeed, most religious crises that snowball into terrorist acts are due to attempts on forceful evangelism.
- **Official or state terrorism:** This could also be known as structural terrorism. It refers to government terrorism through fearful and oppressive rule. According to Udeh (2011), it is a terrorism carried out by government in pursuit of its political objectives, sometimes as part of foreign policy. Thus, the issue of Umaru Dikko abduction in London in 1984 by Buhari/Idiagbon regime and the assassination of Dele Giwa (a fearless journalist) through a letter bomb in Nigeria on 19th October, 1986 during Babangida era were cases of state terrorism (Ewi, 2012). The August, 2015 palace coup

in Burkina Faso by the Presidential Guard leading to riots and political tension was another classical example of state terrorism in West Africa. Equally, Udama (2013) identified the murder of Chief Moshood Abiola, the Nigerian acclaimed winner of June 12, 1993 election in detention during the late General Sanni Abacha regime and that of Chief Bola Ige (former Nigerian Minister of Justice) during President Obasanjo regime in 2003 as other examples of official/state terrorism. It is even observed that very often, motorists and commercial vehicle drivers easily fall prey to the bullets of state securities as a result of non-release of bribe in Nigeria (Udama, 2013).

- The last form of terrorism which is uncommon in literature is health-related terrorism. It would be recalled that in the 1960s to 1970s, it was cholera but in the 1980s, it was HIV/AIDS and today it is the Ebola diseases that is terrifying the whole of West African countries. According to the BBC news report of 19th June, 2015, Ebola disease has claimed about 11,284 lives since its outbreak in the last one year in West Africa. Liberia recorded the highest causality figure of 4,808, followed by Sierra Leone with 3,949, Guinea with 2,512, Nigeria with 9 and its continuous outbreak are still being reported in Sierra Leone, Liberia and Guinea up till today (BBC news, June 19 2015). Thus, Ebola becomes a health-related terror that still terrifies all West African residents.

Theoretical Frameworks Adduced for Terrorism

In literature, different theoretical frameworks have been adduced by scholars for causes of terrorism in West Africa. For political terrorism, since politics is a process of competition to capture power, then scholars often aggregate conflict theory (Truman, 1984) to explain why oppositions in politics are in desperation and constant struggle to capture power as Boko Haram even claimed at a point in time that their main objective was to create a "Sunnah caliphate" of their own and consequently declared Gworza as their headquarter with their flag hoisted there. This theory is also supported by relative deprivation theory (Dollard, et al., 1939 & Davies, 1962) whereby the collective frustration of the Boko Haram initiators and the Niger-Delta militants turned to anger and violence, calling for genuine democratic system that will respect peoples' fundamental human rights with adequate provision for social justice and economic prosperity for all.

The theories of anomie, justified thievery, and Queer Ladder have been used to rationalize criminal violence like kidnapping, hostage taking, abductions, armed robberies, smuggling, human and drug trafficking in West Africa. For instance, Durkheim (1964) posited that law and order can breakdown in a society where socio-structural constraints of behaviour become inoperative. Hence, the perpetrators of criminalities in West Africa see kidnapping and abduction for ransom, armed robberies, smuggling and drug trafficking as more lucrative and alternative social enterprises. The justified thievery (Warner, 2011) and Queer Ladder (Mallory, 2007) theories posited that it was the exploitative social forces that operate in West Africa coupled with the need to climb-up the social ladder that makes people to engage in cybercrimes, smuggling, drug and human trafficking. However, from the perspective of public choice theory (Shaw, 2012), it is the wide prevalent of public corruption that made people to pursue selfish economic interest and commit criminal and terror acts for personal gains.

Nevertheless, the most popular theory is the leadership failure theory because it is believed that the leadership is to account for both the progress and challenges that occur in a society. According to Onuoha (2010), leadership failure has played a significant role in Boko Haram crisis because of the careless extra-judicial killing of its foremost leader, Mohammad Yusuf in 2009 and further jungle justice meted on other captured Boko Haram members by the Nigerian security forces. More of the leadership failure led to the defeat of former President Goodluck Jonathan and its political party in the 2015 Nigeria's general election. Its regime was accused

even by his so called 'Godfather', Chief Edwin Clark for lacking courage and political will to tackle Boko Haram militancy and corruption in Nigeria (Nigeria Bulletin, 2015). Other political leadership in most West African countries are not doing better as Sierra Leone ranks 2nd, Mauritania 4th, Gambia 5th, Chad 13th and Guinea Bissau 18th in the 2015 topmost 20 most corrupt African countries (Africa Ranking, 2015). The pervasive corruption in most West African countries can therefore be attributed to leadership failure.

Peace Education to the Rescue

If conflict is inevitable in human society and inner peace is a prerequisite for corruptless leadership, then peace education is very germane to checkmate terrorism in West Africa. Peace education according to UNESCO (1998) is an education to enable individual to acquire knowledge on how to resolve dispute peacefully and in the spirit of respect for human dignity and of tolerance. UNICEF (1999) elaborates further that Peace Education is for promoting the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to bring about behaviour changes that will enable children, youth and adults to prevent conflict and violence whether at an intrapersonal, interpersonal, intergroup, national or international level. It is therefore an education for promoting culture of peace (Galtung, 2003; Ogunyemi, 2006 & Adetoro 2014) which will involve pedagogies of engagement (Jenkins, 2006 & Kester, 2007) in order to foster community values and practices of sharing, caring and fellowship.

Indeed, the 'hatred attitude' and 'culture of violence' that are pervasive in West Africa calls for catching them young by 'de-segregating the mind' to build the 'culture of tolerance' using transformative approaches (Ogunyemi, 2006 & Adetoro, 2014) as against what Freire (1992) called the "banking model" as being practiced today. Consequently, the type of Peace Education that is required according to Upeace (2006) is an integrated study that relates with other studies like Gender Education, Sustainable Development Education, Multicultural Education, Human Rights Education, Education for Social Justice and Non-Violent Conflict Transformation. It also covers Governance and Leadership Education as well as Personal and Inner Peace Education in a wholistic manner as can be seen in figure 1.

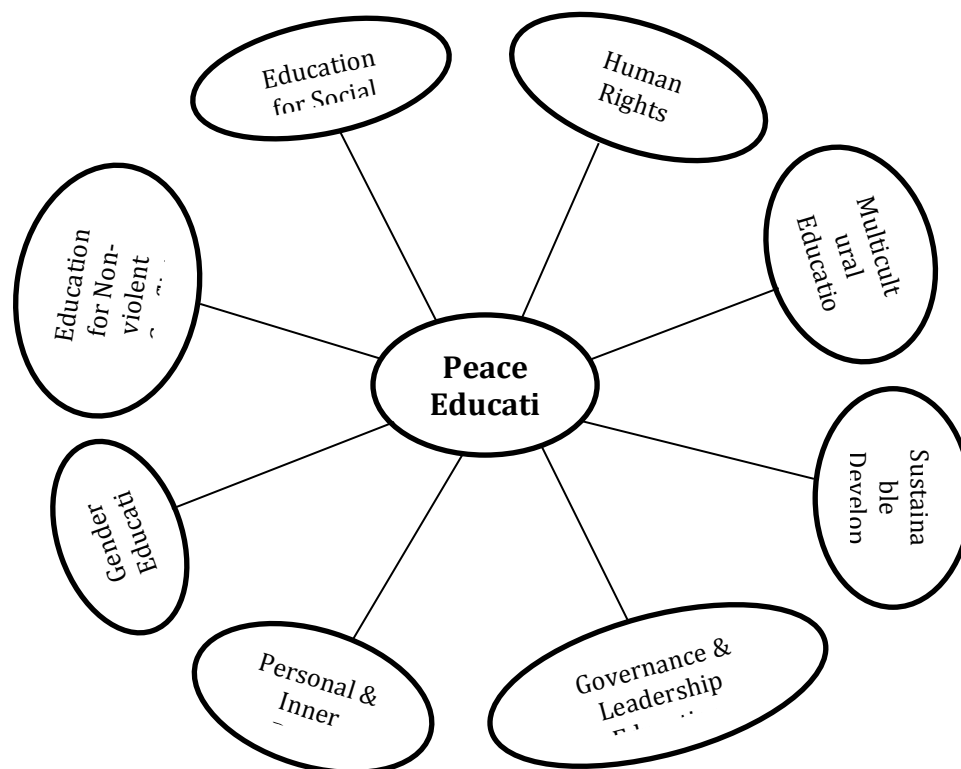


Figure 1: An Integrated Peace Education Study Proposed for Curbing Terrorism in West Africa (Source: Adapted from Upeace, 2006)

In other words, the recommended integrated Peace Education is to cover a wide range of issues like Educating for Dismantling the culture of war, Conflict Resolution and Non-violence behaviour, Educating for living with Justice and Compassion, Educating for promoting Human Rights and Responsibilities, Educating for building cultural Respect, Reconciliation and solidarity behaviour, Educating for living in Harmony with Earth and for Cultivating Inner Peace (Marthe, 2012). Thus, as rightly submitted by Julius, David and Paul (2012), Peace Education should be used to promote both inner and outer peace in order to create a shield for human survival on the planet.

Behavioural Modification Theory for Taming Terrorism in West Africa

The social learning theory as advocated by Albert Bandura (1976) using learning together and constructive controversial pedagogies in classroom interaction has been found to promote tolerant attitude and solidarity among learners than the direct instructional mode of teaching (Adetoro, 2014). Even Isom (1988) had earlier submitted that if aggression is detected very early and if possibly cooperative learning strategies like (learning together, constructive controversy and jigsaw) are applied, there is the tendency that the individual would be reframed from being adult criminals. The strongest benefits of these pedagogies are that students would cooperate with each other, like each other and have improved relations among themselves and different ethnic groups (Balkon, 1992). This is because the pedagogies afford the learners collective celebration of successes and collective regret of failures because of their group processing and social interdependent working relationships (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993). So in an attempt to catch them young, teachers are encouraged to apply cooperative learning strategies in teaching peace education in the classroom.

In a meta-analysis of 158 studies, Johnson, Johnson and Stanne (2000) found learning together to promote the greatest effect size of between 0.82 and 1.03, followed by constructive controversy with 0.59 and 0.91 in promoting higher social interdependence and greater learning outcomes. On attitudinal outcomes towards peaceful living, Adetoro (2014) found that

students treated with constructive controversy had a higher mean post-test scores of 89.13% as against those taught with learning together that scored 86.09%. In conflict resolution skills however, the learning together group came first with 66.47% mean scores as against 65.25% scored by the constructive controversy group. By these findings, constructive controversial engagement was found to be more beneficial in classroom interaction while learning together proved better in acquiring conflict resolution skills.

Tolerant Sociometry and Reciprocal Peer Relations Conditional Learning Strategies for Curbing Terrorism in West Africa

Indeed, a multi-track Peace Education approaches like tolerant sociometry and Reciprocal Peer Relations Conditional Learning (RPRCL) for psychological rehabilitation, sharing and reconciliation values, equity and fair play culture are necessary in the school curriculum at all levels of education. Tolerant sociometry as a group psychotherapy should be combined with psychodrama to promote interpersonal relationships in the classroom (Thompson, 2010; Blatner, 2012 and Socratona, 2014). As people of other ethnic background are usually disliked in a community, then using tolerant sociometric approach in the classroom, the teacher should always ensure that students of different ethnic background often interact in group discussions, group problem-solving and group role-play to strengthen good ethnic relations. This will reduce cynical hostility that causes anger, irritability, mistrust, aggression and violence (Socratovna, 2014). According to Ingles, Delgado, Garcia-Fernandez, Ruiz-Esteban and Diaz-Herrero (2010), this Reciprocal Peer Relations Conditional Learning (RPRCL) would make children and adolescents to acquire better psychosocial adjustment and psycho-affective relationships in future.

Using Teenage Inventory of Social skills (TISS), The Social Phobia and Anxiety Inventory (SPAI) and Sociometric Peer Nomination Test (SPNT), Ingels et al (2010) discovered that it is possible to detect the level of prosociability and aggressiveness of a student in the classroom. They therefore suggested an application of Reciprocal Peer Relations conditioning in teaching. This would lead to psychosocial-mixed grouping and application of socio-dramatic learning that would engender tolerant sociometry.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

As terrorism is becoming a reactionary measure undertaken by the disenchanting and neglected in West Africa, there is need for both regional counter-terrorism collaboration and good governance. The regional counter-terrorism should involve partnership with ECOWAS countries, Central and North African states "to develop a robust tri-regional mechanism" to combat "the flow of drugs, arms, weapons, explosives and fighters in the Sahara-Sahel region" (Onuoha & Ezirim, 2013). Using ECOWAS and AU standing armies, it should also involve collaborative combat pressures against the current rampaging Boko Haram, AQIM and Al-Shabaab militant forces in West, North and Central Africa. In the views of Onuoha and Ezirim (2013), this collaborative tri-regional forces should help to establish a Regional Intelligence Fusion Centre (RIFC) for warehousing intelligence and information on militant activities to inform collective reactive responses.

Against the 'militarycentric approach', there is the need for good governance in West Africa in particular and Africa in general. According to Bolaji (2014), the proponents of this ultimate approach argued that there would neither be need for peacekeeping and conflict prevention if good governance principles are adhered to by states and that this will make African countries

not to be conducive to terrorism. These principles of good governance include establishment of representative and accountable form of government; freedom of expression and association; observance of the rule of law and impartial legal system; high degree of transparency and participatory service delivery; broad-based economic growth with dynamic public-private sector and social policies that will lead to drastic poverty reduction; high priority on investment on education, health and other social facilities; good corporate governance with respect for social norms and property rights. In West Africa in particular, it is recommended that institutions have to be re-built and distribution process of public resources has to be re-ordered to be corruption free. Furthermore, electoral institutions must be reformed and economic liberalization entrenched. Indeed, state security forces must always be professionalized and well-equipped while sustainable micro-credit schemes for the poor must be well-entrenched into government finances.

CONCLUSION

It has been well established that the battle against terrorism in West Africa cannot be won on military operations alone but must be supported with building culture of peace through a multi-track approach to peace education with good governance. It is also a known fact that no nation can win the battle alone but with the collaboration of other neighbouring countries and Africa in general. It is therefore essential that good leadership with well-articulated socio-economic policies and deliberate teaching of peace education are required to engender peace and combat terrorism in West Africa.

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Sensing The Birth Preferences Among Spouses In Kano Metropolis, Kano State, Nigeria

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Abstract

The paper explores the long lingering attitude of people in term of preferences of children (number, composition and sex) among families in the metropolis of Kano state. The magnitude, trend and pattern of the habit are x-rayed between spouses and across families. Critical social sciences methodology is adopted. Problems of pressure mounting on wives with only daughters and the sense of prestige attached to certain sex over another are critically examined. The study involves both quantitative and qualitative data that is the family size; income and age are quantitative while the preferences of sexes are held qualitative. Kano municipal LGA, is considered the core of the metropolis with higher population, hosting cultural heart of the area i.e. the Emir's palace and so on. Questionnaires and interviews are employed in collecting the data for the study. Descriptive statistics like measure of Central Tendencies were used. The finding shows high birth preference. Male children are preferred most by all parents. In the study area traditional title holders, business men and lower salary earners begets more children than the educated elites, low income earners especially traders, primary teachers and wealthy individuals abhor more children with preference to sons than daughters. Some of the reasons attached include assistance at home, market and source of security at old age as well as heirs of family continuity. Many families tend to give birth to large number of children in the quest of getting a son(s) especially if the early children are females. Similarly if the co-wives have many males hence competition often arises each trying to have modal set. Socio-economic and socio-cultural status show some variation in the trend where couples with high level of education have less children and with lesser corresponding sex preferences than uneducated spouses. Preferences of sex and many children are more common to polygamous couples than in monogamous family.

KEYWORDS: Preferences, marginalization, gender, security, competition, elites and masses

INTRODUCTION

Culture dictates the strong sense of individual identity in every society irrespective of its state of development. Whether it is concern with preferences, choices or decision, family affairs are too complex due to distinctive attributes and goals. To candid Nature have personalities that are fully formed and individuated. Moreover, the differences among individuals express the individual values which consequently transform to societal values. There were many effort made to study birth preferences especially by Sociologists and other disciplines that area having interest in demographic study. Parental preference for sons or daughters has been documented in many societies. Preference for at a least a modest number of sons or daughters are also noted in many parts of the world due to the influence of culture. Many studies show a

strong preference for sons than daughters for instance Musa (2008) conducted study on sex preferences in Rano LGA. Sizeable number of respondents opined that couples with daughters sustain child bearing quite longer than those with male offspring. Studies on the relationship between sex preference and number of children in a given household shows parity progression ratios or transitional probabilities as a function of the existing sex composition of the family. The basic argument is that if sex preference influences family decisions, then at any parity, those couples with undesirable sex compositions should be more likely to have another child than those who already have achieved their desired sex composition Musa (2008). Children and sex preference relates to the number of children in many instances because of the fact that if the actual sex set is not in line with the preferred sex set of a couple, the couple may continue to reproduce, until the desired sex set is achieved, leading to an increase in the number of children of a couple.

Culture (especially the religion) is an important variable which regulates human behavior, including marriage and reproduction. Sometimes, some cultures favour having a particular sex of children over the other. There may be a conflict between a strong sex preference and preference for a small family, and in this case the problem of which will dominate arises, this is because if couple did not achieve their preference they may continue to have birth beyond their desired number. This type of conflict in many cases leads to adoption of polygamy when the couple cannot settle at a point amiably. The existence of sex preference leads naturally to the question of to what degree such preference influence people to either marry another wife, or divorce wife who could not deliver the preferred sex. The treatment given to a wife who always produces a son may be different from that of the other wives because of the number of sons produced certain wife. Similarly a wife who could not bear a son may face serious pressure to the extent that she would keep trying to have another birth with the hope of achieving the preferred gender. Many women face intimidation and harassment from husband's relatives simply because she couldn't deliver a male offspring.

The normative values of people help in understanding the male family role, which sometimes imposes pressure on women to continue to reproduce until when she attend birth security. Whenever the family or husband's preference is not met, the wife or her marriage may suffer a lot of crises. For instance some studies revealed that a male child is important in the stability of marriages else the husbands marry another wife in order to have a male child. Most people when asked about the choice of sex of their children, often and usually reply with, "is up to God" a statement that originate from tongues while the minds have its choice

The social roles and behavior of males and females have differed in all known human societies. Research on tribal societies indicates that men have tended to be the warriors, hunters, and processors of hard raw materials used for weaponry and tools, whereas women have tended to do the cooking and preparation of vegetable foods (Sunday, 1981) as quoted by Musa (2008). As a result of this gender differentiation in the division of labor and the social inequality between sexes, men have been in a better position to acquire and control the valuable resources of their societies. Resources, position of power, privilege, and status have seldom, if at all been shared across males and females on equality basis. Males and females are shape under socialization process into different sex/gender specific roles by the environment. Most of the biological behaviours of males and females supplement the social role of men and women through social interaction within the society. These socialization processes have created the basis upon which males and females are ranked, and because males are held superior to females by culture (precisely religion), members of society preferred a son.

Variation among Nigerian social groups exist where there are wide differences on sex preference based on values attached to each sex and its roles.

THE STUDY AREA

The history of Kano as a state capital started in 1967 when it was formally established in 1968. Its real genesis as per history remain a controversial issues but as a base line, Kano's existence started from 999 AD when Bagauda the grandson of Bayajidda founder of the Hausa dynasty became its first king. Kano State falls within the Sudan vegetation zone, the total land area of the State is 20,760 square kilometer. The minimum and maximum temperature ranges from 15 to 33 degrees Celsius. The predominant ethnic groups in Kano are Hausa and Fulani otherwise referred to as Hausa-Fulani. This reference is due to the indistinguishable features they bear arising from intermarriage. Other ethnic groups found in the State are Yoruba, Igbo, Nupe, etc. Hausa are however, the indigenous population.

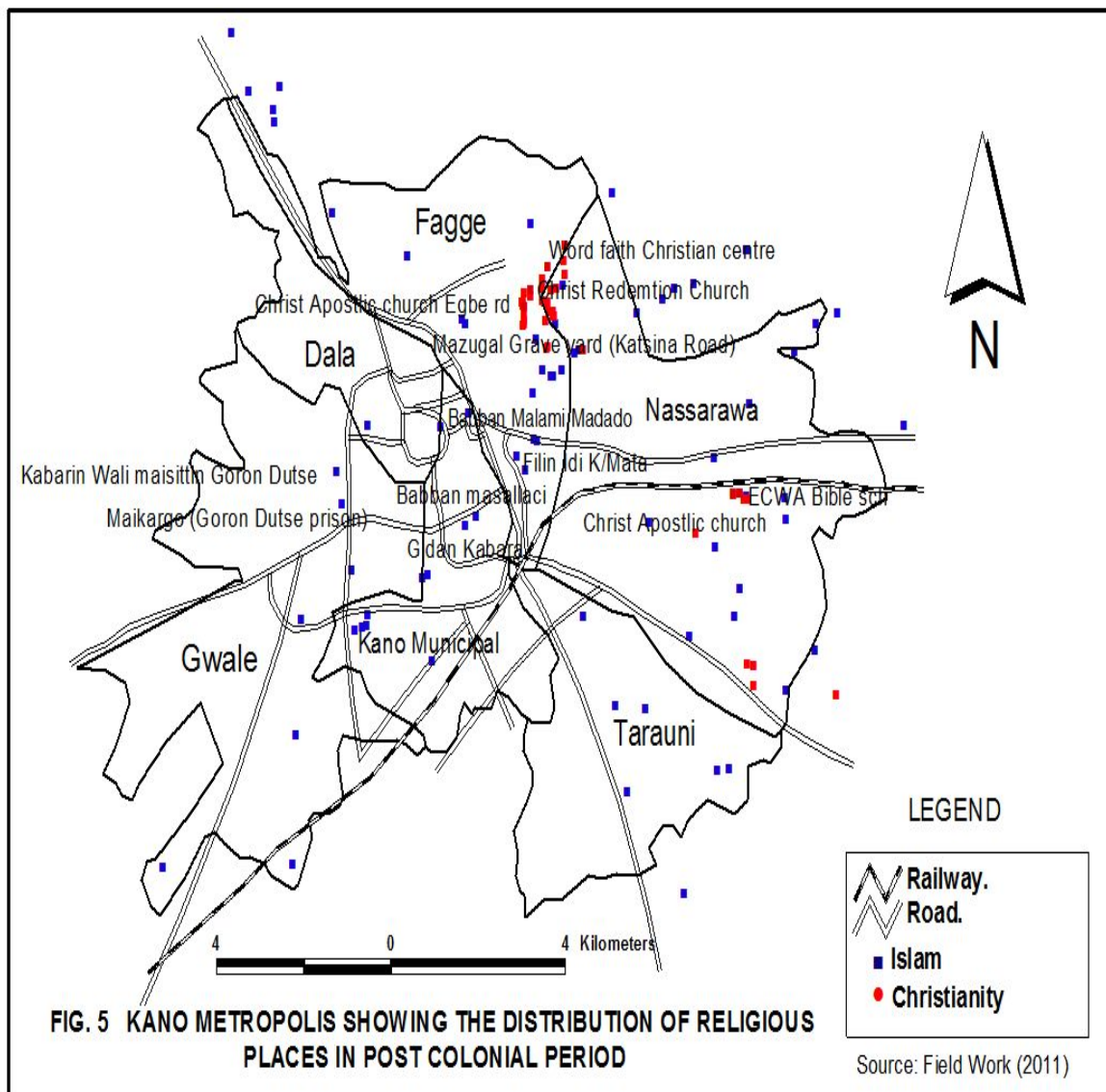
The city of Kano experiences changes and transformations over time. It is a cosmopolitan and heterogeneous society as a result of its extensive and numerous commercial and industrial activities. Kano has many occupations and means of livelihood but was famous for its weaving, gold and blacksmith, dyeing and other handicraft activities. As a result of these, Kano has attracted people from far and wide. Kano State is made up of 44 local government areas, with a total population of 5,810,340 million by 1991 census figures. The indigenous population is homogenous in terms of culture, language, religion etc. This homogeneity is apparent especially in the rural areas.

The metropolis recent lost its dominant occupation that is agriculture with about 75 percent of the population directly or indirectly involved in agriculture or agro-related activities in the past due to massive urbanization that swallowed the farm lands from within the walled city to as far as 5km at all direction. Currently, civil service, trade and commerce are the major activities. In fact Kano the capital city of the State has been known far and wide as an ancient and important center of commerce and trade. Kano was a major entry port in the Trans-Saharan trade. It is popular and known in the whole of West Africa, Maghreb and as far as Europe as a commercial center trading with Africa and Europe in local and manufactured goods, crafts and other items. This position is facilitated by the existence of modern communications (road network and rail line) which make Kano accessible.

POPULATION OF THE STUDY AREA

Kano is one of the most populated and urbanized states in northern Nigeria, as well as a dominant center of economic activity since the fourteenth century (Fika 1978). Consequently, commerce and industry in the urban areas and agricultural activities in the rural areas characterize the state.

The communities in this part of the country have been exposed to vigorous family planning programs, with the establishment of many government sponsored family planning clinics in Kano State. However, there is a difference in terms of exposure to service between rural and urban inhabitants, with many of the clinics located in the urban areas. These clinics provide contraceptives and counseling services.



MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section tries to explain the types of data, the sources of data, data collection such as sampling and data analysis. The data in this study includes quantitative indices like number of children, age, and status etc. while the qualitative data in this study are the preferences, choices and decision on sex, composition and adoption of family planning.

The main instruments of the study are the questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaires are to collect quantitative information while the interviews are meant to measure the qualitative data. The two instruments can supplement one another and can serve as check and balance where errors and mistakes can be corrected

SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING METHODS

The population of interest to this study consists of males and females who are married and fall within children bearing years. This is because the study is interested in assessing the preference of one sex over another and how the attitude affects the subsequent decision toward the number of children in the households. The study concerns the Hausa people, a

dominant ethnic group in northern Nigeria. The choice of this ethnic group was largely predicated on the traditional character of this patriarchal group and its high fertility within extended family set up. The Hausa people constitute a significant proportion of the population in Nigeria, the largest country in Africa. The Hausa people are undergoing rapid socioeconomic changes manifesting various transformations especially in expansion of education and urbanization. Some samples of one thousand one hundred and sixty (1,160) respondents were drawn from both rural and urban areas. The sample size was considered adequate due to the homogeneous nature of the population. In order to draw the samples combination of sampling methods was employed appropriate to the sampling units. A multistage selection process was adopted involving cluster, simple random and systematic sampling methods. Selection of local government areas for the research was the first stage of the sampling process. Six local government areas have been selected which include Kano Municipal, Dala, Gwale, Tarauni, Fagge and Nassarawa LGAs.

Two urban study locations were selected from the dominant urban center, (Kano, which is also the capital city of the state) and the areas are Gwale and Municipal. Census enumeration areas in the respective settlements were considered as clusters and two enumeration areas were sampled in each of the places randomly. The enumeration areas on the average consist of two hundred households each. The enumeration areas in the urban areas may be slightly larger than in the rural areas, and in order to ensure representation a larger sample was drawn from the urban areas. In the third stage of selection, households were sampled with systematic sampling techniques using household listing obtained from the National Population Commission 2006.

DATA COLLECTION

Both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered for this study. Retrospective and prospective data were gathered from the respondents regarding their fertility and contraception use. Respondents were asked about number of children ever born, desire for more children, last use of contraceptives, current use, and future use where applicable. Likert scale was used to measure attitudes of respondents using a combination of negative and positive statements pertaining to practices related to family planning. Respondents indicated their responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree on a four-interval scale.

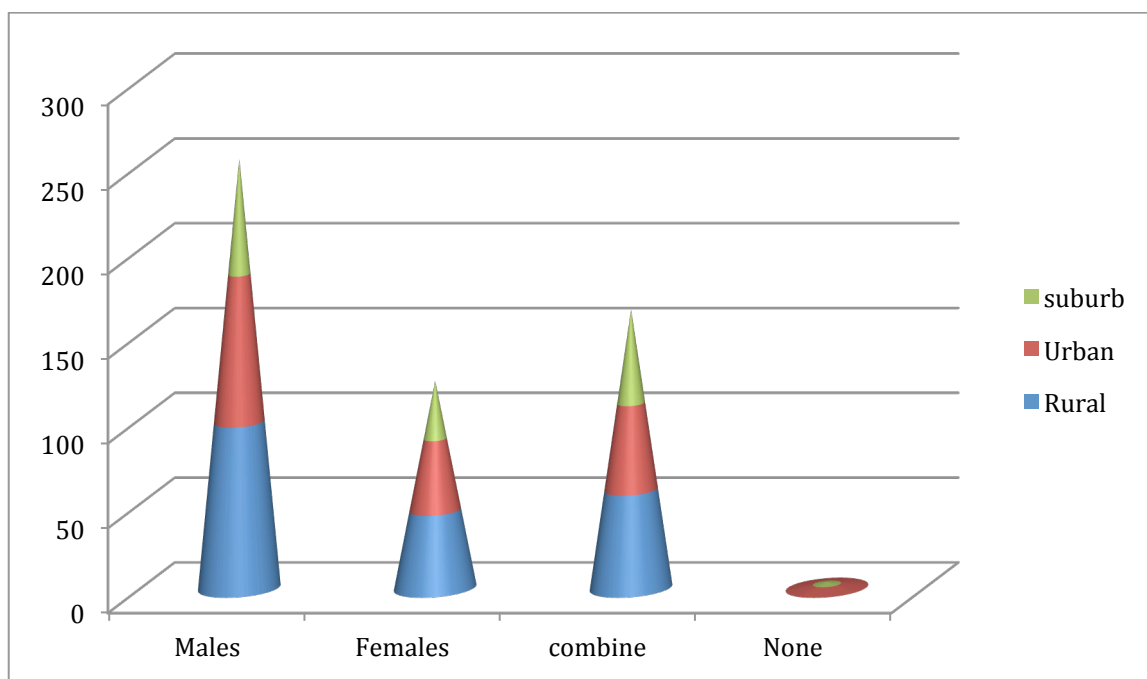
The main instrument for the data collection was a questionnaire administered in a form of interview conducted in the Hausa language. The research assistants were indigenous Hausa people, familiar with the norms and values of the respondents. The research assistants were trained in order to make them effective communicators and solicitors of information. The instrument was pre-tested to ensure its validity and reliability. Data were collected on important variables, which include: attitudes, contraceptive use, education, age, income, time or duration of marriage, religion and residence. Other variables are age at marriage, wife's breastfeeding, abstinence, children ever born, ideas about family planning, and contraceptive decision making.

MAJOR RESULTS AND FINDING OF THE STUDY

The findings of this research suggest that the cultural set up of the people exercise greater influence on preference of children. As part of Islamic culture, males are the head of Household irrespective of age and economic status. This accentuates the need for son(s) than daughter(s). The issue pertaining security at old age among people is a definite reason for son preference. Preservation for family name is also a reason for son preference among the people. Among the

respondents the research found that there is presence of sex preference among the respondents irrespective of sex and economic status.

The rivalry and jealousy in polygamous family accentuate need for wives to have control of their marital home through having more children in essence this intensify the preference for son among the female respondents; Mai Babban-Daki is the name given to a woman with higher prestige (i.e. richest, noble or number of male children among co-wives), while Dauki-Bisu is referred to as woman who does not have a son. Though this research suggest that men are more likely to express strong sex preference than female, the research found that females express stronger preference than the males.



Another major findings is that of the income and sex preference, though the hypothesis suggest that higher income and higher education are likely to reduce strong preference, the research found that income and education does not directly reduce preference because those with medium income among the respondents express stronger preference than those with low income, but those with low income expresses higher preference than those with higher income, this has somehow produce a different finding which has not validated or invalidated the hypothesis. The main reason for this is that even among those with medium and higher income, there is the need to have a son who can continue the family name, and even inherit his family income and assets, because there is the general belief that a girl can transfer her inheritance to another family.

The other hypothesis which suggests that boys are likely to be preferred to girls was validated showing a definite preference for sons than for daughters. Most elites are restive if their wife or wives didn't issue male children because their belongings may he inherited by other relatives if only females are his offspring.

Status	Males preferred	Female preferred	Combine (Male/female)
Educated elites	57.5%	12.5%	30%
Business class	59%	10%	21%
Masses	78%	05%	17%

CONCLUSION

The study reveals that there is the presence of sex preference, with preference for sons taking higher lead, then preference for a boy and a girl followed, preference for daughters is subordinated to that of a son

That data also reveals that preservation of family name and security in old age is a factor for sex preference, there is also a definite preference among all the respondents, with variations based on income, sex, education, and number of the sex of children present. The main reasons for sex preference are security in old age and preservation of family name, and there is high preference for sons than for daughters.

There is the need for policy intervention to reorient people through enlightenment that the sex preference if left unchecked, it will affect the future sex balance within the society. Many may abort their conception if tested female and hence the tendency to have more male than females in the society.

Culture is very important in all societies, people cannot exist without culture, but some cultures have failed to address some problems affecting the society. One of such is the way and manner people attach a particular meaning and values to a particular sex at the expense of the other sex. As the scenario has no geographical limitation (i.e. rural or urban), the whole society need to appreciate sex role and consider each as component of system and partner in progress without which life of is incomplete and meaningless without the other.

Widwhood Woes: The Bayelsa Experience

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Abstract

The death of a husband is traumatic enough, yet the plight of the widow oftentimes, is further compounded by society and its traditions. The study, therefore, sought to determine the extent of adjustment among widows in Bayelsa State. The ex-post facto design was used and a sample size of 200 was derived through probability sampling technique. Two hypotheses were formulated and data collected using questionnaire which was analysed using Independent t-test. Results revealed that widwhood adjustment significantly differed on the bases of (1) Spirituality and (2) Age. It was concluded that adjustment tend to be easier for widows of higher spiritual level and those who are older. It was recommended for counsellors to be aware of the spiritual and other issues in their widow-clients lives and assist them to capitalize on these areas of strengths.

Key Words: Widwhood, Recovery, Spirituality, Adjustment

INTRODUCTION

The death of a spouse is believed to be the most stressful of all events because it may signify the end of a relationship, long or short - the loss of shared history of significant events, the end of a satisfying sexual relationship, the loss of a best friend, trusted companion and in some cases, the bread winner. The death of a life partner may also mean that the surviving spouse will have to assume household responsibilities that she never performed before, such as school runs, car repairs or doing yard work. The situation gets compounded when the death, especially, that of the husband is accompanied by other emotional issues such as hostilities, maltreatment and aggression from in-laws (Olusakin, 2006).

The death of a spouse and the resultant effects are not the same for males and females because widows are more likely to receive injustice and unfair treatment than widowers, from members of their community, in some places in Nigeria (Ahonsi, 2008). The experience of widwhood has been rendered even more traumatic by some of the obnoxious practices carried out in some parts of Africa: widows' subjection to sitting on the bare floor, shaving of her hair with sharp objects, swearing before shrine to prove her innocence in his death and worse of all, drinking the water used in washing the husband's corpse (Ekime, 2009).

Grief is a universal reaction to loss or separation and upon the loss of their husbands, many women become deeply grieved which manifest in a number of behavioural forms, such as, active distress, protest and search for the lost attachment figure (Bowlby, 1982). Grief is so unsettling to observe that it elicits from others a desire to give comfort and solace, thus many religious and circular customs have gone a long way to help individuals, especially widows, survive the rigours of suffering and give meaning to death (Glick, Weiss & Parkes, 2005). Culture plays a role in determining how grief is expressed as well as mitigating or aggravating the grief experience (Kleinman & Kleinman, 1985).

Religious coping behaviours appear to kick in and help individuals function quite well in periods of grief and times of high stress, instead of disintegrating (Koenig, 2001). In Manton's (1989) study of a highly stressed group, spirituality was significantly related to personal adjustments, indicated by low depression and high self-esteem. Besides, socialization provided by religious organizations can help prevent isolation and loneliness (Koenig & Larson, 1998). Thus, widowed women who worship regularly report more joy in their lives than those who do not (Siegel & Kuykendall, 1990).

Indeed, after various kinds of traumatic experiences, such as divorce, unemployment or death, religious women seem to recover more quickly and regain happiness faster than the non-religious (Ellison, 1991). Moreover, those who participate actively in religious activities such as attending services, praying, and meditating tend to bounce back from their negative experiences faster than those who described themselves as inactive practitioners (George, Larson, Koenig & McCullough, 2000). Thus, spirituality cultivates in traumatized women resilience which refers to the presence of healthy coping and adaptation in spite of challenges and role, that is, the capacity to flourish under fire (Ruff & Singer, 2003).

Stroebe and Stroebe (1987) further identified age, socio-economic status, number of children, support from family and religious inclination as likely factors of influence on widowhood adjustment. According to Victor (2003), younger widows are more likely to seek for help than older ones; and younger widows are more likely to have lower income and in need of better living situation (Oniye, 2000). Ball's (2001) study showed that younger widows manifested symptoms of acute grief such as restlessness, irritability and depression than older ones. Moreover, the study of Carr and others (2000) associated widowhood with increased anxiety among those who were extremely dependent on their spouses.

Also, the study of Sevak, Weir and Willis (2004) indicated that younger widows are at greater risk in their grieving due to economic hardship and daily challenges of single parenthood; they are financially ill - prepared and are often concerned about what to do with the rest of their young lives. Young widows worry more about making important decisions and economic survival while older ones focus more on handling different daily chores (Kaunonen, Astedt-Kurki, Paunonen & Erijanji, 2000). Generally, older widows do better than younger ones, perhaps, because, the death of a partner is more expected for older women (Van Den Brink & Others, 2004).

Freud (1957) in theorizing about grief work, stated that loss causes great pain, and bereaved people inevitably need to struggle with the process of letting go. He continued that, mourning is manifested through loss of interest in the world, isolation from others, dwelling on thoughts of the deceased and suffering from depression. Gradually, the reality of loss is accepted, then there is emotional detachment from the former relationship and reinvesting of psychic energy into the formation of new attachment, all of which indicate successful resolution.

Bowlby (1982) depicts his view of typical bereavement reaction to the experience of separation from or loss of attachment figures. His description of the grieving process involves four phases. First, the loss is met by disbelief, which he referred to as shock. The bereaved may experience numbness or feeling of unreality. Emotions may be blunted and some individuals may even appear unaffected. Emotional outburst, dizziness or other physical symptoms may also be present. Eventually, reality sets in and a second phase protest, follows. The bereaved may experience obsessive yearning or searching for the lost loved one as well as periods of restlessness and irritability.

The third phase, he referred to as despair, may be characterized by great sadness; social withdrawal; sleeping; eating or other somatic disturbances; and other symptoms of depression and emotional upset. Individuals may experience flashbacks or memories of the deceased and may seek out other people to tell and retell their story of loss yet, as with a child whose attachment figure has left him/her, the comfort of others cannot replace the lost presence of the loved one.

The fourth and last phase, he referred to as reorganization, where the bereaved discover ways to hold on to the memory of the deceased and integrate that memory into their current life and new attachment. According to Fraley and Shaver (1999), they heal in part by drawing comfort from the sense of the deceased person's presence.

In order words, there are specific reactions peculiar to the bereaved and according to Ambakederemo (2011), wives often receive the news of their husbands' death with shock and disbelief that they would shout and cry aloud to attract neighbours and sympathizers; some would even attempt suicide. She further opined that these types of extreme reactions are common among widows resulting from sudden deaths.

Bayelsa State, which is located in the heart of the Niger Delta is one of the most backward and underdeveloped states of the federation, perhaps, because of its peculiar terrain, yet it is the source of a large chunk of the nation's natural resources and revenue. The underdevelopment, inadequacy of infrastructure and facilities, high level of unemployment, poverty and deprivation have led to the feeling of neglect and frustration among the people, especially, the youths. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) report (2006) indicated that the Niger Delta is a region of frustrated expectations and deep-rooted mistrust.

Resources are depleted, yet the people do not seem to be benefitting from it, leading to agitation for resource control which has resulted in persistent violence and armed conflict between government forces and militants; bloody conflicts among rival militant groups for territorial control. There is also political assassinations which is becoming very frequent coupled with death as a result of poverty, ignorance and disease that have swampy terrain related origin(Uche,2015).

The aggregate of all these have resulted in unprecedented number of deaths in the region, especially among the males. It is reported that about one thousand (1000) get killed each year in the region (Hamilton, 2005) and according to Alagoa (2006), widows constitute about 7% of female adult population in Bayelsa State. The death of a husband is traumatic enough but the plight of the widow is further compounded by traditions and society. In many communities in the Niger Delta, women are expected to give thorough account of their husbands' deaths to the satisfaction of the in-laws and in some cases, they are forced to undergo some rituals in order to prove their innocence or guilt over the death.

Each time a husband dies, the wife is considered the first suspect, even when the cause of death is glaring. No husband seems to die of natural causes as such widows are often subjected to untold emotional and physical stress. In many cases, she has to be dispossessed of all that belongs to the man, down to even the furniture. That is, all assets may be seized from her while she is left with the liabilities, such as taking care of the children's needs. Thus, widows are oftentimes subjected to torture, physical humiliation, social and economic deprivation (Ambakederemo, 2011). There are even situations whereby a man dies testate, yet the

aggressive family members set aside the will, and still go ahead to pillage and take over the entire estate. Instances abound where widows had to relocate to their homes of origin with children in tow and penniless.

The misery experienced by widows has been a nagging and reoccurring issue in social discourse and in spite of the efforts made by governmental and non-governmental organizations towards mitigating their plight, the torture and ill-treatment still persist. Obviously, the efforts are not far reaching enough, perhaps just mere lip service. The problem of this study can therefore be summarized thus: What is the coping mechanism of widows in Bayelsa State? What is the level of adjustment to widowhood among the widows of Bayelsa State?

The purpose of the study is to determine the extent of adjustment among widows in Bayelsa State. Two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

1. Widowhood adjustment does not significantly differ on the basis of level of spirituality.
2. There is no significant difference in widowhood adjustment on the basis of age.

METHODOLOGY

Ex-post facto design was adopted for the study since the variables under study were already manifest in the respondents and as such are not subject to manipulation. The area of study is Bayelsa State, located in the creeks of the Niger Delta in Nigeria. The State has a swampy terrain and is relatively underdeveloped, even though, it is one of the oil producing States from which the national revenue is derived. Hence, there are lingering and incessant agitations and sometimes, bloody conflict over control and equitable allocation of the national revenue. This is one of the smallest States in terms of population and geographical size, with its capital in Yenagoa.

The Bayelsa State Social Welfare Unit (2014) put the estimate of widows in the State at one thousand, six hundred and fifteen (1615), though their record keeping is believed to be faulty. Out of this number, only two hundred and twenty (220) are registered as widows in the state. Probability sampling technique is therefore adopted in order to include all the widows in the registration list of the state, and more so, these can be easily assessed. However, the sample size was reduced to 200 because 20 were earlier used for the reliability test of the instrument. The age of sampled women ranged from 25 – 60years. Out of this number 73 were under 40 years and 127 over 40years.

A 3-part questionnaire was used to collect the data. Part A, was made up of 4 background information items such as age, number of children, level of education and occupation. Part B, comprised 8 items that sought spirituality-related information such as “I feel very close to God”, “any time I prayed, I feel the weight of my anxiety lifted”, “my faith in God is the most important influence in my life”, etc. Part C consisted of 10-item statements that sought information on adjustment to widowhood, statements such as, “I have decided to grieve no more”, “I don’t feel so lonely anymore”, “the fact that I am still young gives me hope”, etc. Responses were made on a 4-point scale – Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD), for both the Part B and C.

Based on the list provided by the Social Welfare Unit, respondents were contacted and visited in their homes where the questionnaire was administered. The accruing data was analysed, using Independent t-test and the summaries are presented on the following tables.

HYPOTHESES 1

Widowhood adjustment does not significantly differ on the basis of level of spirituality. Independent t-test was utilized to test the hypothesis and the result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Independent t-test comparisons of levels of spirituality and adjustment among widows

Spirituality level	N	\bar{X}	SD	T
High	112	33.05	7.08	8.43
Low	87	24.61	6.92	

* $P < 0.01$; $df = 198$; $t_{crit} = 2.576$

From the data presented on Table 1, the calculated t-value (8.43), is greater than the t_{crit} (2.576) at .01 level of significance and 198 degrees of freedom. This means that there is a significant difference in widowhood adjustment between those of high level of spirituality and those of low spirituality level. In other words, widowhood adjustment significantly differs on the basis of levels of spirituality. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected.

HYPOTHESES 2

There is no significant difference in widowhood adjustment on the basis of age.

Table 2: Independent t-test comparisons of age and adjustment among widows

Age	N	\bar{X}	SD	t
Under 40 years	78	25.67	5.91	6.91
Over 40 years	122	31.96	6.83	

* $P < .01$; $df = 198$; $t_{crit} = 2.576$

The data presented on Table 2 indicate that the calculated t-value (6.91), is greater than that t_{crit} (2.576) at .01 level of significance and 198 degrees of freedom. This shows a significant difference in widowhood adjustment between younger widows and older ones. That is to say, widowhood adjustment significantly differs on the basis of age. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

DISCUSSION

The results for hypothesis one reveal a significant difference in widowhood adjustment on the basis of their spirituality levels. Widows of higher spiritual level adjusted faster and better from their grief of loss and trauma visited on them by in-laws, than those of lower spiritual levels. This implies that widows of higher spirituality are more efficient in going through Bowlby's (1982) stages of grief and eventually resolving to reorganize and reintegrate their memory of the bereaved into their current and new ones, than those of lower spirituality. This corroborates the findings of George, Larson, Koenig & Larson (2000) which stated that women who were active in religious services, prayers and meditation tend to bounce back faster from their negative experiences than those who described themselves as inactive practitioners. It is also the finding of Ellison (1991) that religious women seem to recover more quickly than the non-religious ones, after various kinds of traumatic experiences such as divorce, unemployment or death. Manton's (1989) study of highly stressed group, revealed spirituality

to be significantly related to personal adjustment in the form of low depression and high self-esteem. In essence, spirituality cultivates in traumatized women, resilience, that unique capacity to flourish under fire (Ryff & Singer, 2003).

Result for hypothesis two indicated that significant difference exist in the widowhood adjustment to grief and traumatic experiences on the basis of their age. Younger women (under 40 years) seem to take it harder and recovery is slower than older women (over 40 years). This finding is in line with Ball's (2001) study which reported that younger widows manifested symptoms of acute grief such as restlessness, irritability and depression than the older ones. Perhaps, because they are younger, they were still trying to build up their career or businesses and as such were economically dependent on their deceased husbands. According to Carr et al (2000), increased anxiety was associated with widows who were extremely dependent on their husbands. Furthermore, Sevak, Weir and Willis (2004) revealed that younger widows are more likely to grieve deeply as a result of financial hardship since they are financially ill-prepared and are more disposed to financial hardships, challenges of single parenthood and concern about what to do with the rest of their young lives. It is the conclusion of Van Den Brink et al (2004) that, in general, older widows fare better than younger ones in their grief and adjustment, probably because, the death of a partner is more expected for older women than the younger ones.

CONCLUSION

The death of a husband is a painful loss and when that is coupled with ill-treatment from in-laws and other bystanders, it becomes even a more traumatic experience. Nonetheless, recovery, reorganization and adjustment can be achieved after a period of time. However, the indication from this study is that, this is easier and faster for widows of higher spirituality level, because of their belief in God, active participation in church activities and support from church members, than those of lower spirituality levels. Furthermore, older widows are indicated to achieve adjustment faster and better than the younger ones.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are therefore proffered:

- Counsellors need to be aware of religious and spiritual issues in their clients (widows) lives and assist them to capitalize on these strengths.
- Counsellors may need to provide vocational counselling to widows, especially the younger ones who are often anxious about means of livelihood, in readiness to join the labour market after the intense grief period.
- Since most of the widows in this particular study area are Christians, the church may need to step up its support, both in cash and kind.
- Advocacy from counsellors and the church, by creating awareness in the society and lobbying the National Assembly to legislate against all oppressive, barbaric and dehumanizing mourning rites and customs that aggravate stress and hamper adjustment to widowhood.

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Need and Importance of Medical Social Work Practice in Pakistan with Special Reference to Karachi City

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Abstract

In this research paper, the researcher has attempted to define the medical social work philosophy and tried to relate with social caring obligation and value system of Pakistani people. This paper examines the development of social work with special reference to Pakistan. The main purpose of this paper is to understand how Medical social work is designed and implemented in Pakistan? What are the challenges and what are the administrative problems faced by professionals? The paper is divided into three sections, section 1) provides a brief introduction of social work education in Pakistan, section 2) cover the history of the profession with special reference to Pakistani pedagogies and 3) discuss the role of Medical social worker in the context of Pakistan. The succeeding portion covers the conclusion and recommendation. An attempt has been made for in-depth analysis of the various aspects of existing practices; identify the problems and prospects of Medical Social Work with especial reference to Karachi, an urban city of Pakistan. This study is an exploratory research and researcher employing qualitative methods to explore this issue.

KEY WORDS: Medical Social Work, welfare, Health care Institutions, Karachi..

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Social Work is a professional subject of global significance. It is all about working with people and seeing the whole person in the context of their current circumstances. Social work has an old discipline and has its unique combination of theory and field practices. This uniqueness marks this profession as extra ordinary distinction in the field of social sciences. Social Workers respond to both crises and emergencies as well as always ready to provide help in everyday life of individual, group or community. The goal of social work is to lead the human being into a successful life. However, the practice of Social Work consists of the professional application of social work values, based upon scientific knowledge in skills in human relations, and requires knowledge of human development and behaviour, as well as social, economic and cultural factors. Social Workers use a variety of skills, techniques & activities to assist individuals in making and sustaining positive change. As adviser, advocate, counselors, a social worker helps people to live more successfully within their local communities by helping them find solutions to their problems.

Medical Social Work is the branch of Social work which deals the problems of patients in health care Institutions. Medical Social Workers recognise that illness and admission to hospital may have a direct impact on the psychological, social, and emotional well-being of the individual and his/her family. Medical Social Work offers a service to all patients and families within the

hospital. They help people who are suffering with a medical problem, work with clients and their families to provide necessary services to make their lives easier for the duration of the client's illness and to help them deal with the consequences directly related to that illness. Medical social workers are trained in counseling and psychotherapy to assist patients with health issues and problems with everyday life. Medical Social workers are also facilitating the Patient's paper work, and provide guidance to the family through the entire process of Patient admission, hospital stay till their discharge from hospital. Hospital social workers report an increase in the severity of client problems, caseload size, paperwork and waiting lists for services (Whitaker, et al, 2006). They play an important role in linking up the medical and social services for facilitating patient's speedy recovery and rehabilitation in the community. Due to work load, for a doctor or a nurse, it is not possible to solve patient's psycho-social or sometime economic problems. It's therefore the medical social worker who play a vital role in handling patients these needs effectively and efficiently.

There is a significant amount of literature available on the importance of social work education, its fields and methods of practices, but most of the researches are conducted in Western societies. Unfortunately, there is not much contribution by researcher on this topic within Pakistani paradigm and, we are still left far behind compared to other nations. The main purpose of this paper is to understand how social work is designed and implemented in Pakistan? What are the challenges and what are the administrative problems faced by professionals? Employing qualitative methods this paper is Exploratory in its nature.

Concept of Medical Social Work Practice in Pakistani Pedagogical Context

Pakistan, a country situated in the Southern part of Asia is the 6th most populous country of the World, with its current population estimated at 156.26 million (Government of Pakistan, 1998). Pakistan is spread over an area of 796,000 sq.km and comprises of four provinces, namely Sindh, Punjab, Baluchistan, Khyber pakhtun khwa; whereas Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Gilgit, Baltistan are working under federal government control. Pakistan is a developing country with a rapidly growing population. Pakistan, with a GNP of US \$ 470 per capita, central government expenditure on health is only about 1% (UNICEF, 1996). In the recent years, especially after independence, Pakistan has undergone enormous changes politically, economically socially. These changes have brought a large amount of uncertainty with in people's life. Providing better healthcare facilities are the primary responsibility of the Government. Provinces of Pakistan previously assumed overall responsibility for the implementation of health care services. Through a process of decentralization initiated in August 2001, however, districts began to assume responsibility for all public activities, including health care services.

According to Khalid. (1982) and Shah, N.A, (2015): "Centuries ago the idea of welfare state began to influence the state policy and action. In most cases the state directly participates in the economic sphere. It controls and regulates wages, cost of living and prices, finances, credit, currency, foreign exchange, banking insurance, and several other matters are regulated and controlled for the benefit of common people."

Medical Social Work has undergone considerable changes in Pakistan since its inception (1947) and at that time, much of work was done upon the sponsorship or donations or aid basis of Philanthropists Khalid, (2011). At the early time of newly independent country which has the big target to rehabilitate the migrated people who were living in refugee camps in unhygienic environment. Most of time, the work was done on hap hazard and in emergency

situations without any planning for concrete action. People involved in social service were untrained, volunteer who perform this task on humanitarian basis.

According to Ms. Rehmatullah,S. (2002:288)“In 1953, Miss Anna Mo Toll, a Swedish, medical social worker visited Karachi, in response to the request from the Govt. of Pakistan to UN”. At that moment in time everybody was perplexed about the meaning and scope of “Medical Social Work” and concerned about its achievement in a country. Some health officials even felt that there was no need to train people especially for medical social work Ms. Rehmatullah, (2002:290) & (Malik and Sarfaraz, 2012:213).

With the passage of time, the situation has changed drastically and Medical Social Work is no longer highly dependent on the philanthropist and volunteers for funding, it is become a profession now –although there is a strong alliance continues to exist in many cases.

Current Practices of Medical Social Work in Pakistan

In developing countries like Pakistan, the situation of professional social work especially Medical social work is often in a poor stage. Although social work has been progressively recognized in some areas of Pakistan as a concept or as a profession, it is still felt by the masses as an act of 'good will' or charity inspired either by a sense of religious duty or simple piety. The definition of the term 'Medical social work education' has been the subject of much debate in Pakistani pedagogy .It is tempting to argue that Whether it is a Profession or not? In fact, there is a lot of confusion over the use of the term –meaning and scope, still most of the people are not aware of the fact that it is a professional subject which is based on scientific knowledge. History has witnessed that Pakistani people has a very rich tradition to help the patient visit them during their hospital. This practice is being considered as an important norm and moral obligation stems from Islamic ethical principles. It is interesting to note that in Pakistani society, people often not easily differentiated between professional and non-professional social workers. As a matter of fact, many cultures of Pakistani society, social workers are considered to be intellectually imperfect (weak or less intelligent).There is a self-created perception among people that doctors, engineer are being considered as highly intellectual and credible profession. the social worker as a profession have a social status less than equal to that of any other scientific Professionals and practitioner. Most of the people believe that there is no need of any expertise, skills or professional degree is require for doing social work. Anybody may practice or distribute charity, do reform work and be useful to any person or an institution designed to render social services. In general, the common man perception is that any good hearted person with wealth and desire to serve the distressed, the destitute and the poor person usually regarded as social worker. Ironically enough, in this modern era of technology, social changes seem to have motivated the situation as this filed have a lot of potential to change or improve human life.

In Pakistan, 3.1% of the gross domestic product is spent on economic, social, and community services; 43% is spent on debt servicing.(Government of Pakistan,2002)About 0.8% is spent on healthcare, which is lower than in Bangladesh (1.2%) and Sri Lanka (1.4%) (World Bank. 1998/99) In 2005 and 2006, less than 17\$ was spent on each Pakistani's health, which is very low based on international standards (Poullier JP et al, 2003) Healthcare statistics shows that healthcare workers include 91,823 physicians, 37,623 nurses, 4,175 dentists, 22,528 paramedics, and 5,619 female health workers. There are 796 hospitals, 93,907 hospital beds, 5,171 basic health units, 531 rural health centers, and 856 maternity and child health centers (Government of Pakistan,2001) The Pakistani healthcare system is neither competent nor

comprehensive to provide adequate services for the growing population.(Sharif KM.,2001) . In Pakistan, Most of the rural and urban people, live under poverty, are deprived from health services due to lack of doctors and nurses. People are still unaware about healthy life style and often their low economics background insists them to ignore their diseases at early stage. Under these circumstances, In Pakistan, many attempts have been made to improve the health conditions of the people through availability of trained personnel, adequate supply of medicines and establishment of health services.

The discussion about need and importance of medical social work practice in Karachi is closely related to the broader concept of social work development in Pakistan especially in Sindh Province. Medical social work has been a very productive field. It is the application of theory of social work is useful in addressing the problems relevant to clinical practice. Medical Social work grew out of humanitarian and democratic ideas, and its values are based on respect for equality, worth, and dignity of all people. It focused on meeting human needs and developing human potential by enabling them to solve their problem on self-help basis. This is extremely complex process, which demands a systematic approach for developing the understanding about the Patient rights and their satisfaction. Globally, the scope of Medical Social work education, remunerative work and community affairs is very demanding especially in developed countries. However, in Pakistan, the profession is yet to gain adequate recognition from those individuals and institutions that matter. This tragedy is the root cause in the speedy growth of the profession in this country.

Pakistan has under-went a long socio-political conflict before and after 9/11 and even today, its citizens are facing great challenges that disturbing its way to achieve socio-economic development. Social development has not been an isolated process. There are a number of challenges on the way of progress in Pakistan like poverty, unemployment, unstable law and order or security condition, religious extremism, human trafficking that requires social treatment. As a Medical social worker we believe that social problems could alleviate some of the consequences and could be addressed properly if people understand their causes. social progress of any country or its process such as technical development ,the distribution of material and economical resources; socio-political issues and conflict cannot understood anymore without analyzing the social fabric of a nation.

Role of Medical Social Worker in Hospital Setting with Special Reference to Pakistan

According to Margaret Alston,(2001),“Social Worker asses the social circumstances of clients, establish the extent to which these have contributed to ill health, and alleviate these conditions; plan adequate care in community once people have been discharged from hospital; attend to those matters that may interfere with healthcare; and ameliorate the social distress, including of family and friend, caused by illness, disability, frailty, and death”.

In Pakistan, the Health sector suffers low efficacy for implementation of programs and insufficient funds and budget allocation with poor management, supervision. As a matter of fact, Pakistan has one of the lowest rates of literacy in the world, among the comparative socioeconomic countries. In health sector less budget allocation is causing great difficulties to meet the needy patients' requirement. In Pakistan due to rising cost of living which leads to a number of social, emotional , psychological and economic problems which increased rapidly. The situation becomes more serious if somebody from the family gets hospitalized due to chronic illness because mostly people are living in joint family setup. In Pakistan, like other developing or under developing countries, health care expenditure extends beyond the range of common man. The current political and economic climate has had a detrimental impact on

some aspects of Medical social work practice. In fact, the importance of medical social work as profession and its role in patient care and in human welfare has become a sort of mantra, a mum-and-apple –pie notion that few would provoke.

Current Situation of Medical Social Services in Karachi,Sindh

According to Ms. Rehmatullah,S. (2002): “People in Pakistan are charity –oriented-organized as well as personal. This charity attitude had to be channeled and demonstrated the only means of achieving.”

Medical Social Welfare officers are employed in hospitals to cater the need of poor and vulnerable patients in hospital. In Pakistan, Medical social welfare officers generally with the help of hospital administration, doctors and eminent philanthropist, established Patient welfare society in Hospitals and collecting donation. The government also provides financial support from Zakat Fund and Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal .

Zakat deduction was started in 1980. Later on, the system of Bait-ul-Maal was created from ‘transfer of receipt from tax, grants, from the federal, provincial, and local authorities, organizations international agencies, voluntary donations including sadqat, and Kahirat (personal charities). It is broad and well-planned infrastructure of an Islamic Public Assistance System Developed which provides much needed support to medical social work at every level.

In Sindh, The Provincial Administrated Hospitals like Civil Hospital the medical social services projects are not functional due to shortage of resources. As compared to the government, the private sector is offering better health care services in the country. Few hospital who are running in private setup are being providing the Medical Social Welfare services in Karachi where the some qualified Medical Social welfare or non-professional officers are employed to cater the need of poor and vulnerable patients in private hospital set-up .In many cases, the financial assessment for non-affording or providing counselling services or Patient Satisfaction in not at satisfactory level in Private Hospitals. On another hands, the job of Social Welfare Officer in hospitals has led to a decrease in formal opportunities for practice in Sindh, a province of Pakistan, and as a result has led to feelings of isolation, loss of professional identity, and low morale among the social workers, students of social work who belongs to Karachi and Sindh.

In Pakistan, in the province of Sindh, there is a ban on Medical Social Services in Government Set up due to shortage of resources. The services of Social Welfare Officers who has been deputed in Federally Administrated hospitals are transferred.Consequent upon approval of 18th Amendment Act,2010 (Act No.X of 2010) in the constitution of Islamic Republic Of Pakistan, resultant abolition of concurrent legislative list and thereby devolution of Social Services (Medical) following Centre under the Ministry of Social Welfare & Special Education has been transferred to the Social Welfare Department Government of the Sindh vide Establishment Division Government of Pakistan Notification No .4-5/2011 dated 5th April2011.(source :Govt of Pakistan Notification 2011). Following are the details of institutions where the services of Medical Social Welfare officers have been transferred:

1. Social Services Medical Centre, National Institute of Child Health (NICH), Karachi.
2. Social Services Medical Centre, National Institute of Cardiac Vascular Diseases (NICVD), Karachi.
3. Social Services Medical Centre, Jinnah Post Graduate Medical Centre (JPMC), Karachi.

There have been many changes and difficulties emerging in the Medical Social Work practice in Sind after the transfer of Medical Project to Sindh government. Firstly, there is a ban imposed to the appointment of any Medical Social Welfare officers in hospital due to government shortage of funds to cater the needs of poor PATIENTS. Secondly, those who are transferred from federal government to the Government of Sindh are highly de-motivated as there is no job career for them. They have continue their job till there retirement without having any training or further Promotion.

Today, if we examine the current challenges of Medical social workers in the field, it is revealed that a number of non-financial constraints have played an equally important role in the underperformance of Social welfare officers working in the field. They are de-motivated and distracted from their work by conflicting interests. Weak governance, imbalance of human resource, lack of equitable service delivery, absence of social safety nets, lack of effective implementation of regulations particularly in a large un-regulated private sector are some of these factors having an adverse impact on their performance in the health sector . Apart from the problem of Government less investment in health sector, the practice of Medical Social Work or case work management is in a disappointing situation. These issues are complex and multidimensional, requiring immediate response. All the stakeholders including the government have neglected social welfare training institutions .It is need of the day to concentrate and establish social welfare project in all districts in the country especially in hospitals (both public and private).

Major types of services provided by MSWs to patients and their families include counselling services through individual casework or group work approach; close collaboration with other medical and allied health professionals for psychosocial assessment and formulation of welfare plans; provision of tangible assistance such as waiver of medical charges, making recommendations for charitable trust funds etc. They arrange Patient welfare activities are fund raising for under privileged patient's liaison with philanthropists & other charitable trusts distributing medicines & I.V.Fluids to the needy patients. They also organize periodic recreational activities for patients. A prime responsibility of Medical Social Worker in under develops country like Pakistan, is to Assists patients who cannot afford their medications nor have any health insurance. The main aim is to help and facilitate poor patients by providing free medicines or making arrangements for operations.

In Pakistan, Medical social welfare officers generally with the help of hospital administration, doctors and eminent philanthropist, established Patient welfare society in Hospitals and collecting donation. The government also provides financial support from Zakat Fund and Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal. Medical Social worker also assists with patient transitions and discharge planning and they Performs psycho-social assessments. Patient Education is another very important job of MSW.The education Program for mainly focuses on promoting health and good quality of life as well as informing the patients about what is happening to him or her, how it has affected, what are the doctors' plans and how he has to adhere to treatment.

MSWs are deputed in hospitals and clinics to provide timely psycho-social intervention to patients and their families and help them cope with or solve problems arising from, illness or disability. As a member in the multidisciplinary clinical team, MSW plays an important role in linking up the medical and social services to facilitate a patient's recovery and rehabilitation in the community. Major types of services provided by MSWs to patients and their families include Psychosocial Assessments – Assessment of a person's problem solving, coping, emotional and developmental capacities in the context of their social and environmental

circumstances; Group Work (Educational & Therapeutic); Provide counseling services through individual casework or group; Working with families or carers and facilitating family meetings; Crisis intervention; Coordinate and collaborate with statutory and voluntary services regarding patients and their families or carers. Establish care links for referrals for community resources; Mediation and do advocacy for the patients, counsel them about their health status. Assessing Child Protection / Elder Abuse / Domestic Violence concerns and referring on as appropriate place; Establish relation between patient and doctor; Guides the respective doctor about the social economic condition of patient, so that doctor may be able to prescribe medicine in a better way. In the end we can say that the Job of MSW is very challenging which contributes every aspect of patients' needs i.e. physical, psychological, financial etc. Medical Social Worker helps the community by assessing their needs and organizes the people to plan programs and provide services in order to meet the needs of the needy patients. They also create social awareness for needy patients particular and community in general about the social causes of diseases, their prevention and amelioration. In short, Medical social work is in a position to shape the health care system through creative utilization of research-informed assessment and intervention tools and through development of innovative models of practice-based evidence

RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study suggested the following recommendations are proposed for different stakeholders to; moving the Medical Social work profession into the mainstream of healthcare delivery in Pakistan requires immense effort on many fronts. There is a dire need to change the public image for meaning full and flourishing growth of the profession in the country. There is a great need to appoint social workers in different hospitals (in both public & private sector) to improve the quality of services for patients and well-being of Pakistan's population. It is suggested that Government of Pakistan may formulate a clear vision and appoints Medical Social Workers in Public Hospital across sindh province in each District Head Quarter Hospital as per the practices of other provinces of Pakistan. Furthermore, it is necessary to reshape the existing employment structure and design better policies for future. It is recommended that the modification in job Identification may be done and the term of Medical social work may be replaced as " Medical social work practitioner".

More evaluation research is needed in various health care settings regarding the effectiveness of Medical Social work in Pakistan. A well-established institutional mechanism is needed to improve the quality of life and well-being of Pakistan's population; which ensure effective implementation and strength the role of Medical social work practitioner. The study suggested In-services training of MSO at national and international level are needed. The federal Ministry of Health and the Provincial Department of Health and Ministry of Social Welfare have to play a critical role in this respect and take serious step on this matter. In this context; an updated or revised National Social Welfare Policy for strength the existing setup is also needed.

CONCLUSION

It may be concluded that in pursuance of new possibilities for a better and healthy world, it is important that state must empower Medical social work as profession by integrating policies and practices that support and nurtures' social work perspectives ,and approaches so that they can participate in an environment that respect their knowledge. More importantly, Association of Professional Medical Social Work Practitioner is need to be established in the country as there is no professional Association of social worker it is milieu to operate its professional identity and to deal and resolve the professional policy issues effectively.

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END NOTES

Zakat is a Religious Tax, lived on every Muslim Voluntarily paid by an individual to those found in need. Pakistan Bait-ul –Mal System (PBM) fulfills the aims and objectives of an Islamic Welfare State based on purely Islamic Tenants. In, Pakistan, in 1992 the Government set up Bait-ul-Mal, established as a separate body, a fund to provide assistance for the needy and destitute persons.

Recruitment and Retention of Early Childhood Educators in Ghana

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to determine factors that influences and shapes early childhood educators decision to choose early childhood education as a profession, and also to determine their level of job satisfaction and intention to stay at their jobs. As part of the aims of the study, recruitment processes prevalent at the study area with regards to early childhood education was also investigated. Purposive sampling was used where 143 early childhood educators from public and private early childhood centers volunteered to participate in the study. Using a descriptive (quantitative) research method of the survey type, questionnaires were administered to participants. In all, four research questions and two hypothesis guided the study with participants ranking love of teaching at the early childhood level and teaching in general as the most important reasons for choosing early childhood as a career, and good salary and job security been the lest of the factors influencing career choice. Also, overall responses by participants reflected job satisfaction though most participants had intentions to leave their jobs. With regards to recruitment processes, 'word of mouth' and 'walk-in' as opposed to advertisements in the media served as the most sourced channel of job advertisement.

Keywords: Career choice, early childhood education, job satisfaction, retention

INTRODUCTION

In Ghana just as in many other African countries around the world, there is evidence to the fact that there is a short supply of qualified early childhood educators which makes it a challenge in providing quality early childhood education for all. The Ministry of Education of Ghana (MOE, 2011) based on its education statistics of that period state; of the 31, 500 early childhood educators in the country as at that period, a whopping 62% were untrained. In fact the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); International Bureau of Education (IBE) country profile on early childhood care and education programs in Ghana for the year 2006 pegged the number of trained early childhood educators at 22.2%. Of course every institution or educational program undoubtedly is measured based on the skills, knowledge and abilities of its staff and personnel in that program, hence it comes as no surprise that Ghana is challenged when it comes to the provision of effective quality early childhood education.

A competent early childhood educational workforce capable of been able to work with various stakeholders (children, parents, colleague educators, and the community at large) in the integration of the early child into mainstream education is extremely necessary (McCain & Mustard, 1999). In Ghana, as the need and demand for early childhood education represented as education from birth through age eight continues to expand at an unprecedented proportion (Sivan, 2010), definitely the need for qualified and competent educators to manage such an important educational sector has become necessary. There is growing interest on the part of

stakeholders of early childhood education in matters of who teach at the early childhood level, and most importantly the commitment of those vested with such responsibilities especially at such a delicate and sensitive period of the child's educational development. This interest is partly informed by the tremendous challenge associated with identifying, recruiting, and retaining the best caliber of staff for such an important sector of the Ghanaian educational enterprise, and also the proliferation of early childhood centers especially by private individuals and organizations. Hence, this study looks at factors that affect the recruitment and retention of early childhood educators in Ghana.

In the case of Ghana, it would be of interest both practically and theoretically to understand the career choice of early childhood educators, what attracts them to work at the early childhood level, their satisfaction with working conditions, and perception about their long term plans as far as their stay at that sector is concerned. This study intends to make a critical study of the above highlighted issues and is guided by the following objectives:

1. To examine factors that affects recruitment and retention of early childhood educators in the Tamale municipality.
2. To determine early childhood educators' level of satisfaction at their respective jobs.
3. To determine if early childhood educator's intend to stay at their respective jobs, and
4. What tools or procedures are used in recruitment of early childhood educators?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Recruitment and Retention as phrases are interpreted and understood differently depending on the context in which they are used. However, for the purposes of this study; recruitment is used as the processes involved in the hiring or employing of early childhood educators, while retention is viewed as factors that influences the early childhood educator to stay at the new found job.

Literature on recruitment of early childhood educators especially in Ghana is very scanty if not unavailable. However, Olson (2002) argues that attracting and retaining highly qualified professionals into early childhood care and education remains such a challenge. Writing on factors that makes the profession unattractive; Whitebrook, Howes, & Phillips (1998) argues that it is one of the most poorly paid professions in the teaching field. In fact, the challenge of recruitment is even more profound in the difficulty in retaining the few qualified staff in the field. For example, Whitebrook et al (2001) opines that those who teach young children even though are relatively educated; nonetheless there is concern the few educated will leave to be replaced by less qualified staff.

There is no doubt that the essence of every institution is its ability to attract and retain first – class academic staff (Horwitz, 1991; Ssekamwa, 1999), and the early childhood profession arguably is no exception. However, just like most professions, employee retention has been a major challenge for most organizations and institutions. Literature abound when it comes to factors that influences an employee to stay at the job or quit. Most of the literature provided though sourced from the corporate business environment yet are relevant and applicable to this study.

On the question of factors that may motivate employees to stay at their job, one of the sticking out factors as revealed in the literature is remuneration represented as salary packages. For example, Shoaib, et al (2009) stresses that attractive remuneration packages are one of the very important factors of retaining employees because as the authors put it, it fulfills the financial and material desires of the employee. This position is well articulated in some studies (see; Manlove & Guzel, 1997) where better wages or compensations are described as

important factors in teacher retention. Again, Tettey (2006) opines that dissatisfaction with salaries is one of the key factors undermining the commitment of academics to their institutions and career hence a recipe to quit.

Deviating from financial rewards as incentive to retention, Dockel (2003) calls for employees not to be rewarded financially instead the offering of opportunities for workers to grow within the institution. Contributing to this position, Chew (2004) is of the view that compensation devoid of financial inducements provides employees recognition and appreciation of their contribution to the growth of the organization. Price (2001) uses the phrase; distributive justice. According to the author, it is the extent to which punishments and rewards are meted to employees relative to performance. A number of studies (see; Haarand and Spell, 2009, in Kipkebut, 2010) have affirmed distributive justice as being an important ingredient in employee retention. Aside fairness at work place, Daly et al (2006) observes that heavy workloads including assignments to teach large class sizes mostly generate hostility towards the institution and may lead to leaving the job. The above notwithstanding, there are others such as Mitchell et al (2001) who contend that some employees may leave with reasons unrelated to their jobs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In attaining the objectives guiding this study, four research questions were formulated to direct the study. The questions are:

1. What factors influences Early Childhood Educators in the Tamale municipality of Ghana's career choice?
2. What is the job satisfaction level of Early Childhood Educators in the study area?
3. What are the ratings of participants in this study relative to their intention to stay at their jobs in the study area?
4. To what extent does contacts, connections and advertisements affects Early Childhood Educators recruitment?

METHODOLOGY

The trust of this study was to determine factors that inform early childhood educators' choice of their profession and their level of job satisfaction, as well as their intention to stay at their job place and what informs or influences such decisions. Perspectives were sought from educators who served as participants for the study. The instrument used in data collation was a questionnaire of closed and open-ended items because it was deemed as appropriate in a study of this sort and also convenient and easy to administer. In all, the questionnaire consisted of five sections with section A capturing the demographic data of participants whiles subsequent sections addressed the four research questions that guided the study. Population sampling was done through purposive sampling where questionnaires were administered to early childhood educators in 32 public and private early childhood centers in the Tamale municipality of the Northern region of Ghana who volunteered to participate in the study. 160 questionnaires were administered with 143 returned fully or partly answered.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Table 1 exhibits the findings for research question one. In respect of gender profile in early childhood care environment, 78% (n=111) of educators surveyed in this study were females with only 22% (n=32) males. However, when teachers were asked why they found themselves in early childhood centers, 35.6% (n=51) stated love of teaching in general was the prime factor. 49.6% (n=71) said love of early child care compelled them to accept appointment at the

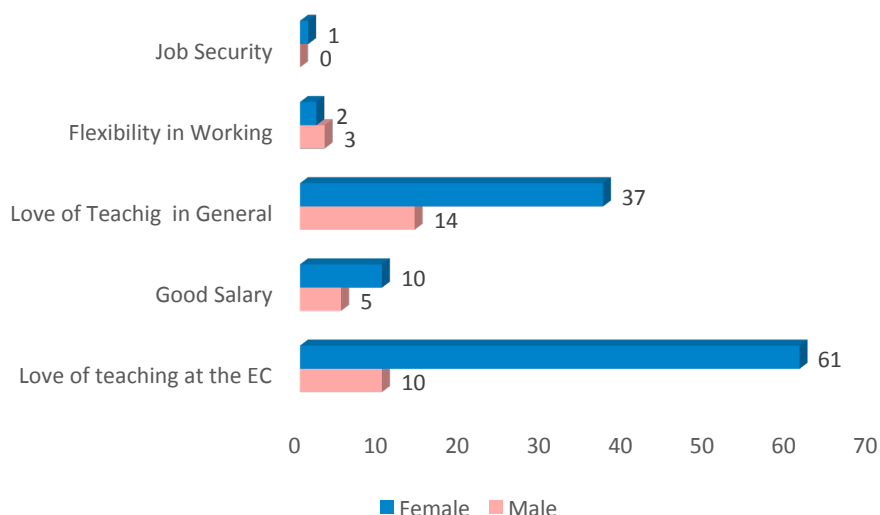
early childhood level, with only 3% (n=5) of participants indicating flexibility of work as a factor. Also in Table 1, 10% (n=15) of participants indicated good salary as a reason for their choice in early childhood education while 0.6% (n=1) indicated job security. The gender distributions of participants relative to response on attractions to early childhood education are represented in Figure 1 of this study.

Table 1: Reasons to work at EC level Crosstabulation

Count		Reasons to work at EC level					Total
		Love of teaching at the EC	Good Salary	Love of Teaching in General	Flexibility in Working	Job Security	
Sex	Male	10	5	14	3	0	32
	Female	61	10	37	2	1	111
Total		71	15	51	5	1	143

Figure 1

Choice of Early Childhood Career and Gender



With respect to research question two; early childhood educators job satisfaction level in the study area, descriptive statistics scores as presented in Table 2 shows; Kindergarten educators were 55% (n=75) of the sample used in this study. However, 13% (n=17) of educators worked at the crèches in the municipality, and 32% (n=44) worked at nursery. The mean scores for the educators' job satisfaction were computed within the 95% C.I. Thus, on a scale of 1 to 5, early childhood educators at the crèche level will score mean values between 1.7 and 2.19 (Strongly Satisfied), while those at the nursery will score between 2.0 and 2.5 (Satisfied), and those at kindergarten will score 2.2 to 2.4 (Satisfied).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Early Childhood Educators' Job Satisfaction

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper

Crèche	17	1.96611	.430090	.104312	1.74497	2.18724
Nursery	44	2.28939	.746045	.112471	2.06258	2.51621
kindergarten	75	2.33540	.583447	.067371	2.20116	2.46964
Total	136	2.27435	.632384	.054226	2.16711	2.38160

Early Childhood Educators mean plots are shown in Figure 2, indicating that crèche teachers scored highest on job satisfaction scale relative to other educators in the study.

Figure 2



In addition, the study further subjected the descriptive scores on educators' job satisfaction to significance testing using the one-way ANOVA for Hypothesis 1(early childhood educators' mean scores will not differ significantly across the three levels). The Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was violated ($p < .05$) in this study (Table 3).

Table 3: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Job Satisfaction			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.498	2	133	.033

Table 4: ANOVA Job Satisfaction

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.905	2	.952	2.432	.092
Within Groups	52.083	133	.392		
Total	53.988	135			

In addition to the above, a further probe into early childhood educators' intention to stay at their job was done. When asked to indicate their willingness to stay at their current jobs as

early childhood educators, in sharp contrast to responses of being satisfied with their jobs as revealed in responses to research question 2; 75% (n=102) indicated “No”, with mean score ranged between 1(Strongly Satisfied) and 2 (Satisfied). Results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Educators’ Intention to Stay Using Categorical Measures

intention to stay	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Yes	34	1.21	.410	.070
No	102	1.09	.285	.028

In fact the high attrition rate of early childhood educators represented in their intent to leave their jobs is evidenced in the results provided in Table 6. A look at the number of years of service (tenure) reveals that 79% (n=34 plus n=79) had worked between below a year and five years, hence Table 6 validates intention of educators to leave their jobs.

Table 6: school type tenure Crosstabulation Count

school type	Tenure	Tenure				Total
		Less than a year	1-5 years	6-10 years	15-20 years and above	
private		32	61	12	0	106
public		2	18	11	5	37
Total		34	79	23	5	143

Aside determining early childhood educators’ intention to stay, the study went further to investigate recruitment practices among early childhood education centers in the Tamale municipality. The relationship between contacts, connections, and advertisement were explored. Using a Chi-square statistics, data from 131 responses were used to test Hypothesis 2; that there will not be any statistical association between ‘whom you know’ and recruitment procedure.

Table 7: Contacts and Connections * Recruitment Source Crosstabulation

		Recruitment Source			Total
		Radio/TV/Newspaper Advertisement	Walked to the School to Enquire	Word of Mouth/through someone	
Contacts and Connections	Count	1	11	29	41
	Yes % within Contacts and Connections	2.4%	26.8%	70.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.8%	8.4%	22.1%	31.3%
	Count	14	50	26	90
	No % within Contacts and Connections	15.6%	55.6%	28.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.7%	38.2%	19.8%	68.7%
Total	Count	15	61	55	131

% within Contacts and Connections	11.5%	46.6%	42.0%	100.0%
% of Total	11.5%	46.6%	42.0%	100.0%

Table 7 shows descriptive statistics for the two categorical factors explored for Hypothesis 2. The results revealed that 88% (n=116) of early childhood educators who responded to this question mentioned word of mouth/through someone and walked in for enquiries as the main sources of recruitment. Only 12% (n=15) of educators in the study indicated that they got hint of job openings in their respective job places through radio, television, and newspaper commercials. Indeed, 69% (n=90) of participants in this study indicated that their job was obtained without 'whom you know' syndrome with 31% (n=41) acknowledging that contacts and connections were key for their recruitments into teaching at the early childhood level. As a result of this, the Pearson's Chi-square test was used to establish the statistical significant relationship between contacts, connections, and sources of advertisement for early childhood centers. Table 8 shows a highly statistical relationship ($p < .05$) between the factors. Consequently, it is appropriate for the null hypothesis that advertisement, contacts, and connections would not be related in this study.

Table 8: Chi-Square Tests for Hypothesis 2

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.970 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	21.822	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.141	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	131		

CONCLUSION

Considering the place and importance of early childhood education in the total educational process of the child, this study sought to determine what factors informs the career choice of early childhood educators and most importantly to gauge the intentions of educators to stay at their job. Results revealed in this study indicates that with specific reference to choice of early childhood education as a career, love of teaching at that sector ranks high with good salary and job security lingering at the bottom. Thus, these findings replicates other studies that state that financial consideration may not be the most reason for people picking up certain jobs (see for example; Mitchell, 2001; Dockel, 2003; Chew, 2004). Indeed as revealed in this study a greater majority of educators choose to work at the early childhood level devoid of financial consideration.

A hypothesis regarding differences among early childhood educators level of job satisfaction was retained. Descriptive statistics among three groups of educators in this study revealed differences in the mean scores of participants but when placed on ANOVA no significant differences were detected. This notwithstanding, findings on the intention of educators to stay were negative. In fact majority of educators contrary to their level of job satisfaction had intentions to leave. Reasons to the contradiction were not investigated by the study and this is worth pursuing in future studies. Finally, a second hypothesis that there will not be any statistical association between 'whom you know' and recruitment procedures were rejected.

Findings revealed that most educators got hint of job openings through 'walk-in' and 'word of mouth'.

Stemming from the forgoing findings, the contributions of this study towards career choices and retention of early childhood educators though not exhaustive, cannot be disputed. In fact the study provides an insight into what informs early childhood educators' choice of working at the early childhood level. Information of this sought naturally should be useful in any recruitment process and most importantly its enhancement should affect retention (Torquiti, Raikes & Huddleston-Casas, 2007). This notwithstanding, the study fell short in determining what influences the factors identified in the findings and how they can be enhanced especially with regards to an immaterial variable such as love of teaching. Future studies in this direction are needed. In addition, it is also revealed that early childhood educators based on their responses are satisfied with their jobs but are however unwilling to keep their jobs. A disconnection of this type warrants a probe into why this is the case. Definitely, job satisfaction should have a positive correlation with job retention but this is not the case as pertain to educators involved in this study. Finally and most importantly, this study brings to the fore recruitment processes surrounding early childhood education in the study area. 'Word of mouth' and 'walk-in' served as the bane of recruitment in the Tamale municipality. Why this is the case is worth investigating and it should be directed to heads of early childhood centers.

It is important to note that this study as limited as it is has succeeded in contributing to the discussion surrounding effective early childhood educational practices within the Ghanaian society. Results even though limited to a small location of Ghana; Tamale municipality, the findings by extension are useful to early childhood educational practices in Ghana as a whole and the world at large. These contributions can be relevant in the spectrum of providing information relative to what informs early childhood educators' choice of early childhood as a profession, their level of job satisfaction, intention to stay, and how they got hint of vacancies at their respective jobs. Such information undoubtedly serves as an addition to every efficient and effective recruitment program. After all, the success of an organization depends on the quality of staff, and one cannot attract the right staff if one is oblivious of what inspires them. Hence, it will be convenient to conclude that this study provides important insight in the discussion of teacher recruitment especially at an important sector of the educational enterprise; early childhood education.

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Perceived Godfatherism, Political Awareness and Voting Behaviours in Nigeria: A Clarion Call to All Prospective Electorates.

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Abstract

Poor leadership in Nigeria is making her citizens to lose interest in the electoral system and governance in the country. The study examined ethnicity, religion, perceived godfatherism and political awareness as predictors of voting behaviour among electorates in Nigeria. This was a survey research where ex-post facto research design was adopted. Data were collected via structured questionnaires; and 473 participants were sampled using accidental sampling selection method. Hypotheses stated in the study were tested using multiple regression and t-test for independent samples. Results revealed that all the predictor variables jointly predicted electorates' voting behaviour. However, perceived godfatherism and political awareness independently contributed in explaining voting behaviour of electorates. Male electorates were not significantly different in voting behaviour from female electorates. It is concluded that electorates in Nigeria see the presence of godfatherism and being informed about the political processes as relevant to exercising their civic rights. It is recommended that issue of godfatherism should be abated and political awareness should be intensified to ensure higher voting behaviour in Nigeria.

Keywords: Voting behaviour, godfatherism, political awareness, electorates, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that all is not well with political system and governance in Nigeria. This may have to do with improper ambition of some of the political leaders to hold on to power indefinitely and not considering what the constitution says or feelings of Nigerian people on the subject-matter. Levels at which electorates in Nigeria perform their civic rights by casting their votes to elect their representatives seem to be reduced these days. People do not come out today in great number to cast their votes as they used to do in the past elections. This may be connected to lack of trust in the Nigerian electoral system or election results. Previous study regarding voting behaviour of electorates in Nigeria had found that age and self-esteem independently predict voting behaviour among Nigerian electorates (Balogun & Olapegba, 2007). Perhaps, considering a number of other relevant factors that could be responsible for poor voting behaviour of electorates might be of paramount at this era; especially in Oyo state; being one of the states in Nigeria that is believed to be known for godfatherism in her electoral processes.

Voting is simply when a group of people makes a decision on a subject that concerns them as a whole. In many countries across the globe, people vote to choose their leaders and to decide

public issues. Voting thus, is a means of aggregating individual preferences into collective decision in an election; the action of formally indicating one's choice of candidate or political party at an election. With this in mind, voting is seen as a form of behaviour that an individual exhibits to exercise his or her civic right. However, voting behaviours among electorates could have some motivating and determining factors in the Nigeria context. Some of the notable likely factors that may predict voting behaviours of electorates in Nigeria include ethnicity, religion, perceived godfatherism and political awareness.

Godfatherism is greatly perceived to have effect on voting behaviours among Nigerian electorates. The issue of Godfatherism is rampant almost everywhere in the Nigeria political processes irrespective of the tribe. Going by the history, Godfatherism became popular in Nigerian political space in the 1960's, when early post-independence leaders became godfathers (Mamah, 2007). However, the handiwork of godfathers was visible at the return to civil rule in 1979, but military regimes that characterized the 1980's obstructed its activities. The 1999 civil rule ushered in another form of godfatherism, which reached its climax during the wanton destruction of lives and properties that witnessed the violent confrontation between a godfather (Chris Uba) and the then governor of Anambra state, Nigeria (Chris Ngige). This act alone; perhaps, brings to the fore, a new dimension to the practice of godfatherism in Nigeria. In Ibadan, Oyo state, Nigeria, late Lamidi Adedibu used to be identified as the main godfather in the state politics; and this used to go a long way with electoral system of the state until his death in the year 2009. All these are in contrast to the roles played by the then godfathers in Nigeria's democratic practice between 1958 and 1983. Therefore, Godfathers can be viewed as brokers, go-betweens for politicians seeking political power in a situation of voters' alienation and distrust in return for contracts and political appointments.

Regarding perceived godfatherism and voting behaviour among electorates, Adeoye (2009) explored the relationship between godfathers and godsons with a particular attention to its influence on the development of Nigeria's politics, and seeming demise of resourceful governance in the country. Adeoye (2009) found that there was a shift in the modus operandi of post-independence godfatherism, and what obtains in contemporary Nigeria was violence-inspired godfatherism, which successfully replaced politics of welfare by politics of warfare in the affected areas. In a similar vein, Abdul-jelili (2009) identified godfatherism; a form of patron-client relationship as a social-political problematic which has resulted in political insecurity and violence; threatening participatory democracy, peace, political security and the consolidation of democracy since the fourth-republic started on the 29th of May, 1999. In another perspective, Olarinmoye (2008) focused on the realities of existence of godfathers, political parties and voters in Nigeria; and argued that electoral corruption is the result not just of the avariciousness of godfathers and politicians. Also, that electoral corruption is further entrenched by the political and social existential demands of the godfather, which could only be met by further exercises in electoral corruption, though this time in favour of the godfathers themselves. From the aforementioned studies, it can be deduced that godfatherism in politics is inevitable, but there is the need for proper management of godfather or godson relationship in Nigeria. Apart from perception of godfatherism, extent of political awareness in electorates may be relevant in determining their voting behaviour.

It is generally recognized that individual voters differ greatly in their ability and incentives to gather and understand political information; and that this affects opinion formation processes (Converse, 2000). Moreover, the opportunity for political learning also depends on the type of information available in the political environment. It is suggested that the campaign context

interacts with individual level characteristics in influencing the vote, since intensive referendum campaigns provide a favourable informational environment that encourages citizens to absorb and process more information and consequently rely on more sophisticated decision criteria. How informed or aware an electorate is, about the political issues in his or her surrounding may determine whether he or she will go out to cast vote or not. Of course, if you are not aware of the politics in your community you might not be willing to exercise your civic rights. Examining political awareness and voting behaviour, Oluwatula and Arogundade (2008) investigated the relationships between psychological and political awareness; and desire for political power among university students in Nigeria. In their study, some strong relationships were found between levels of psychological and political awareness and need for personal power and need for institutional power among the participants. In another study, Hobolt (2005) investigated how political information influences voting behaviour; and argued that political information conditions the way in which people make decisions in referendums by altering the impact of the decision criteria that voters use. It is argued that people with high levels of political awareness receive more information, and consequently rely more on their own attitudes and less on elite cues when deciding. Apart from perceived godfatherism and political awareness, demographic factors such as ethnicity and religion may help in predicting voting behaviours of electorates in Nigeria.

Conventional wisdom appears to hold that ethnicity provides a major social cleavage for voting behaviour and party affiliation in Africa. In some cases, ethnicity matters for voter alignment, but even in these cases it is only one factor among others that can explain voting behaviour. Overall, ethnicity matters to very different degrees in different countries and even so for the different parties within the same country. Ethnicity in this context includes whether an electorate is a Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo or any other ethnics in Nigeria. Literature review indicates that Oluwatula and Arogundade (2009) examined the influence of some psychosocial variables such as ethnic and religious affiliation, self-esteem, personality, family background, age, political party ideology, gender, perceived benefit and personal attributes of the candidate, on voting behaviour of Nigerians; they . Similarly, Balogun and Olapegba (2007) examined the influence of psychological and demographic variables (age, ethnicity, sex, social class, media and self-esteem) on voting behaviour within Ibadan metropolis and reported no independent contribution of ethnicity in explaining voting behaviour.

Religion is another demographic factor that is likely to predict voting behaviours of electorates in Nigeria. Religion includes religious affiliations such as Christianity, Islam, traditional religion and other unclassified religious affiliation. Forster (2008) is one of the many studies that have examined the influence of religion on the voting behaviour of citizens; thus, making religion one of the most important factors in determining voting behaviour. Overwhelming amounts of literature have been devoted to the importance of religion in regards to voting behaviour. Forster (2008) used data from the National Election Study to examine the impact, or lack thereof, of religious preferences in the last four U.S. presidential elections. Using multinomial logistic regression, the paper looked for the influence of religion, in terms of specific preferences as well as attendance, on presidential vote choice as well as stated preferences on individual issues as diverse as abortion rights, same-sex marriage, environmental preservation, foreign intervention, and social welfare spending. Additionally, the paper explored interactions between religious preferences and demographic characteristics such as race, gender, and age. The paper concluded by suggesting that the increased importance of foreign policy in presidential elections has resulted in a decline in the influence of religion and religiously-based social preferences on voting behaviour at the national level. Fastnow, Grant, and Rudolph (1999) investigated the effect of religion in the House of Representatives to see how religion

affected vote choice. It was found that “members’ votes represent both their [the representatives’] own religious affiliation, and the religious groups within their districts”. In another study, Fox and Richardson (2001) found “that the only variable that consistently allowed prediction of voting behaviour is religious affiliation.” When other variables were included in this study, there was little significance in voting behaviour (Fox & Richardson, 2001). Fox and Richardson (2001) concluded that “religious affiliation is always the best predictor, even though in some cases its effect is small. From the aforementioned findings, religion has a profound influence on the party affiliation and voting tendency of individuals, though change has been occurring slightly over time.

Studies of the gender gap in electoral behaviour have now become a familiar feature of social science research. Yet, there is still disagreement about its nature and extent; as well as what accounts for its development. Gender in this context involves whether the electorates are male or female; examining how this might influence their voting behaviours. Looking at gender difference in voting behaviour, Gill (2003) analyzed voter choice in selected House of Representatives elections during the past 30 years. He argued that no gender gap exists in the votes garnered by the main parties because, first, influential people are not simply able to ‘deliver’ votes from their networks — most accounts of voter choice fail to discuss gender, an oversight considering that most networks are gender-based — and, second, ‘women’s issues’ have no special relevance to women in their vote choice. Instead, women and men vote for the Liberal Democratic Party because they associate the Party with stability and increased standards of living, including substantial social provisions. In another study, Sanbonmatsu (2002) looked at the different stereotypes associated with men and women regarding “candidate beliefs, issue competency, and traits, and voter gender.” In regards to gender stereotypes Sanbonmatsu claimed that the general population tends to view women as more capable to understand issues dealing with women’s rights, whereas men are more capable to deal with issues such as foreign policy and defense. Sanbonmatsu reported that their gender stereotypes influence a preference for certain genders in office. Sanbonmatsu (2002) found that in regards to issues that voters “who think women are more likely to take their position on abortion – a stereotypically female strength – are more likely to prefer the female candidate.” The voters, especially female voters, who are pro-choice and support women’s rights believe that a female representative will be more likely to vote pro-choice than a male representative. The purpose of this study was to examine if ethnicity, religion, perceived godfatherism and political awareness would independently and jointly predict voting behaviours among electorates in Oyo state, Nigeria.

METHOD

Research Design

The study was a survey using ex-post facto research design to investigate how ethnicity, religion, godfatherism and political awareness independently and jointly predict voting behaviour among electorates.

Participants

Four hundred and seventy three (473) electorates who came from several local government areas in Oyo state was sampled in the study using accidental sampling technique. The electorates included 247 (52.2%) males and 226(47.8%) females.

Table 1: Socio-demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variable	No	%
Marital Status:		
Married	311	65.8
Singles	123	26.0
Divorced/Separated	4	0.8
Widowed	35	7.4
Religion:		
Islam	179	37.8
Christianity	287	60.7
Traditionalist	4	0.8
Other Religion	3	0.7
Ethnic:		
Yoruba	387	81.8
Hausa	34	7.2
Igbo	29	6.1
Other Ethnic	23	4.9
Education Level:		
Postgraduate	54	11.4
First Degree	186	39.4
ND/NCE	210	44.3
WAEC/GCE 'O' Level	23	4.9

MEASURES

Structured questionnaires were used as instruments to collect data in the study. This questionnaire was designed into four sections. All scales used have 5-point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (scored 1) to strongly agree (scored 5). First section included demographic characteristics of electorates such as sex, marital status, religion, ethnicity, highest education qualification, and local government area. Second section included a 12-item godfatherism scale developed by the researcher for the study. High scores reflect greater perception of godfatherism. The researchers reported a reliability Cronbach alpha of 0.90. Third section included a 6-item modified Political Awareness scale extracted from the 44-item Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaires (CASQ) that was originally developed by Moely, Mercer, Ilustre, Miron and McFarland (2002) based on awareness of local and national current events and political issues. High score indicates higher level of political awareness. The original developers reported internal consistency of 0.80. In the current study, the researcher reported Cronbach alpha of 0.87. Fourth section consisted of 6-item modified Voting behaviour scale extracted from the 44-item CASQ that was originally developed by Moely, Mercer, Ilustre, Miron and McFarland (2002). High score indicates higher voting behaviour. The original developer of the scale reported internal consistency alpha of 0.86. In the present study a Cronbach alpha of 0.90 was reported by the researcher.

Procedure for developing Perceived Godfatherism scale

To start with, a group of 20 male and female electorates in Oyo state, Nigeria were approached and asked an open question each; that they should state what they think is godfatherism in the context of Nigerian politics. This exercise generated 22 items and those ones that appeared repeatedly were discarded. These items were given to five experts in political discussion which included lecturers in political science department and political analysts for them to identify those items that truly measure godfatherism in Nigerian context. This was found necessary in order to ensure face and content validity. At this stage the researcher was able to identify a potential set of items for the construct under consideration. The next step was the

administration of these items to examine how well they confirmed expectations about the structure of the measure. This process includes an assessment of the psychometric properties of the scale and followed by an examination of its relationship with other variables of interest.

Procedure

Participation in filling the questionnaires was made voluntary. The researcher met with the electorates at various venues of their meeting places and made known the research purpose to them before they agreed to fill the questionnaires. Each respondent was thanked after filling in the questionnaire. Administration of questionnaires took five weeks. The researcher along with five trained research assistants distributed 500 questionnaires and 473 were returned representing 94.5% returned rate.

RESULTS

In order to investigate if ethnicity, religion, godfatherism and political awareness would predict voting behaviours among electorates, multiple regressions analysis was used. The result is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Multiple regression analysis showing independent and joint prediction of voting behaviour by ethnicity, religion, godfatherism and political awareness

Predictor Variables	B	t	P	R	R ²	F	P
Ethnicity	-.02	-0.61	>.05	0.53	0.29	46.50	<.05
Religion	-.02	-0.50	>.05				
Godfatherism	.17	3.55	<.05				
Political Awareness	.41	8.77	<.05				

The results presented in Table 2 showed that ethnicity and religion did not significantly independently predict voting behaviour among electorates ($\beta = -0.02$; $t = -0.61$; $p > .05$ & $\beta = -0.02$; $t = -0.50$; $p > .05$) respectively. This suggests that ethnicity and religion did not have independent direct relationships with voting behaviours of the electorates. However, godfatherism and political awareness independently predicted voting behaviours among electorates ($\beta = 0.17$; $t = 3.55$; $p < .05$; $\beta = 0.41$; $t = 8.77$; $p < .05$) respectively. The result indicates that perceived godfatherism and political awareness have direct independent relationships with voting behaviours among electorates. In other words, the higher the perception of godfatherism, the higher the voting behaviour. In same vein, the result indicates that the higher political awareness by the electorates, the higher the levels of their voting behaviours. The result also revealed that all the predictor variables jointly predicted voting behaviours among electorates $F(4, 462) = 46.50$; $p < .05$, with $R = 0.53$; and $R^2 = 0.29$. This result suggests that all the variables jointly accounted for 29% variation in voting behaviour of the electorates.

In determining the gender difference in voting behaviours of electorates, t-test for independent samples was used. The result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: t-test showing gender difference in voting behaviour among electorates

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t	P
Voting Behaviour	Male	244	24.01	5.49	466	-0.37	>.05
	Female	224	24.20	5.44			

The result in Table 3 showed that gender did not have significant influence on voting behaviour among electorates ($t = -0.37$; $df = 466$; $p > .05$). The result further confirmed in the means where male electorates ($\bar{X} = 24.01$) were not significantly different in voting behaviour from female electorates ($\bar{X} = 24.20$). It suggests that there is no gender difference in voting behaviour among the electorates.

DISCUSSION

The study investigated ethnicity, religion, godfatherism and political awareness as predictors of voting behaviour among electorates in Oyo state, Nigeria. The results from the present study revealed that ethnicity, religion, perceived godfatherism and political awareness have combined contribution in explaining voting behaviour of electorates in southwestern, Nigeria. Specifically, the finding showed that all the predictor variables jointly predicted voting behaviour, but only perceived godfatherism and political awareness independently have direct relationships with voting behaviours of the electorates. In other words, ethnicity and religion as demographics and perceived godfatherism and political awareness as psychological variables have combined moderate levels of effects in explaining extent of voting behaviour among electorates in southwestern Nigeria. The current finding supports Balogun and Olapegba's (2007) reports that psychological and demographic variables jointly predicted voting behaviours among electorates within Ibadan metropolis. Similarly, the finding is in line with Oluwatula and Arogundade (2009) that some psychosocial correlates were found prominent in predicting the voting behaviour of Nigerians.

Ethnicity was found not to have a direct relationship with voting behaviour among electorates. This finding does not support Kelly (1982), who had indicated that ethnicity has an appreciable influence on electoral behaviours. Let us take a look at the Nigeria context; the finding suggests that voting behaviours of electorates is not the function of whether electorates are Yorubas, Hausas, Igbos or other ethnic groups in the country. Going by this finding in explaining voting behaviours of Nigerians in 1999, in some quarters, it largely believed that more of Hausas voted for the former president Olusegun Obasanjo; who happened to be a Yoruba in his first tenure in 1999. The finding is not also in line with Branton's (2004) assertion that "the relationship between individual-level voting and diversity is consistently negative, which is in line with the expectations regarding the relationship between diversity and white voting on racially tinged ballot initiatives." Ethnicity in Nigeria has however been found here that it does not affect voting behaviour of some selected southwestern Nigerians.

Religion was also found not to have direct relationship with voting behaviour among electorates. What this finding infers is that level at which electorates cast their votes is not determined whether they are of Islam or Christianity religious affiliation. The finding supports Brooks and Manza's (1997) emphasis that religion has a larger effect on voting than any other factor such as class. However, contrary to the present finding, this may be explained from the conclusion of Forster (2008) that the increased importance of foreign policy in presidential elections resulted in a decline in the influence of religion and religiously-based social preferences on voting behaviour at the national level. Irrespective of religion of electorates in Nigeria, current study has revealed that it does not affect voting behaviour.

Furthermore, the finding showed that perceived godfatherism had direct relationship with voting behaviours of electorates. There is no doubt that it is becoming glaring day-by-day that issue of godfatherism appears to be a strong factor in the political system of Nigeria. The current finding supports Adeoye (2009), who explored the relationship between godfathers and godsons with a particular attention to its influence on the development of Nigeria's

politics, and seeming demise of resourceful governance in the country. Adeoye (2009) recognized the inevitability of godfathers in Nigerian politics but there was the need for proper management of godfather/godson relationship. Also, the finding is in line with Olarinmoye's (2008) report that electoral corruption is further entrenched by the political and social existential demands of the godfather, which can only be met by further exercises in electoral corruption, though this time in favour of the godfathers themselves. People of Nigeria are beginning to be aware of the significant effect of godfatherism on governance of many states. If the issue of godfatherism is not genuinely addressed with all sincerity; it may affect the electoral processes in country and continue to bastardize governance in the country. That is why it is a clarion call to all Nigerians; especially those eligible to vote.

It was further revealed that political awareness directly predicted voting behaviour of electorates. This suggests that the more informed are the electorates, the higher their tendencies to cast their votes. The finding is in line with Amer (2009) who reported that political awareness is accounted for electorates' interest in politics and frequency of political discussion. Also, the finding supports Oluwatula and Arogundade (2008) who found that there are some strong relationships between levels of psychological and political awareness; and need for personal power and need for institutional power among the participants. What this suggests is that the more electorates are informed or aware of the political systems in Nigeria, the more they are likely to engage in voting behaviours. An electorate who knows when election is taken place is aware politically and may desire to participate by casting his or her voting on the day.

Examining gender difference in voting behaviours of electorates, it was found that there was no gender difference in electorates' voting behaviours. The finding contradicts Studlar, Mcallister and Hayes (1998) who examined male-female differences in voting behaviour and found that males engage in voting behaviour than females. The current finding that has found no gender difference in voting behaviour of Nigerian electorates indicates that both sexes are involved in voting. The finding indicates that women are now coming out to exercise their civic rights unlike in the past that less of women got involved in politics. When there are many women vying for leadership positions, there is a tendency for women to come out in a large number and rally round the women aspirants.

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated ethnicity, religion, perceived godfatherism and political awareness as predictors of voting behaviour among electorates. Findings of the present study have revealed that ethnicity, religion, godfatherism and political awareness play significant joint contribution in determining voting behaviours among electorates in Nigeria. The findings further showed direct relationships between godfatherism and political awareness with voting behaviour. It can be concluded that the electorates in Nigeria see the issue of godfatherism appears to go a long way in determining their civic rights. It can also be concluded that as electorates are more informed about the political process in their communities, they are more likely to come out en masse to cast their votes. The study has been able to reveal that Nigerian government that desire to sustain democracy should make the electoral system free from godfatherism and motivate people to be more aware of the political process in the country. Availability of this will ensure high levels of voting behaviour among electorates in Nigeria.

Implications of Major Findings and Recommendations

The findings of the present findings have some practical implications for Nigerian government and Independent National Electoral Commission as an electoral body in Nigeria. For example, building an electoral system in such a way that electorates will see credibility in their voting; devoid of threat, intimidation or godfatherism will be necessary for higher voting behaviour among Nigerian electorates. Especially, the idea that you may be attacked if you do not vote for a particular part should be removed. With this, electorates will feel more secure and be able to go exhibit their civic responsibility very well. The findings also have implication that there should be more education at various media on political process in Nigeria. It is therefore recommended that government of the day should make the environment more conducive for different parties to educate the populace about election processes without being intimidated by the ruling party; as entire worlds awaits the upcoming 2015 election in Nigeria.

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Analysis of Institutional Actors in Rice Policy Implementation in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to analyze the actor role and evaluation of its performance in the rice policy implementation in the South Sulawesi Province. This study uses institutional theory to explain the role of actors in the rice policy implementation. The study used qualitative research methods with the case study strategy. By pairing pattern analysis and making explanations techniques, the role of institutional actors in the rice policy implementation in two sample districts in South Sulawesi has not been effective. This can be shown by the farmers as a target group of this policy can only survive, yet gain a significant advantage in agricultural production. This is caused by the actors are in the bureaucratic system oriented rules.

Key words: Actor, Institutional Theory, Rice Policy Implementation

INTRODUCTION

In the public policy process, the implementation is one step that is essential to realize the objective of a public policy. In this case the policy will not solve public problems if not implemented (Jones, 1984). One of the public policies that become focuses on the study is rice policy. This policy is a policy that is very urgent for the nation, for all Indonesian people because rice is as a main food.

For the main food, availability and affordability for all Indonesian people to be very important. In this case, besides rice food security as a prerequisite to meet the people's food rights is also a pillar of the existence and sovereignty of a nation. Therefore, all components of the nation that the government and the community agreed to jointly build a national food security. In democratic system of government today, the main actors of development of food security are all components of society in achieving national food security programs, ranging from aspects of production, availability, distribution to consumption aspect. While the government is acting as an initiator, and regulators so that a community can make optimum use of agricultural resources available in smooth, efficient, equitable and responsible.

Dependence of this nation to the food, especially food rice influence on social, economic, political and security for food derived from rice is based on rice farming has proven to provide

employment opportunities and fulfillment revenue for the more than 21 million households and contribute to earnings farmer households amounted to 25-35 percent. Strengthening food security in rice is also a major issue because 95 percent of Indonesia's population is still very dependent on the rice, which has contributed 55 percent of the consumption of energy and protein for the average resident of Indonesia. Moreover, the majority of Indonesian people still wanted the rice supply is always available at all times with equitable distribution and stable prices and affordable, Mears, L, A. (1982).

One of the cause of our food production has declined is shrinking arable land to plant crops, it becomes a very serious threat. Statistical Centre Bureau showed in late 2004, a broad change in wetland into non-paddy fields (residential, industrial, etc.) reaches five percent. Of the 12.4 million hectares of wetland, which is converted into as many as 676 000 hectares of land non paddy field, although the absolute number of agricultural households increased, they eventually fall into smallholders who control farmland below 0.5 hectares.

Most of the functions of the food security system now beginning to fade along with the implementation of the mechanism of harmonization by the central government in the handling of food security without considering the local cultural characteristics possessed by each region, so that local institutions was once existed in villages such as food security system, now degraded by the presence of generalizations mechanisms made by the government. According to Flynn (1987) institutional weakness of farmers due to the centralized development has hindered the process of institutional development (local institutional building) even destroy local institutions that have existed and proved instrumental in supporting food security. Under the applicable regulations, farmers are required to accumulate the farmer groups formed and controlled by the government. Such group difficult to be independent, because its management must be follows the government instructions. Farmers accustomed to working with a blueprint instructed from above.

The phenomenon shows the weakness of institutions in the food policy. This is in line propounded by Mubyarto et al., (1980), that there are many other institutions, both of which were created by the government for specific purposes and are born because of the donors from the outside, but until now as if swallowed by the earth after losing "input resources". This suggests that during this time the institutional aspects of a policy or not the attention of those interested in this issue, so that the implementation of many policies or programs that are not successful. This is in line with the results of the World Bank study concludes that the development of institutions is a complicated thing, and not much touched by it rather than physical development, - the success of the physical construction of a doubling of development agencies (Israel, 1990). This is confirmed by the results of the study Ancok (1995), that the empowerment program in rural communities needed community-based organizations.

Therefore, the authors focused on the analysis of institutional actors in the implementation of the rice policy in South Sulawesi. The study covers the actor role and evaluation of its performance of rice policy implementation in the South Sulawesi Province.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Public Policy in Institutional Perspective

Public policy is actually the allocation of value as to the attention of institutional theory. The allocation of these values can be seen at least in the sense of the public policy expressed by Dye (2002) whatever government choose to do or not to do. Whatever is chosen by the government

to do and not to do an allocation of values to solve public problems and to meet the public needs.

One of the public policy in the study is the food policy. Food is first and foremost the need for citizens to be able to carry out his life, so that the country needs to undertake a systematic effort in the form of a policy. In 1984 the government managed to achieve self-sufficiency in rice gained recognition Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), recognition of international institutions is given after the problem of lack of production (product shortage) rice and high prices due to excess demand (excess demand) of rice that have occurred since the reign of Order long can be overcome by the New Order government. This success is due to the use of new technologies, such as seed varieties, fertilizers, plant pest and disease control, irrigation network construction, and agricultural extension services that enable the production of rice increased from 2 tones to around 6 tones per hectare (Soepardi, 1996). In addition, achieve rice self-sufficiency also influenced by credit supply policies, subsidizing the price of fertilizer, pesticides, and the stabilization of prices.

Rice self-sufficiency policies are often linked to socio-political reasons, because rice is the food of more than 95% of the Indonesian population. Policy of self-sufficiency in rice is key to the achievement of food security, namely ensuring the availability of basic foodstuffs for the community which is one of the goals of national development (Kasryno, 1996 in mulyana, 1998; Arifin, 1994), however, food security is not only regarding food availability alone, but covers how ownership and access to food was by every member of the community.

According to Suryana (2001), the rice has a strategic role in the stabilization of food, economic security and resilience / national stability, Based on empirical experience in 1966 and 1998 showed that political upheaval may turn into a political crisis that is devastating, as food prices soared in a short time, Meanwhile, the mass political transition, because the food supply is safe, the food problem did not develop into a driver of the increase in political turmoil. However, the public debate always arises when the price of rice at consumer level jumped or when the price of grain at the farm level dropped dramatically, and the majority of people want a stable rice prices, available all the time, distributed and at affordable prices. This condition indicates that the rice be politically strategic. Building rice policy which operated the New Order government for nearly 20 years was able to stabilize the supply and price of rice. However, since the economic crisis in 1997, the jib collapsed one by one, so that all that remains is the basic grain pricing policy ineffective.

Based on the institutional perspective, an allocation policy value and the order directing the determinants and implementers of public policy to solve public problems as the main purpose of a public policy. Since the New Order to the Reformation order the government has issued various policies of food (rice). The policies cover the Law No. 18 Year 2012. About Food; Government Regulation No. 17 2015 About the Food Security and Nutrition; Government Regulation No. 68 of 2002 on Food Security; Presidential Regulation No. 83 Year 2006 on Food Security Council; Presidential Instruction No. 8 Year 2011 on Security Policy Rice Reserve Operated by Government Facing Extreme Climatic Conditions; Regulation of the Minister of Agriculture As the Chief Executive of the Food Security Council No. 27 / Permentan / PP.200 / 4/2012 on Guidelines for the Purchase Price of Grain and Rice Out of Quality by the Government; Presidential Instruction No. 5 2015 On Procurement of paddy / rice and distribution of rice by the government.

The policies is a food policy which is still the main reference in the regulation and management of rice started a national government level to the lowest levels of government, the corporation until the merchant. All of which are directed to the availability and accessibility of rice by all circles of society.

The Government should provide rice at a price affordable by the public, but must also pay attention to the increase income of the farmers who number around 21 million households. Government policies are set during the time felt was too closely aligned to the consumer, not the manufacturer. Although the government set a base price of grain to protect manufacturers, but to maintain a stable price of rice, the government intervened in the market when the supply of rice in a declining market in order to protect consumers. The pre-crisis policy can be implemented by the government well, but after the economic crisis rice imports into Indonesia are exacerbated by the low price of rice on the world market, the policy of protection for the farmers become difficult by the government.

INSTITUTIONAL THEORIES

Institutional theory relies importance of values and norms within an organization to be able to obtain vital resources needed to survive. To obtain the resources needed, then the organization needs to gain acceptability and legitimacy of the environment. Institutional theory in the face of their environment "intervene" by adjusting the internal organization structure and strategy and reinforces the values and norms of the organization. Both of these theories holds internal "looking" in the face of competitive paced environment.

Basically the same organization with the institution, but these two concepts are different when the economic model adopted and the bureaucracy, which in terms of achieving its objectives through specific instruments and formal rationally. Organization as an institution already have contents sociological in which there are values, norms, and culture that directly affect human behavior in organizations. An organization is seen as an institution, according to this theory considered less rational and less formal because people in organizations controlled by emotion and tradition, not a rational formal instruments to achieve its objectives as mentioned in the bureaucratic model (Jaffee, 2001).

The institutional theory is a theory that studies how organizations can improve their ability to grow and survive in an environment that is completely the competition by being reliable (legitimately) in the eyes of the stakeholders (Jones, 2004). Obviously, normative value of the organization, such as efficiency, effectiveness, and economical as based on achieving the purpose of organization needs to be concern to improve competition in order to survive in the globalization era.

Institutions, according to Scott (2001), are "institutions consist of cognitive, normative, and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behavior. Institutions are transported by various carriers - cultures, structures, and routines - and the Operate at multiple levels of jurisdiction."

Based on the above understanding of the institution, that there are three pillars of the establishment of institutions that form the basis of legitimacy for the organization, namely the cognitive pillar, the pillar normative and regulative pillar. Cognitive pillars include symbols, beliefs, and social identities. Normative pillars include obligations, norms and social values. Regulative pillar covers rules, laws, and sanctions (Powers, 2001).

An institution be trusted stakeholders, according to Meyer and Rowan (Jaffee, 2001), the necessary institutional isomorphism. Isomorphism is a single form that focuses on the mechanism of organizational similarities in the field or the same population. The success of an institution is as an example of successful institutions in the required fields mimetic mechanism, normative, and coercive.

Institutional theory presented above is based on institutional theory perspective of sociology. Another institutional theory is a framework of analysis and institutional development (institutional analysis and development framework). More comprehensive theory of this institution, because it not only describes the sociological aspect but also explain the political and cultural aspects of an institution. The institutional theory introduced by Ostrom, Gardner, and Walker (Ostrom, 2007). This theory explains the two main institutional variables, namely the arena action as the dependent variable and the three other variables as independent variables, namely: physical and material conditions of institutional, community attributes, and the rules are applied. According to this theory the actor is an important component in an institution.

ACTORS

Actor identified in because this is a factor of individual and corporate actors. The term "action" in this study refers to human behavior by individuals, which could significantly subjective and instrumental. Actions of an actor are always based on certain considerations in choosing a strategy or decision. In many ways, the actors determine the strategy of using economic considerations. Of course, the chosen alternative is based on maximizing profits, because the actor is a "homo-economicus" as developed in the perspective of neoclassical economics and game theory (Ostrom, 2000).

METHODOLOGY

Research Locations

This research is located in two districts in South Sulawesi, namely Pinrang and Sidrap. The determination of these two districts based on the consideration that the two districts are central rice production in Indonesia.

Design and Research Strategy

The design of this study is a qualitative method and case study research strategy. The use of the design of such research is to uncover the rice policy implementation based on the context. In the case study, there are three types of research, namely the type of explorative, descriptive, and explanative (Yin, 2000). This research strategy uses type of explanatory research.

Informants

Determination of informants in the study were determined purposively, ie they are considered to have competence in relation to the implementation of the policy of empowerment of street vendors in the city of Makassar. Such determination is based on the assessment of the experts (or the researchers themselves) for a particular purpose or a particular situation (Neuman, 1997). The informants in this study were: 1) the Coordinating Team for food procurement; 2) Tim monitoring and evaluation of food procurement; 3) The Offices in the two districts and the province concerned; 4) The Consultant and Facilitator rice; 5) Procurement Agency (Bulog) in two districts and Province; 6) The agricultural extension in two districts; 7) The rice traders; 8) The Heads of villages in two districts; and 9) The group of farmers in the two districts.

Data collection technique

In this study, data collection techniques used are observation, interview, and documents. Observations were made primarily related to tangible object, such as the condition of paddy and farmer groups. In-depth interviews conducted at the informants mentioned above, while the technical documentation is to collect documents such as regulations, journals, and research results related to this research.

Data Processing and Analysis Techniques

In qualitative research data analysis and processing is an activity inseparable. It can be seen on the stages of qualitative data analysis proposed by Miles and Huberman (1992), namely: data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion / verification. This study uses a case study analysis strategy, where analyzes were performed using data analysis techniques eksplanatif.

RESULTS

Based on the results of the study show the role of the main actors in the implementation of the rice policy in two sample districts in South Sulawesi, as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Farmers Feedback About Role Lead Actor In Rice Policy Implementation

- District	- Agricultural Extension	- Technical Committee of Agriculture	- Food Procurement Agency (Bulog)	- Agricultural Agency
- Sidrap	- An active role in providing guidance to farmers	Few in number	- Accordance with functions	- Ineffective run the activities, just waiting for any reports from the others
	Cooperatively, to solve farmers and paddy problems	To distribute government aid project	- The information does not get to the remote communities	- They do not care the farmers problems
	They are very busy because of the amount of agricultural extension workers fewer than the number of farmers	They are not professional or expert	- They do not actively disseminate their policy and programs to the farmers	- They work if there are some money and interests

			- Only the large land owners who can access only Food Procurement Agency (Bulog)	- More policy focus to the officials families
	-	-	-	They do not concern to the farmers, they are more time went along to accompany Regent everywhere
-	- They are always ready to help farmers	To distribute government aid project	They only help farmers who have extensive paddy fields	They do not carry out their duties
-	They are easily met by farmers	It is unclear their works	Their policy is not widely known by farmers	They are always waiting the reports from their subordinates
-		They do not know much related to paddy or rice	They just focus on their job	They do not care the farmers problems
- Pinrang				They are more concerned the board members than peoples

Source: Data Reduction, 2015

According to the table 1 above, agricultural extension workers (PPL) were very cooperative with farmers in two districts samples. They understand their duties and assist farmers to solve their problems. Then, the Technical Committee of Agriculture, according to the farmers they just distribute government aid projects to the farmers. They cannot help farmers in solving the technical problems of agriculture. Subsequently, Food Procurement Agency (Bulog) which serves to accommodate or buy grain farmers with the price set by the Government, evidently it was not able to carry out their duties effectively. The same case, the Agriculture Agency cannot run its jobs effectively because it can not helps the farmers solve their problems.

DISCUSSION

The Actors Role In Rice Policy Implementation

The Actors in this situation can be considered as an individual, as a group or as a corporation. The success of a policy achieve desired objectives require the role of all participants in the rice

policy. The main role of local governments is increasing farmers crop production that is greatly influenced by actions taken by other actors. Actors referred to in this study are:

Farmers

Farmers group is a farmer's community that is formed in order to facilitate the procurement of agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizers, and pharmaceuticals. The farmer's group can be shared the procurement costs of agricultural inputs and the farmer's group can be expected to determine the price of agricultural product.

Farmer's group was formed by the Decree of the local government, in which membership is about 20-25 people. The farmer groups do not have the power to determine the price of grain, because it was formed only facilitate the distribution of agricultural inputs. It was not given the facility of capital by the government.

Agricultural Extension Workers

An agricultural extension worker is agent of change that encourages farmers to change their behavior so that farmers can use agricultural technology, especially in the use of agricultural inputs. According to the farmers, this agricultural extension workers is needed to guide them in the use of agricultural inputs, but they are very limited in number so that they are not able to reach all areas of its work.

It is also further exacerbated by the dualism of the organization, technically they were under the command of the Local Agriculture Agency and administratively they are under the Food Security Agency. These conditions worsen their performance in guiding farmers.

Agricultural Technical Committee

Agricultural Technical Committee is one of the institutions that deal directly government programs and aid projects to farmers. The institution aims is the optimization of paddy fields and anticipation of a shortage of land for rice production. However, according to the farmers the institute activities are unclear and disable to cope with the problems of technical and marketing of agricultural productions.

Food Procurement Agent (BULOG)

Increasing production will be strengthen the availability of rice in the country without depends on imports. To ensure stability of supply and price, the government through BULOG has made stock equalization and availability of rice in each warehouse' BULOG in Indonesia, including in two samples districts in South Sulawesi. BULOG in two sample districts did not perform his duties as a container for grain / rice and even dryer and warehouse facilities used by rice traders and not used by farmers or farmer groups.

Rice Traders

Rice traders consist of village, sub district, district level traders and wholesalers who will process of the paddy into rice and sell it to consumers. In this case, the merchants have a very important role in determining the Indonesia economy as well as in two samples districts, because if these traders speculate by withholding supply then the price of rice will increase in the market so that disrupt the local economy.

Provision of Agricultural Means of Production

Provision of agricultural means of production carried out by the government, but the distribution is carried out by private parties, such as fertilizers, seeds, pesticides and other

production equipment. Private organization that is meant here is the company appointed by the government in terms of the distribution of agricultural inputs, namely PT Pertani and PT Sang Hyang Seri. PT Pertani distribute the means of production such as fertilizers, pesticides and other agricultural equipment, while PT Sang Hyang Seri focuses on the distribution of seeds.

Actors Performance Evaluation

In addition to predicting the outcome, institutional analysts can evaluate the results achieved and the possible results that can be achieved in the institution. Evaluative criteria applied to both the results and the process for determining the results achieved by the actor. In evaluating the performance of the actors there are several potential evaluative criteria, namely: (1) economic efficiency, (2) equity through fiscal equivalence, (3) equalization, (4) accountability, (5) conformity with public morality, (6) the adaptation. In this study focuses only on the criteria of efficiency, equalization, and accountability. The third evaluation criteria are very important in the rice policy in Indonesia, including in two sample districts in South Sulawesi.

Efficiency

Economic efficiency is determined by the magnitude of the change in the flow of net benefits associated with the allocation or reallocation of resources. The concept of efficiency plays a central role in this study that estimated benefits and costs or the rate of return on investment. In this study, rice policy implementation in two sample districts is inefficient. This can be shown by the farmers are not getting sufficient benefits in the process of agricultural production, because during the harvest of grain prices plummeted. The situations are only beneficial for rice traders. In this case, the resources used by farmers in the production process are roughly equal to production. It also proves the farmers are always disadvantaged in the system of rice in Indonesia.

Equalization

Equalization is a step that needs to be done by the government in the rice policy implementation. Equalization that is meant here is the equitable distribution of agricultural inputs. Based on the research, production inputs such as seeds, fertilizers always-insufficient quota has been agreed. Later, the production facilities are not available in the market as the quality of goods specified. This happens because the provision is based on a rigid bureaucratic system (Weberian bureaucracy).

Accountability

In a democratic government, officials should be held accountable regarding the development and use of public facilities and natural resources. Based on the study, accountability of public officials as the implementer of rice policy is very low. This is evidenced distribution of the means of production remain problematic until now and farmers as a target group of rice policy does not provide sufficient benefits. They are the marginalized in rice production systems to date.

The role of institutional actors in the rice policy is very important, because they have a position as a determinant and implementer of the rice policy. They do not do an effective coordination between agencies, so that it is always occurred discrepancies between the planning and the implementation.

CONCLUSIONS

The role of institutional actors in the implementation of the rice policy in two sample districts in South Sulawesi Province ineffectively. This is showed agencies associated with the policy, each actor design and run the program in accordance with the scope of work. Actors as policy makers are not able to resolve the various problems, especially at the famers level (grass root) as the target group of the policy. The actors did not perform its role effectively, because they are in a bureaucratic system that rules-oriented (Weberian bureaucracy).

Based on the evaluation criteria of institutional actors in the rice policy implementation is inefficiently, unequal, and unaccountable. This can be showed, farmers as a target group of this policy can only survive during this time. They did not gain a significant advantage in this policy system.

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Alternative sites for laparoscopic cholecystectomy, in thin and obese patients from the point of view of changes in the abdominal dimensions

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Abstract

Background: Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the standard operation for treatment of gallstone disease, which is difficult in obese patients, but narrow abdomen and thin patients are also a challenge, resulting in complications which mainly affect patients at the extreme ends of the weight spectrum. This represents a major source of morbidity and mortality from laparoscopic procedures; the majority (80%) of these complications is due to placement of the primary trocar, Searching for techniques to prevent involuntary injuries must be put as the priority, to ensure the optimal retraction, allows enough space available for manipulation of the active jaws of the laparoscopic graspers or scissors. **Aim:** To define alternative sites for laparoscopic cholecystectomy, in thin and obese patients from the point of view of alteration in the abdominal dimensions, which may reduces laparoscopic, related injury. **Methods:** In Al Sulaimaniyah Teaching Hospital and Hatwan Private Hospital , from (July 15th 2004-July14th 2009) 1076 patients underwent laparoscopic cholecystectomy by same team and 35% of them by the same surgeon. Standard 4 ports were used, with first entry port in the periumbilical region. Sixty patients were selected, because of their extreme weight and the patients were classified accordingly in to two groups: Group A:had downward displacement of umbilicus (43-60 cm width & 30-45cm height of the abdomen). Group B; had narrow abdominal dimensions (28-38 cm width & 14-27cm height of the abdomen). **Results:** Different alternative sites for trocar insertion were selected in order to overcome abdominal thickness and discrepancy between length of the hand instruments and distance of the port to the gall bladder. **Conclusions:** We recommend using this principle in the patients with extreme weight and narrow abdomen when XU is less than 15 cm or (more than 25cm), to decrease challenges of sequel of laparoscopic cholecystectomy in these groups of patients.

Keywords: Abdominal dimensions, laparoscopy, cholecystectomy, port position

INTRODUCTION

Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is the standard operation for treatment of gallstone disease (1), and the advantages of minimally invasive surgery have been widely accepted (2). Laparoscopy is difficult in obese patients because of the thickness of adipose panicle (3), and it presents unique technical challenges. The ease of the operation and the operative time seem to be more dependent on body habitués than body mass index (BMI).(4) Specially patients with significant central obesity (apple-shaped) were surgically more challenging and needed prolonged operative time compared to pear-shaped patients, independent of their BMI.(4) As the BMI increased, the location of the umbilicus shifts inferiorly and the distance between the umbilicus and xiphoid process (XU) will increase (5). Although visceral surgeons are more often confronted with laparoscopic surgery in obese patients (6), but narrow abdomen and thin

patients are also a challenge, resulting in complications which mainly affect patients at the extreme ends of the weight spectrum (thin and obese) and patients who have had previous abdominal operations, they represent a major source of morbidity and mortality from laparoscopic procedures and a major reason for conversion to the open approach. (7).

The majority (80%) of these complications are due to placement of the primary trocar, (8), which is put classically in the periumbilical region. (9) It is mentioned in the literature that, patients who are extremely thin or obese, or known to have abdominal adhesions are at increased risk for laparoscopic entry-related injury at the umbilical entry point. (10)

According to current evidence, based mainly on observational studies, there is wide variation among clinicians as to which entry method should be recommended (11) and no one laparoscopic entry method has demonstrated clear superiority over another. (12)

Searching for techniques to prevent involuntary injuries must be put as the priority, to ensure the optimal retraction which allows enough space available for manipulation of the active jaws of the laparoscopic graspers or scissors, (13) Also to overcome triangulation, and provides suitable vision in every step of the procedure of laparoscopy. (14) This concept made some authors to dictate the use of another site for primary entry, (9) in a study by Nathaniel J. Soper on laparoscopic cholecystectomy during pregnancy, he used alternative site for insertion of the initial port in all patients (15). Selection of abdominal wall locations for the port arrangement is a critical step of every laparoscopic operation. The port arrangement must provide the surgeon with adequate access to the target quadrant(s) while avoiding critical structures and the ideal port arrangement for a given operation will vary from patient to patient. (16)

This paper is a trial to define alternative sites for laparoscopic cholecystectomy, in thin and obese patients from the point of view of changes in the abdominal dimensions, which may reduce laparoscopic related injuries

METHODS

In Al Sulaimaniyah Teaching Hospital and Hatwan Private Hospital, from (July 15th 2004-July 14th 2009) 1076 patients underwent laparoscopic cholecystectomy by same team and 35% of them by the same surgeon. Standard 4 ports were used, with first entry port in the periumbilical region. Sixty patients were selected, because of their extreme weight and the patients were classified accordingly in to two groups:

- Group A; 37 patients, had abdominal circumference obesity (BMI 28-32), had downward displacement of umbilicus (43-60 cm width & 30-45cm height of the abdomen).
- Group B; 23 patients (BMI 15-20) had narrow abdominal dimensions (28-38 cm width & 14-27cm height of the abdomen).

After signing of the informed consent, collection of demographic data, height and weight of the patients were measured, and BMI calculated by equation,

$$\text{BMI} = \frac{\text{body weight (Kg)}}{\text{Height}^2 \text{ (m)}}$$

Circumference and width of the abdomen, height of the abdomen from xiphoid process to umbilicus (XU) and to pubic symphysis (torso) were measured using a standard tape measure with patient in supine and standing position. In the view of the discrepancy of the length of

the telescope & hand instrument to the distance of the gallbladder from the site of the ports ,also angulated course of the tract , particularly subxiphoid port , we selected alternative sites for the trocar insertion .

Virtual port sites determined prior to placing ports and shifting port positions toward target quadrants accordingly. In group A, site for telescope port selected before CO2 insufflation above umbilicus, sustaining (3/5) of the length of the telescope to the site of gallbladder (below costal margin, in the right midclavicular line).Other assistant's 5mm port sites were modified and displaced cephalic according to the same principle. While in obese patients with hepatomegally or fatty liver the subxiphoid port site displaced caudally to gain direct course and overcome angulations in the tract.

While in the group B, we selected port sites more caudal than usual; periumbilical port incisions were done in the midline down in the hypogastrium .Sustaining same distance(3/5 of the length of the hand instrument or telescope) from the port site to the target quadrant ,and gall bladder.Other ports also displaced caudally according to the same principles ,while subxiphoid port site was done in most cases in the usual standard site 6cm below xiphoid process in the midline, but in two patients with kyphosis we were obliged to displace this port site by 5 and 6.5 cm caudally to overcome angulated course to the Callot's triangle.

After entrance and putting other ports under direct vision, theses approaches gave adequate exposure of the operative field, and clear identification of the anatomy and pathology.

RESULTS

Most of the patients were female 78.3% (n = 47) ;(Table 1), median age was 37±5.4 years for females and was 41±5.7 years for male patients. BMI in the group A were different (from 28 to 32),

Table I; BMI in the patients of group

BMI Kg/m ²	Male patients no, & %	Female patients no, & %
28	1 2.7%	4 10.8%
29	0 0.0%	7 18.9%
30	2 5.4%	6 16.2%
31	2 5.4%	7 18.9%
32	1 2.7%	7 18.9%

Circumference, girth and torso(height of the abdomen)of the patients in both groups are shown in table 2, in group A there is caudal dropping of the umbilicus up to 7-10 cm, while in the group B its just up to 1cm .We could also noticed larger circumference of the abdomen in standing position in group A, up to 3-4cm. while in group B there is 1cm increase in circumference in standing position. Height of the abdomen (torso), decreased in supine position in both groups ,in group A up to 3-5cm ,and up to 3cm in group B

Morbidity in patients included in this paper (group A & B (n=60), compared with patients had normal weight and abdominal dimensions (n=306) by the same surgeon and in the same period of time (Table 3), we could noticed that differences are in number of complications and staying in hospital more in weight and abdominal dimensions

P value is non-significant (greater than 0.05), means that there is no significant difference in morbidity between the patients in whom classical 4 port position were used compared with those in which advanced port sites were used accordingly

DISCUSSION

Classical sites for 4 port cholecystectomy in the patients with extremities of weight and abdominal dimensions will creates a technical challenge related principally to "retraction and triangulation ,necessary to expose the surgical field"(14) and target organ. Displacement of umbilicus and abdominal wall caudally or cephalic in obese and thin patients respectively do not allow adequate exposure of the gallbladder , this will restricts movements. In patients with narrow abdominal dimensions there will be collision of hand instruments. (13), which results in misidentification of anatomical structures, which is regarded as one of the major causes of biliary tract injury in laparoscopic cholecystectomy. (17)

In obese and thin patients with disproportional abdominal dimensions respectively, the hand instruments will not reach the target organ. In thin patients with narrow abdominal dimensions there is no enough "space available for manipulation of the active jaws of the laparoscopic graspers or scissors, (13) the surgeon cannot move the surgical instruments freely in the abdominal cavity (i.e., the chasing swords phenomenon) or cannot reach particular regions in the surgical field. (16, 18) All these short comings, when standard port sites used, "represent a major source of morbidity and mortality from laparoscopic procedures and a major reason for conversion to the open approach" (7)

In the literature there are widely different port sites used, for many reasons i.e. pregnancy, previous laparotomy, managing hernias and in obese, tall patients (6,7,15,19, 20, 21,22), which allow ethically searching for alternative port sites .In this paper we used advanced port sites caudally in thin patients when the XU distance was less than 15cm, and advanced cephalic when this distance was more than 25cm(4). Keeping the distance from the port site to the target organ,(gallbladder) ; fixed at 3/5 of the length of the hand instruments (35cm) , with comparable ease and morbidity and no mortality(Table3), as there is no significant difference in morbidity between the patients in whom classical 4 port position were used compared with those in which advanced port sites were used accordingly

CONCLUSIONS

We recommend using this principle in the patients with extreme weight and narrow abdomen when XU is less than 15 cm or (more than 25cm), to decrease challenges of sequelae of laparoscopic cholecystectomy in these groups of patients.

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Table II; Abdominal dimensions in both groups

Group	A	B
Circumference at umbilical level in standing	89-110 cm	60-71 cm
Circumference at umbilical level in supine position	82-106 cm	60-70 cm
Girth Between Anterior axillary lines	43-60 cm	28-38 cm
Torso in standing position (Xiphoid process to pubic symphysis)	28-42 cm	19 -28 cm
Torso in supine position (Xiphoid process to pubic symphysis)	37-54 cm	14-27 cm
Upper half of the abdomen (Xiphoid process to pubic symphysis)	26-35 cm	8--15 cm
Lower half of the abdomen ; Umbilicus to pubic symphysis	11-19 cm	10-13 cm

Table III: Comparison of duration of operation, complications in study group and a group with normal BMI and abdominal dimensions.

	Patients included in this paper (group A & B (n=60)	Patients had normal weight and abdominal dimensions (n=306) by the same surgeon and in the same period of time	Chi-Square	Df	P-Value
Wound infection	1 (1.60 %)	6 (1.96%)	1.81	3	0.6183
Duration of the operation	30±10 minutes	30±9 minutes			
From skin to skin					
Duration of hospitalization	4-6 hours	4-6 hours			
Number of patients need overnight hospitalization	1 (1.60 %)	5 (1.63%)			

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**COMPETING INTEREST:
NONE TO DECLARE**

Dr. Hiwa omer ahmed





Effective Assessment: A Challenge to Successful Implementation of Performance Lag Address Programme. The Case of Primary Schools in Gutu North Zvavahera Cluster of Zimbabwe.

Samuel Masomera

Emily Ganga

Abstract

The Performance Lag Address Programme (PLAP) is a teaching strategy aimed at addressing gaps and challenges of learners in mastering concepts being taught by initially going back to their last point of success. Low academic pass rate in primary and secondary schools influenced researchers and academics to come up with a strategy which specifically address individual challenges of learners and enhance academic performance through individualised instruction. However, effective assessment continues to be a challenge to many teachers. The research sought to investigate the problems posed by the lack of effective assessment of the implementation of PLAP. The study was conducted in Gutu North Zvavahera Cluster involving 25 participants from six schools. Data was collected through in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis of teachers' PLAP record books to complement findings from interviews and FGDs. The findings showed that effective assessment is a challenge in the effective implementation of PLAP. The Wide Range Achievement Test was criticised for not giving teachers adequate insight on the real problems facing learners. Teachers highlighted that they are not fully equipped and lack required technical know-how of using various assessment methods besides tests. The recommended format of recording PLAP was seen to be vague assessment and communicating elaborately the performance of the learners. The researchers recommended that the education system should prioritise assessment as a major component of the teaching and learning process by providing skills and material support to teachers. District offices should have expert teachers on effective assessment who help teachers in using multiple assessment methods and realise the benefit of doing so.

INTRODUCTION

Assessment is a multi-disciplinary process which draws information from teachers, pupils and even parents. The child's parents can provide valuable information about a child, how best the child learns and the assessment preferences available basing on hints from the parents. The knowledge and practice of assessment continues to be elusive despite numerous publications and researches available. Assessment is a process of collecting, analysing and interpreting evidence and using it to make inferences about what pupils know and can do (Harlen, 2012). Dockrele and McShane (1995) state that assessment is a way of examining individual characteristics that are important for establishing individual intervention programs. Remedial and extension, special classes have been used in Zimbabwe primary schools to assist learners with special needs however, low pass rates in consecutive years after the dollarisation of the economy has prompted researchers and academics to seek a broad-based system of addressing low achievement in schools. The Irish National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) (2014) say assessment is used to identify children with learning difficulties so that the nature of the support and assistance they need can be ascertained and appropriate strategies and programming put in place to enable them to cope

with particular difficulties. However, the inclination to the fact that learning problems are as a result of poor instruction or the lack of it ignores the fact that even children have their special ways of learning which need to be ascertained first.

Multiple assessment tools have been thought to complement each other and bring a holistic judgement of the performance of the child. However, teachers continue to over rely on tests. Testing has been found to be meritorious in saving time, efficient in covering the syllabi, easy to conduct and assess pupils. However, over reliance on testing results in invalidity blocks which could be cleared by the use of multiple assessment tools by the teacher (Mansell and James, 2009). One cannot solely depend on tests to assess pupils because it overlooks individual differences in learner preferences and multiple intelligences. The Global Education Association (2011) say there is need to use multiple measures to assess and report on the progress of learners for accountability purposes such as curriculum-based, performance based and holistic assessment using scoring guides, checklists and rubrics. The association also recommends an adoption of a learning for mastery model of assessment where learners are allowed to resubmit and retake tests. Ginsberg and Woldowski (2009) argue that effective assessment utilises multiple and varied methods of student performance evaluation. Assessment should be an on-going and spontaneous activity where teachers compile information about their pupils during class and out of class. Mansell and James (2009) say it is appropriate for teachers to simply record their judgements of pupils' during day to day classroom work and review these at appropriate intervals to come to a summing judgement. Thompson (1981) insinuates that diversity in assessment benefit students when they construct and submit test questions for possible inclusion in exams since this increases intrinsic motivation, decreases test anxiety by increasing the sense of perceived control of the test situation.

Teachers in rural schools seem not to be well conversant with the use performance assessment in classes and their learners continue to be deprived of the motivational properties of this type of assessment. Omidi; Sridha, Azizmalayeri (2012) research on the impact of performance assessment found out that there is a significant influence of performance assessment on academic achievement, in traditional assessment group learners scored significantly lower than learners who were in performance assessment group. Teachers in primary schools need to accompany tests with performance assessment as learners can be motivated by performance assessment. Performance assessment is an active learning experience and actually motivates students to learn more about the subject matter, they demonstrate knowledge and understanding through performance (Omidi, et al, 202). The research intends to highlight the fact that it is meritorious to use multiple assessment tools to ensure the implementation of any intervention strategy in the education system.

Classroom assessment is the most important type of assessment since it gives an indication of the level of performance of a child in high stakes examinations like the grade seven examinations. Mansell and James (2009) say the nature and impact of assessment depends on the uses to which the results are put hence a system whose priority is to generate information for internal use by teachers on the next steps of pupils learning must have different characteristics and effects. Kurebwa and Nyaruwata (2012) cites Hurly and Tinajoro (2001) who say that classroom assessment is seen as helpful because it gives a more immediate measure of progress and achievement of students, guides and improves instruction and diagnoses student knowledge of a topic. Through assessment the teacher constructs a comprehensive picture of the short term needs of the child and plans future work accordingly (NCCA, 2014). Teachers usually use weekly test and fortnightly tests to assess pupils to fulfill departmental or school policies but do not give much thought on the

implications of the results. Assessment for learning is usually formative and is a process which seeks and interprets evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there (Mansell and James,2009).Teachers generally use testing due to its time and cost effectiveness however researchers have found weaknesses in over relying on testing.Joughin(2010) in Omid et al (2012) says assessment tasks must be part of the regular teaching and learning program hence is believed to drive student achievement.

The effectiveness of an instrument is measured on how it produces the required results,it entails the clarity, pragmatic and worthwhileness of the results.Assessment of primary school children should provide the correct,informative and valuable information to teachers and parents need about a learner, group,class or stream.The method of collecting that information should be understood by all participants hence teachers,children and parents.Stepanek (2002) in Sususwele-Banda (2005) says when teachers place meaningful assessment at the centre of instruction , they give students insights into their own thinking and growth, and students gain new perspectives in their potential.Susuwele-Banda (2005)says the shift from assessing students' achievement to assessing how they are learning helps the teacher to explore better ways of supporting the student to learn better.It may not be that learners missed a lot of learning time when teachers were absent or on industrial action because even leaners who started school after the dollarisation of the economy still have problems in academic achievement. As a result ,this points to the fact that learners have their inherent perculiar learning styles which need to be assessed first to ensure meaningful learning.Kurebwa and Nyaruwata(2012) report that researches show that teachers hardly used variety of instruments such as tests, class work, observations, questionnaires, reports, checklists,rating scales inventory and practicals.Fennel et al (1992) cited in Susuwele-Banda (2005) suggest that specific training is necessary for teachers to learn to assess childrens' thinking.It is a recipe for disaster if teachers continue to shun other emerging methods of assessment.

The Wide Range Achievement Test is used by teachers in identifying the last point of success of learners hence the grade level they are performing at in English and Mathematics.Kaputa (2009) says WRAT is generally accepted as convenient and sufficient for identification purposes since it provides scores in reading, spelling and arithmetic. The scores can be indicated in terms of grade equivalent,standard score or percentile. However the grading system used in WRAT does not communicate useful information to students about their weak areas.Language does not occur in fragments such as words but as passages and sentences that communicate meaning. Really WRAT cannot be the only assessment tool to be used to assess the learners because teachers are known to have negative perceptions of strategies that are dictated from the top. WRAT overlooks fundamental difficulties in comprehension, creative writing, interpretation of story mathematical problems which are rampant in many rural primary school classrooms.WRAT is effective for learners in Western countries because the medium of instruction is their mother tongue while learners in Africa, English is a second language and is learnt and this puts them in a compromising position.Since English is taught some teachers drill phonemes to the extent that some learners can read any word which they know nothing about its meaning and how to use it.WRAT is divorced from the nature of assessment used in high stakes tests hence does not provide useful information other than the grade level.Gearheart and Litton(1975) say considering errors in the construction of tests,measurement errors,the generally presumed cultural bias one cannot rely on one assessment tool.The greatest challenge which is even faced by teachers in rural areas is that learners have problems in interpreting questions, have difficulty in applying what they learnt to

answer questions and in worse scenarios remember what they actually learnt. It is every teacher's wish to find solutions to these problems and PLAP may not have dealt with the challenges intricately as expected.

Effective assessment for the implementation of PLAP could have include a check list which sought to provide a holist assessment of the child's skills competences and challenges. Adamson (1979) in Kaputa ((2009) provides key problems learners which teachers and parents need to assess so that they can best assist the learners.

~ Conceptualisation problems - learners may have problems in abstract reasoning, reading comprehension and inferential thinking;
~Language - language development and problems in sequencing, preservation, syntax and written expression;
~Memory- variation in immediate and remote auditory visual and associated recall;
~Feeling of inadequacy (hurt\ pride)- poor self concept, low self esteem, negative body image;
~Task avoidance behaviour- avoidance of learning tasks which are difficult and subject to exposure failure. More off task behaviour for example taking too long to sharpen a pencil (Adamson, 1979 in Kaputa , 2009).

The learners in rural primary schools have poor handwriting, poor word recognition, poor vocabulary, low comprehension skills, inferential skills, poor sentence construction, among other challenges in English. In mathematics basic operations are difficult while application of formulae is even worse. Assessment processes should be centered on measuring the performance of learners in these areas and diagnosing different learning challenges. Sgroi (1995) in Susuwele-Banda (2005) believes that assessment to monitor students' understanding of mathematics concepts is very critical and classrooms should be organised to promote active participation of students.

The challenges facing primary schools especially those in rural areas are many and very complex. It is upon researchers and academics to come up with strategies which best apply to the peculiar problems faced by primary school teachers in their quest to improve academic pass rates at their schools. Among other challenges, primary schools face shortages of teaching and learning materials and experienced teachers. The state of primary education depreciated to astounding levels since the turn of the millenium due to the economic hardships that Zimbabwe experience. The hyper inflation and devaluation of the Zimbabwean dollar forced teachers out of classes and forced them on the exodus to neighbouring countries looking for greener pastures. Mufanechiya and Mufanechiya (2011) report that the economic challenges devalued education, even parents mocked the profession, absenteeism and drop-outs reached an all-time high. Schools were left on a standstill as they were unmanageable for the school heads and authorities. Many children did not go to school for nearly a year between 2008 and 2009 and Grade 7 national pass rates drooped to below 20% and many schools recorded 0%.

Schools were later opened in February 2009 and teachers were paid through vouchers in American Dollars. The money was not enough and trade unions battled with government over salary increases however the fi scus could not sustain an increased wage bill. The education minister introduced the controversial teacher incentives which had to complement the government salaries. However, teachers in rural areas cried foul as their schools could not afford the same amounts paid by boarding and urban schools. The incentives were dropped and teacher motivation dropped also. Pass rates continue to be lower in rural areas than in urban areas. Researches have shown that learners in rural areas faces many challenges chief

among the absenteeism and lack of schools fees. Poverty continues to be high in rural areas as the US Dollar is difficult to come by to the rural folk.

Parents in rural areas find it difficult to pay their school fees due to poverty. Chikwanha- Dzenga (1999) say that unemployment and dependence syndrome are the causes of poverty in rural areas. Chindanya (2011) says lack of fees cause parents not to be involved in the learning of their children. A parent who does not value the education of the child is likely to absent the learner from school for no apparent reason. Absenteeism creates gaps in the learning process which causes failure. Gaps in the understanding of a concept limit the child's level of mastery.

The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education launched the Performance Lag Address Programme (PLAP) in Mutare in 2013 to address the challenge of low pass rates in the province. The same programme was rolled out in various districts in the country. Nkoma (2014) explains that PLAP is a result of a deep-stick evaluation which entailed assessing the teacher learning process, teacher-pupil records, resources provision and monitoring and evaluation programs. PLAP is a form of remediation that teachers have been doing all along. However, PLAP is the universal and mainstreamed type of remediation. PLAP also takes care of exceptional who can be found to be above the grade level they are currently in where the teacher provides instruction to cater for those learners. Mukoko and Mdlongwa (2014) say students' weakness are believed to have cropped up from concepts missed at lower levels thus affecting their present performance hence the teacher has to address these problems as a class so that learners can catch. In this era, focus should be on how learners learn and how best they can be taught. Learners have differences in how they learn and respond to different assessment tools.

The assumption that learning gaps were created only by the absence of teachers, learning material due to the harsh economic environment experienced between 2000 to 2009 overlooks fundamental issues. Teachers are not wholly to blame for their lack of commitment when all social services crumbled. The teacher training, curriculum review and research were also hit by the general exodus of critical personnel to neighbouring and overseas destinations which provided better remuneration and working conditions. It is apparent that teachers who graduate from colleges and universities may not have been fully equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills in the use of assessment methods. Susuwele-Banda (2005) cites Dean (1991) who contends that most teacher education skim over classroom assessment, leaving teachers to assess in the same way they were assessed when they were at school. Campbell and Evans in Susuwele-Banda (2005) evaluated pre-service teachers who had completed course work in educational measurement and found that student teachers did not follow assessment practices recommended in their course work. One is inclined to say teacher training is not effectively training teachers on how to assess while teachers are so autonomous that they do as they please when they are in their classrooms. Hence a holistic view to these circumstances enable a deeper and balanced search for solutions. For instance some learner with poor performance started primary education during the Education Transition Fund so the earlier accusation does not stand.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research was guided by the following research questions;

- Is the assessment system used in schools effective in implementing the Performance Lag Address Programme?
- What can be done to improve the quality of assessment in primary schools?

METHODOLOGY

The research followed a qualitative research design. Joubish, Khurram, Ahmed, Fatima and Haider (2011) say qualitative research is used to help us understand how people feel and why they feel as they do by collecting in-depth information through open ended questions in a naturalistic setting to produce detailed data that allow direct quotations. The qualitative design is meritorious in that it uses human insight and experience, gives a deeper understanding of the research object (Joubish et al, 2011). Patton and Cochran (2002) support that qualitative research is characterised by its aims, which relate to understanding some aspect of social life and its methods which generate words of analysis. The research used a qualitative case study which could provide an in-depth analysis of the nature of assessment and its impact on PLAP. Bell (1994) says qualitative case studies allow the researcher to concentrate on a specific instance or situation, analyse various interactive processes at work and its cost and time effective. The researcher used in-depth interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs) and document analysis of PLAP documents to collect data which was analysed through thematic content analysis. From a population of 94 teachers and 6 school heads the researchers purposively sampled 5 school heads and conveniently sampled 25 teachers to participate in the research.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The researchers acquire authorisation to collect data from the Provincial education director and Gutu District Education Officer. The researchers visited school and presented the school heads with letters of approval and audio taped FGDs and interviews which were later transcribed and analysed. A checklist was used for document analysis on teachers' PLAP record books.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings from interviews and FGDs indicated that WRAT does not provide teachers with adequate information of the nature of gaps in the learning of pupils. Kaputa (2009) explains that WRAT is effective and sufficient for identification purposes. However findings from both interviews and FGDs showed that teachers were critical about the manner in which the WRAT was administered since learners were not given enough time to prepare for the test and did not understand the implications of the results of the exercise. Some teachers agreed that even parents had the right to be sensitised about the programme because some parents were asking why their children were given exercises of previous grades. Cook-Gumperz (1986) says problems such as cultural values, anxiety, test sophistication and the language used for giving instructions are rarely taken into account yet it is known that applying tests that are verbally loaded to individuals who are learning English as a second language compounds the problems of adequate assessment. One is inclined to say that pupils were not effectively assessed to ensure successful implementation of PLAP. PLAP is a programme that seeks to go deeper than just identification, teachers need information of the nature of problems hence 80% of teachers who were interviewed highlighted the fact that a criterion referenced test needed to accompany WRAT so that they get a clear picture of the challenges learners have. "At the beginning of every topic teachers need to give a diagnostic test which will give them an idea of the nature of challenges learners have especially in Maths," explained one teacher in a FGD. School heads were critical of using WRAT and preferred locally designed tests because the WRAT was designed for foreign learners which is completely different from learners in rural areas of Zimbabwe. Litton (1975) indicates that tests such as the WRAT have cultural bias. Zindi (1994) quotes Laosa (1977) that, "Standardised tests are biased and unfair to persons from cultural and socio-cultural minorities since most tests reflect largely white,

middle-class values band attitudes and they do not reflect the experiences and the linguistic, cognitive and cultural styles and values of minority group persons"

Findings from the three instruments indicate that the assessment system currently being used in schools is rigid, highly structured and gives no room for teacher creativity and innovation. Teachers have been using the same way of assessing pupils since they graduated from training institutions. 80% who participated in the research indicated that assessment continue to be very unclear to them as they said assessment is the same as testing. When the said assessment they mean testing whereas testing is subsumed in assessment. Dikli (2003) explains that assessment is the collection of information about what learners have mastered in the learning process while testing is usually formal, standardised way of measuring student performance. PLAP's main principle is on mastery of learning hence the evaluations are based on mastery and no-mastery basis. It is apparent that tests alone cannot provide enough information about the learners. Mansen and James (2009); Ginsberg and Woldowski () concur on the idea that effective assessment becomes successful through the use of multiple methods of assessment like performance based assessment, portfolios and projects among others.

The findings from document analysis of teachers record books of PLAP show that teachers adhere to the format that is contained in the teachers manual. No adaptations have been made in as far as improving the effectiveness of the programme since it is currently under initial implementation. However, the evaluation of the pupil performance is indicated by 'Mastered' and 'Not Mastered' and Remediation was seen as the only way teachers cater for learner with problems in the content covered. Of concern, is the fact that teachers indicate that most of the pupils mastered the concepts. The validity of the evaluation become questionable and give the impression that teachers write the records at home just to fulfill bureaucratic demands. A process of addressing performance gaps in learners cannot be judged by one or a few words of symbols like 'M' mastered and 'NM' for not mastered. There is need for a full description and judgement of learner performance which fully reflect the progress being made by the learner and envisage the teacher's effort.

The majority of teachers in focus group discussions indicated that they cannot fully assess pupils because they do not have the teachers manual for the implementation of PLAP hence do not know some of the suggested assessment methods. Teachers reported that they use tests because of time concerns since the district directorate counts the number of exercises written per week hence teachers are preoccupied with fulfilling that demand. "We are suffering yet they continued to pour more work on us, we just don't have the time for those tricks, we are always tired and we just fill in the records so that the headmaster can stamp." The researcher found a glaring reality of negativity in teachers about the whole programme of PLAP.

The school heads hold the view that teachers were not fully trained in the implementation of PLAP since PLA cluster focal teachers were trained for only two days at the district offices and they then facilitated a one-day workshop to teachers from the six schools who later cascaded the information to their schools. The teachers received fourth hand information on the implementation of PLAP hence there were bound to be problems. However, the cluster chairperson in an interview highlighted the fact that the programme is well funded hence more workshops were in pipeline.

Findings from focus group discussions indicated that teachers from teachers college do not feel that they are fully equipped in using other assessment methods. They emphasised the fact that they are not fully grounded on alternative methods of assessment. Teacher training institutions were blamed for failing to be thorough in teaching courses in effective assessment.

Findings from FGDs showed that teacher use fortnightly and end of term tests to assess their pupils. The teachers argued that the district directorate is pressurising teachers to increase academic pass rates and those who fail are forced to submit their record books to the district every week as a punitive measure. As a result teachers are afraid of having low pass rates at their schools so they continue to drill their pupils for examinations. "Some have to cheat in examinations because they cannot afford to fail to reach the targeted percentage pass rates." In this current scenario, the quality of assessment is compromised and learners are not allowed to master concepts but to memorise.

School heads bemoaned the fact that there seems to be no laid down framework on the use of alternative assessment methods hence it is difficult for school heads to supervise teachers when they use other assessment methods beside tests. "Very few teachers know how to use other assessment methods but even if they do how will they record it. We were never taught the format of using continuous assessments other methods." highlighted one of the teachers. In addition, district inspectors want to see test record books hence the policy on assessment needs to be transformed and include other assessment procedures.

The reality in many classrooms is that teachers are demotivated, feel enslaved and resigned because of poor remuneration. "They give us more but no money, we have a lot of records and they overburden us with this animal PLAP. We have been doing remedial work so it's just they want to keep us busy with their demands which torture us." Teachers indicated that the timetable is full and they have a very big work load because they are required to have as many as seven record books and now they have been ordered to have the PLAP. One school head reported that he doubts whether teachers are fully committed in implementation of the programme since they just say many of the pupils mastered the concepts. Negative teacher perceptions have been found to be caused by poor working conditions, remunerations and the top-down imposition of policies (Kurebwa and Nyaruwata, 2012 and Kaputa, 2009).

Results from in-depth interviews indicated that teachers need in-servicing workshops that popularise alternative assessment procedures. "Teachers need workshops which are well resourced with reading materials and handouts because note-taking has its weaknesses."

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research can conclude that the WRAT used for identifying the level of performance of learners does not provide adequate information about the learner's problem other than just norming them. The research recommends that locally designed tests which are tailor made to suit the needs of the teachers need to be used so that teachers can fully comprehend the nature of learners' problems.

The researchers can conclude that the assessment system currently being used in schools hinders the effective implementation of PLAP. There is need for structural change of the suggested way of recording the evaluations since it does not give adequate information about the learner's performance. It is clear that with the current appalling working conditions of many teachers resort to just fulfilling the demands of their superiors without effectively implementing the programme. It is a well documented fact that the plight of teachers especially

in rural areas is dire hence the government should incentives teachers so that they become committed. Teachers had shallow knowledge of the assessment techniques espoused in the PLAP teachers manual hence the ministry should create a team of expert teachers in the area of assessment who go to each school to inservice teachers and demonstrate how these methods can be used. Workshops are time and cost effective however there is need for demonstrations from the team of experts so that teachers can follow.

The evaluation component of PLAP teachers' record books does not communicate useful information of learner performance and the decision taken by the teachers. There is need to give teachers the autonomy to fully give a judgement basing on the information that they have collected.

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The Comparison of Pronunciation Assessment of Slovak Learners of English at B1 and B2 Maturita Examination Level

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Abstract

This study concerns the English pronunciation of Slovak speakers who took B1 and B2 English maturita examination levels (subjects). The theoretical part of the article introduces pronunciation assessment and objectives. Considerable attention is devoted to what L2 learners should have mastered at various levels according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Maturita pronunciation criteria, and PET and FCE Cambridge ESOL certificates. The experimental part concerns the pronunciation performance of the subjects. Therefore, spontaneous two-minute recordings where each subject delivered their utterance were obtained. Subsequently, three English native speakers were asked to rate their pronunciation on a scale of one to five (1 = poor pronunciation, 5 = excellent pronunciation). Finally, a comparison between the pronunciation assessment of B1 and B2 maturita students was made and conclusions were drawn.

Keywords: pronunciation, assessment, intelligibility, B1 Maturita, B2 maturita.

INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is of considerable significance and as such substantially contributes to intelligibility. Poor pronunciation impedes communication and leads to communication breakdowns. Despite its immense importance, it appears that pronunciation remains neglected at Slovak lower-secondary and upper-secondary school levels since teachers consider grammar and lexis to be more prominent in terms of foreign language teaching. They might not feel confident enough to include pronunciation in their English lessons. Moreover, it is highly likely that some teachers do not demonstrate enough technical knowledge about particular segmental and prosodic features. However, students are also awarded points for their pronunciation performance within their maturita examination at the Slovak school system. Similarly, candidates who wish to achieve Cambridge general English certificates are also evaluated for their pronunciation performance when they are assessed for their speaking skills. Intelligibility, intonation, stress and individual phonemes are at the centre of attention.

Therefore, particular attention needs to be devoted to pronunciation instruction as it is a major component of the proficiency. Furthermore, students' pronunciation is evaluated when they take various examinations.

PRONUNCIATION ASSESSMENT

It is vital to mention that more studies need to be published because scarce work can be found in the field of pronunciation assessment in spoken utterances. Moreover, the exact recognition of problems in pronunciation seems to be exceedingly complex and complicated even for experienced listeners. It seems that examiners who evaluate the pronunciation of L2 learners do not feel as comfortable assessing pronunciation as they feel when judging other aspects of one's performance (for example grammar or lexis). In connection with this, J. Scrivener indicates that pronunciation also appears to be an overlooked area when teaching foreign language [12]. One of the reasons for this is that teachers themselves regard their technical knowledge about pronunciation as insufficient and that they do not feel confident enough when teaching pronunciation. Hence, if pronunciation teaching is neglected, the assessment itself is probably not conducted properly. Taking Cambridge certificates into account, "in their pilot study of assessment processes in the Certificate in Advanced English (CAE) Speaking test, for example, Hubbard, Gilbert and Pidcock (2006) found that, of the four CAE analytical criteria, examiners commented the least on pronunciation in their real time verbal protocol analysis, and that the comments they did make were largely either general in nature or related to individual sounds" [13]. This statement indicates that the assessment process appears to be a rather complex issue and that identifying errors concerning both individual sounds and prosodic features remains particularly difficult [6]; [11].

PRONUNCIATION OBJECTIVES

According to D. Gondova [8], teaching pronunciation involves introducing particular phonemes (vowels and consonants) and prosodic features (stress, intonation, and rhythm). If teachers want their learners to achieve the objectives of pronunciation, both segmental and suprasegmental features need to be incorporated into the learning process. It is not an easy task to state which features play a more important role in one's pronunciation. Without vowels and consonants, one is not able to pronounce words. However, inappropriate stress and intonation may lead to communication breakdowns too. Therefore, teachers and learners are advised to pay attention to both – individual sounds and prosodic features.

Several decades ago, it was claimed that learners of English should aim at perfect and flawless pronunciation – the one which would approach a native-like level. However, no longer is this true since clear, intelligible, and appropriate pronunciation appears to be the goal in terms of pronunciation instruction. In connection with this, Z. Kralova [10] states that it is vital to set realistic goals and that acquiring the appropriate level of pronunciation with regard to communicative competence is of paramount importance. Moreover, it has to be emphasized that pronunciation plays a dominant role in the social acceptance of non-native speakers.

Taking into consideration learners' personal, societal, and phonological aspects, it has become customary to regard intelligibility as a primary objective of teaching pronunciation. It would not be fair if we wanted the L2 learners of English sound as English native speakers because only few foreign language learners possess the ability to achieve a native-like accent. Nevertheless, some students aim at sounding exactly like native speakers. In such cases it would be counterproductive if such learners' expectations were derailed by English language teachers [9].

Another thorny issue addresses the way how L2 learners work on, build, and enhance their pronunciation. Similarly to grammar and vocabulary, there exist a substantial number of rules students can adhere to. However, when speaking, it is impossible to think about the particular rules. To complicate matters, English pronunciation does not appear to be as straightforward

as, for example, Slovak pronunciation. Therefore, for Slovak learners of English, pronunciation seems to be a rather difficult and complicated matter.

There are possibly two ways which could be recommended to foreign language teachers. Perhaps the most important method involves being exposed to vast variety of spoken language as much as possible. The latter involves learning the pronunciation of a word when a word itself is learned. This appears to be absolutely necessary when the new words are presented. Nevertheless, many teachers ignore the fact that L2 learners fail to learn the correct pronunciation of the words which have just been introduced.

Improving pronunciation according to CEFR

CEFR [5] advises L2 learners to develop their pronunciation ability doing the following:

1. simply by exposure to authentic spoken utterances;
2. by chorused imitation of the teacher, audio-recorded native speakers, video-recorded native speakers;
3. by individualised language laboratory work;
4. by reading aloud phonetically weighted textual material;
5. by ear-training and phonetic drilling;
6. as 4 and 5 but with the use of phonetically transcribed texts;
7. by explicit phonetic training;
8. by learning orthoepic conventions (i.e. how to pronounce written forms);
9. by some combination of the above.

Undoubtedly, CEFR employs a rather comprehensive approach to building and enhancing one's pronunciation. The majority of scholars would probably agree that it is the combination of all the points mentioned in CEFR which L2 learners benefit from the most. Nonetheless, simply by being exposed to the English language and having ample opportunity for practicing seems to be very effective.

To summarize, teachers and learners need to pay attention to pronunciation from the very beginning. Imitations, repetitions, drills, phonemic transcriptions, and the like should enhance one's pronunciation. Moreover, each foreign language learner needs to bear in mind that exposure is one of the most decisive factors of one's pronunciation and that L2 learners have to listen to a wide range of texts on a regular basis.

PRONUNCIATION AT B1 AND B2 LEVELS

CEFR and phonological control

Phonological control in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages can be found in the table below. It is apparent that there is a difference between the B1 and B2 level. B1 level includes evident foreign accent in some instances, and mispronunciations occur occasionally. However, B2 phonological control does not include (noticeable) foreign accent and (occasional) mispronunciations since learners of English ought to attain both clear and natural pronunciation and intonation levels. Apparently, English learners are capable of expressing finer shades of meaning when they have achieved the C1 level. Thus, a noticeable difference can be observed among the B1, B2, and C1 level.

Table 1. Phonological control according to CEFR [5].

	PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL
C2	As C1
C1	Can vary intonation and place sentence stress correctly in order to express finer shades of meaning.
B2	Has acquired a clear, natural pronunciation and intonation.
B1	Pronunciation is clearly intelligible even if a foreign accent is sometimes evident and occasional mispronunciations occur.
A2	Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood despite a noticeable foreign accent, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time.
A1	Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by native speakers used to dealing with speakers of his/her language group.

Phonological control according to CEFR appears to contain some imperfections. For example, the term accent is not present at B2, C1, and C2 levels. Thus the question is whether accent at these levels is acceptable (to what extent?) or not. Another issue is raised when it comes to word stress, which is obviously a significant determinant of one’s pronunciation level. Moreover, sentence stress is explicitly mentioned only at C1 level. Finally, segmentals ought to be perhaps employed to a larger degree too.

In connection with this, D. Horner [7] has proposed a new phonological control grid which attempts to meet the requirements for adequate descriptors, balancing holistic and analytical factors.

Table 2. Proposed new phonological control grid [7].

CEFR level	Descriptors
C2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronunciation is easily intelligible. • Mispronunciations are rare. • Sentence stress is used successfully most of the time. • Intonation is used successfully most of the time.
C1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronunciation is easily intelligible. • Mispronunciations are rare. • Sentence stress is used successfully most of the time. • Intonation patterns are used but not always effectively.
B2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronunciation is intelligible. • Mispronunciations occur but do not interfere with understanding. • Sentence stress is used but not always successfully. • Basic intonation patterns are common but not used successfully all the time.
B1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sufficient control of sounds to be intelligible. • Sufficient control of word stress to be intelligible. • Mispronunciations occur, but only occasionally interfere with understanding.
A2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sufficient command of sounds to be understood, but with some difficulty. • Sufficient command of word stress to be understood, but with some difficulty. • The interlocutor may need to ask for repetition or clarification.
A1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sufficient command of sounds to be understood, but not all of the time and with some difficulty. • Sufficient command of word stress to be understood, but not all of the time and with some difficulty. • The interlocutor will need to ask for repetition or clarification.

Generally, we are agreeable to the proposed grid as it appears to adopt a more comprehensive and balanced approach. However, determining the phonological control at particular CEFR levels is, without doubt, a formidable task.

Maturita in Slovakia and pronunciation assessment

In contrast to CEFR phonological competence, “Cielove poziadavky na vedomosti a zrucnosti maturantov z anglickeho jazyka” (from now on Maturita pronunciation requirements) is what specifies the requirements that Maturita examination candidates in Slovakia need to meet in terms of their pronunciation. There are two separate documents – one for B1 level and the other one for B2 level. If we compare the B1 document with the B2 document concerning the pronunciation requirements, surprisingly, no significant differences can be detected. Thus, pronunciation requirements could be considered to be fairly similar.

The documents state (these three points are found in both documents) [3]; [4]:

1. Learners have mastered the appropriate pronunciation of sounds (aspirated [p], [t], [k], labiodental [v] and bilabial [w], open [æ], fricatives [θ] and [ð], and the like);
2. Learners have mastered connected speech, word stress (primary and secondary), distinctive function of word stress, reduced vowels in weak forms, sentence stress, and rhythm;
3. Learners distinguish various types of intonation.

The following can be found in the B2 document only as an addition to point number three - intonation:

- learners distinguish intonation in terms of question tags;
- learners are able to understand various types of pronunciation and understand the notation of a phonetic transcription (a learner is a passive user).

Cambridge PET and FCE certificates and pronunciation assessment

Finally, assessing pronunciation at B1 and B2 levels regarding Cambridge ESOL examinations – FCE and CAE is provided. Bands 5 at both levels include intelligibility, intonation, word and sentence stress, and segmental features. The key difference can be observed within the Band 5 in the usage of the word “generally”. This word is used at B1 level, but is not present at B2 level. Hence, a slight difference can be detected. Similarly, somewhat more demanding requirements can be recognized at B2 level when comparing Bands 1 and 3.

Table 3. Assessing Pronunciation at B1 level - PET [1].

Band 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pronunciation is intelligible - intonation is generally appropriate - sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed - individual sounds are generally articulated clearly
Band 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5
Band 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pronunciation is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels
Band 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3
Band 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pronunciation is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features

Table 4. Assessing Pronunciation at B2 level – FCE [2].

Band 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pronunciation is intelligible - intonation is appropriate - sentence and word stress is accurately placed - individual sounds are articulated clearly
Band 4	- performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5
Band 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pronunciation is intelligible - intonation is generally appropriate - sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed - individual sounds are generally articulated clearly
Band 2	- performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3
Band 1	- pronunciation is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.

Therefore, it can be concluded that CEFR B1 and B2 levels along with PET and FCE levels differ to a certain degree from the B1 and B2 Maturita pronunciation requirements regarding pronunciation performance and objectives.

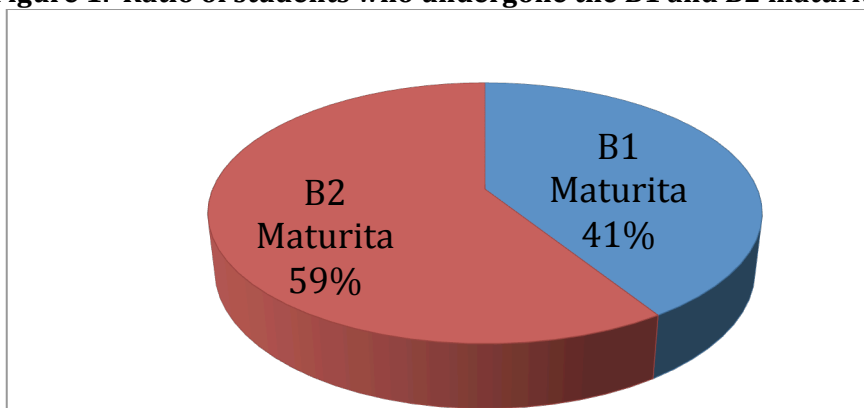
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, QUESTIONNAIRES, EXPERIMENT AND ANALYSIS

Research Sample

The data were obtained by recording 37 students (the subjects) of Teaching English Language and Literature at a Slovak university.

Taking the B1 and B2 maturita into account, 15 subjects have passed B1 maturita level and 22 subjects took B2 level (see Figure 1 below). It is vital to mention that in Slovakia, students which attend Gymnazium type of school are required to take the B2 maturita examination by law. Students of any other upper-secondary school types have a possibility to choose whether they will take the maturita examination at B1 or B2 level.

Figure 1. Ratio of students who undergone the B1 and B2 maturita.



ASSESSORS

Three English native speakers (NS) – assessors have been appointed.

Native speaker A – NS A

- female;
- 29 year old;
- from Ireland;
- holds a PhD. degree in Speech Technology;
- works as a speech recognition scientist;
- has completed some basic phonetic training.

Native speaker B – NS B

- male;
- 25 years old;
- from the USA;
- undergraduate in Linguistics;
- student;
- has completed some basic phonetic training.

Native speaker C – NS C

- female;
- 47 years of age;
- from Canada;
- 47 years of age;
- holds a PhD. degree in Linguistics);
- works as a university Lecturer;
- has completed phonetic training.

Assessors' task was to evaluate subjects' pronunciation on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = poor pronunciation; 5 = excellent pronunciation) according to their own subjective opinion. The assessors were given no clues or advice with regard to pronunciation assessment.

Material

Spontaneous two-minute monologues of our subjects were recorded. Next, the files were sent to the assessors which were asked to perform the analysis.

Hypothesis

We are interested in discovering whether B2 maturita learners achieve higher pronunciation score than B1 maturita learners. On the basis of CEFR and Cambridge ESOL certificates PET and FCE, B2 maturita learners are likely to obtain higher scores. However, taking the Maturita pronunciation requirements into consideration, virtually no differences between the two levels can be detected. Thus, the following hypothesis has been formulated:

There is no statistically significant difference in pronunciation performance between the subjects who took B1 Maturita examination level and the subjects who took B2 maturita examination level.

RESULTS

The results can be found in table 5 and table 6 below. The tables demonstrate the grades which were the subjects given by the assessors. In the last column, a total amount can be found; the grades of the native speakers have been counted up.

Table 5. Pronunciation assessment of B1 maturita students

Subject	NS A	NS B	NS C	Total
1.	3	3	4	10
2.	3	3	4	10
3.	3	4	4	11
4.	4	4	4	12
5.	3	4	4	11
6.	3	5	4	12
7.	3	5	4	12
8.	5	3	4	12
9.	3	3	4	10
10.	3	3	4	10
11.	3	3	3	9
12.	2	4	3	9
13.	3	4	3	10
14.	2	3	3	8
15.	3	3	3	9

Table 6. Pronunciation assessment of B2 maturita students

Subject	NS A	NS B	NS C	Total
1.	4	4	4	12
2.	3	4	5	12
3.	4	4	4	12
4.	4	5	4	13
5.	3	4	4	11
6.	4	5	4	13
7.	4	3	3	10
8.	4	4	4	12
9.	3	3	4	10
10.	3	4	4	11
11.	3	4	4	11
12.	3	3	3	9
13.	4	4	4	12
14.	2	3	3	8
15.	5	5	5	15
16.	2	3	3	8
17.	2	4	3	9
18.	3	3	4	10
19.	2	3	4	9
20.	3	3	3	9
21.	3	3	4	10
22.	4	4	4	12

STATISTICAL METHOD

For calculating the potential differences, a student t-test was conducted as this method is suitable for calculating differences among values. We calculated the value of the statistical significance: p value. Typically, there is a criterion of p lower than 0.05. Thus, if calculated p is lower than 0.05, there exists a statistically significant difference between the compared values.

The calculated p value for this study is 0.345. This value is considerably higher than the 0.05 value. Therefore, no statistically significant difference was identified and it can be concluded that the compared data are considered to be rather similar. Hence, the hypothesis "There is no statistically significant difference in pronunciation performance between the subjects who took B1 Maturita examination level and the subjects who took B2 maturita examination level" is confirmed.

This contrast does not appear to demonstrate convincingly the inequality between the B1 and B2 CEFR levels since noticeable differences can be detected when the CEFR is analysed. From Maturita pronunciation requirements point of view, the results are more satisfactory.

CONCLUSION

Pronunciation occupies significant importance in communication. Therefore, both segmental and prosodic features need to be taught if pronunciation objectives are to be met. Teachers need to remember that expecting a native-like accent from their learners is not a realistic goal as only a low number of L2 learners are capable of achieving native-like pronunciation. It appears that the word intelligibility is at the focus of teachers' and learners' attention. More importantly, teachers have to bear in mind that pronunciation teaching has to be an inseparable part of the L2 teaching.

The study compared pronunciation performance of B1 and B2 maturita students. The subjects were formed by 37 first-year university students from Slovakia. Next, three English native speakers evaluated subjects' pronunciation on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = poor pronunciation, 5 = excellent pronunciation). Afterwards, total points for each subject were calculated and a student t-test was used to determine how significant the difference is. The results demonstrate that there is no statistically significant difference between the B1 and B2 maturita students because the p value is 0.345. Therefore, the hypothesis is confirmed.

To summarize, it appears that our results correspond with Maturita pronunciation requirements more in comparison to the CEFR levels. However, to what extent should the Slovak maturita B1 level pronunciation requirements differ from the Slovak maturita B2 level pronunciation requirements remains the subject of further studies and discussions.

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Medical examination within the Reform of the Italian Public Administration

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The Italian Reform of the Public Administration (art. 17 Act n. 124/2015) is opening to the opportunity to re-define the employment relation of the medical examiners – those in charge for controlling over the state of health anyone entitled to sick pay and other social-health-related rights, as well as disability-rights – by means of an agreed Convention with the National Institute for Pensions and Social Security (INPS).

THE FUNCTION OF MEDICAL EXAMINATION OVER ANY ACTIVE OR RETIRED WORKER DECLARING OF BEING SICK OR DISABLE: THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Controlling over the correct allocation of social security rights is complementary to the Italian constitutional norm that recognizes social security, art. 38 Italian Constitution. Article 38 recognizes that every citizen who is not able to work and who has no means to live upon, is entitled to social maintenance and social assistance; moreover, every worker has the right to be supported in case of accident, illness and disability. It is up to public institutions and agencies that such support is provided (art. 38 co. 4 Constitution) and the Italian Civil Code too – art. 2010 c.c. – similarly states such a social right. The public bodies so identified, every time it is needed to verify the health condition of workers, call for the intervention of medical doctors who work against any abuse. The present study is focused on medical control regarding abuse of sick pay, but it is connected to the similar control over disability benefits, work related injuries/accidents and professional disease, since the perspective is possibly one calling for an overall view over the function whenever the health condition of any citizen need to be verified.

Assistance and social security, to which the constitutional norm is giving basement, are implemented through diverging organizational systems. Although the discipline aimed at implementing and delivering social benefits has not an explicit basement in the Constitution, it can be argued that its constitutional basement can be found in the fundamental principles of good and impartial public administration (art. 97 Constitution) as well as in the constitutional duty of the State to pursue its own financial equilibrium (art. 81 Constitution) – since social benefits are financed by the State and (partly) by employers of both the public and private sector.

The function that we are dealing with – not including prevention in social security in this study – is setting the figure of the examiner medical doctor at the very centre of the chain of public assistance.

Currently, the function can be executed by medical doctors working as subordinated employees (although having a reduced subordination, since any doctor working for the public administration is qualified as a manager in Italy) but also as self employed. Particularly, the

legal qualification of most of medical doctors examining over workers' declaring sickness (called "fiscal doctors") has been judged to be a form of self employment, performed in a continuing and coordinated collaboration (relevant under art. 409 Italian Civ. Proc. Code, see Supreme Court, United Sections, sentence n. 7835/1991 regarding fiscal doctor employed by INPS, Sentence n.4893/2015 delivered by the Council of the State qualified them as semi-subordinated workers).

The institutional competence for the function is, to this day, identified by statutory law in a plurality of agencies, in the Minister of Labour – in its function of labour inspector – in the Minister of Health, in its function of medical service at the local level (AuSL - Local unique sanitary assistance), in the Minister of Economy and Finance , and, particularly, in other public bodies that appears to be "directly" in charge for this service, INPS and INAIL (the National Institute for Assistance for Labour Injuries). Therefore, we witness to a mixture of disciplines on the part of the employer: starting from 1955 when a Presidential Decree re-organized all the offices of the Minister of Labour (D.p.r n. 502/1955), crossing the later re-organization of the National Health System in 1970 and a series of later legislative and ministerial acts, included D.lgs n. 502/1992 which regards the convention ruling any medical doctors working for the National Health System, it follows a legal frame that is rather complex and far from clear for a labour law analysis.

The present study has been requested by the Italian National Federation of General Practitioners (F.I.M.M.G.) representing the category of fiscal doctors employed by INPS.

Before recalling in details the norms that, according to existing law, do discipline the function, we need to cope with the recent overall Reforms which are concerning the Italian Public Administration and Italian Employment Relations, since they have both a indirect and a direct impact on our topic.

On the one side, the law that aims to re-organize the Public Administration (Parliament Act n. 125/2015) is precisely concerning the qualification of medical doctors working in the public sector for controlling over any abuse of sick pay.

On the other side, the Ministerial Decree implementing the so called Jobs Act (Parliament Act n. 183/2014), together with the re-definition of any employment contracts in the private sector, is newly defining dependence in employment contacts by including those self directed employees (continuously collaborating to the firm) whose activity is nevertheless organized by the employer .

Moreover, there is a Report by the Parliamentary Commission for Social Affairs that undertook an investigation over this special employment contest (recent economic cuts affected severely many fiscal doctors and rose the necessity to define their employment protection) concluded for more clarity in contractual conditions, it suggested the overcoming of the dual regime that is keeping separate public and private sector, and adoption of a regime coping with not compatible activities, wherein the co-existing conflicting interests and conflicting roles should be faced.

Particularly, Act n. 124/2015, regarding re-organization of the Public Administrations, is apparently giving an occasion on the path to simplify and unite the discipline of both private and public sector. It provides, literally: " to re-organize functions of medical examinations

regarding public servants' absence from work, with the aim of granting an effective control, giving to INPS the relative competence and workforce as currently employed from also other public administrations – based on a preliminary understanding from the Permanent Conference for relations amongst the State, the Regions, the Autonomous Provinces of Trento and Bolzano which would provide over the transfer of funds, and would define the employment model of organization – with no increasing of the public debt and by a recognition of a priority placement of those doctor who are already working according to the existing legal frame (art. 4 co. 10 bis executive Decree n. 101/2013, turned into Parliament Act n. 125/2013)”.

It is a norm that is orienting, on the first side, to a transfer of tasks and workforce from other public administrations to INPS only, and, on a second side, it opens to the possibility for a discipline being bargained, rather than stated in ministerial decrees.

SOURCES OF LAW

From the complex legal frame that is so to be considered, which norms will be here after just mentioned, it is emerging a system that is divergent as for governance, and as for a disparity of treatment to be applied to worker of the private sector in respect to worker of the public sector.

Under the aspect of the governance, complexity rose in the plurality of bodies that can be in charge for these employment relations (INPS, AuSL, Minister of Labour, Bar of Medical Doctors, Minister of Economy). Under the aspect of the treatment that is applicable to workers (absent from work because of sickness or disability) there are different requirements as for time of obligatorily staying at home (depending if they are public or private employees), control can be activated by the employer and by the office/institution too in case of private employees, while for public servants it is needed the impulse of the employer.

The state of discipline in the private sector moves from art. 5 of the Statute of Workers (Act n. 300/1970), which forbids any medical verifications by any employer's doctor over his workers' physical ability, sickness and disability, as well as on any absence due to work related injuries or professional disease (no doctor of the premises' rule), while it is only allowed a sanitary verification via the competent public body (that intervenes whenever the employer makes such an instance); the employer cannot verify the worker's physical ability but via those specialized public bodies as well.

Art. 5 of D.lgs n. 463/1983 and Ministerial Decree dated 7.5.198 established the organization and implemented the function of medical control, whenever it is needed in the form of a home sanitary visit (there it is required for sick workers to stay at home from 10 a.m. to 12 a.m. and from 5 p.m. to 7 p.m.); these sources of law established a special contract for fiscal doctors. According to article 12-bis of Act n. 638/1983 INPS is moreover authorized to sign specific conventions with INAIL (therefore any check on work related injuries are covered by medical doctors being employed directly by INAIL or upon a Convention between INAIL and INPS).

Later, Ministerial Decree dated 02.25.1984, and 1.8.1985 established the possibility to sign typical Conventions also amongst INPS and the AuSL for the execution of medical verifications and mandatory staying at home during sickness (see Circolare INPS n. 52 dated 2.2.1985); then, the Ministerial Decree dated 4.18.1996 provided for these fiscal doctors enrolment, and identified some activities that are not compatible with their function. Ministerial Decree dated

10.12.2000 and 05.08.2008 have then updated on economic compensation and other normative aspects.

In the public sector, on the other side, the first source of law is art. 55 septies of D.lgs n. 165/2001 and Ministerial Decree dated 12.18.2009, which currently provide for sick workers to stay at home from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. and from 3 p.m. to 18 a.m. The Ministerial Decree specified that workers who are affected by certain diseases are not obliged to stay at home (this is the case for : a. serious sickness requiring life-saving treatments; b. work related injuries; c. work related disease recognized as such; d. sickness just connected to a recognized disability; not obliged to stay at home are also those employees that already have been visited by fiscal doctors during the time as indicated in the medical certificate). The mentioned law (art. 55 septies) affirms that in case of absence from work for a period that is longer then 10 days, and, in any case, after the second event of sickness in a solar year, the absence is justified exclusively via a medical certificate that is released by an office of the NHS (National Health System) or by a medical doctor working for the NHS.

From the mentioned sources of law, it follows that, as for the perspective of declared sick workers treatment, we see a different regime in case of public servants and private employees, which is not clearly justified, both for the different duration of mandatory staying at home, and for the wider range of disease that do not imply any oblige to stay at home, which is in favour of public servants. The regime is also different when it comes to sanctions: while the Decree on private sector only provides decadence from all benefits received, in the public sector there is a more severe sanction that implies the duty to repair to the damage that the public administration has received because of his employee's breach of law.

To the reverse purpose of unification of the discipline between the public sector and the private sector, there is an administrative disposition by INPS (Circolare INPS, dated 9.12.2011) according to which the system for presenting an instance to check over the employee's health conditions and sick pay is unique: both private and public employers are now asked to make an instance via an IT procedure.

As for the involvement of the strictly sanitary administrations, art. 14, letter q, Act n. 833/1978 (which is the Act that established the National Health System), set upon the AuSLs (local sanitary assistance bodies) the liability to check over the health condition and medical certification having a legal effect. The same Act recognized the right to sick pay and to maternity pay as we know them today: art. 74, delivering such monetary benefits, gives to INPS (in place of the many social security bodies that were delivering the same service before 1978) the management. Moreover, parliamentary Act n. 33/1980 (art. 1) expressly provided that checking over health conditions of those absent from work (according to art. 5 Act 300/1970) is done by medical doctors indicated by the Regions (the chief bodies, as for sanitary competences, between the Central Government and the local bodies). Thereafter there seems to be a management of control over health related benefits that is shared amongst INPS, the Regions, and AuSLs, but recognizing the direct involvement of INPS which is also the creditor of the social benefits hereabout delivered.

The sources of law for medical checking on paid disability can be found in many different statutes nonetheless (Act n. 335/1995, co. 3, lett. d; Act n. 118/1971; Act n. 104/1992; art. 20 of the Decree n. 78/2009 (converted into Act n. 10/2009; art. 10 co. 4 of the Decree n. 78/2010 (converted into Act n. 122/2010; art. 38 of Decree n. 98/2011 (converted into Act n.

111/2011); art. 1, co.109 of Act n. 228/2010. All these norms makes a direct and indirect reference to the competence of INPS.

From such a complex legal frame we shall establish the delicate institutional equilibrium (concerning labour law, health, public finance and solidarity) that is today at the basement of controlling over delivering of social benefits linked to health conditions of citizens. The system is today involving several institutional bodies with competences that appears to be partly crossing and overlapping, not clearly defined, like in the case of coexisting competence of INPS and Regions as for calling the medical doctors to be employed in such a service, or like that of INPS and AuSL that are both competent over delivering the social benefits and controlling them over.

THE COST OF SERVICE: EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION OF MEDICAL DOCTORS

When it comes to the analysis of the cost for the service that is in point, we see that we are mainly dealing with the labour cost. Consequently, we are dealing with the many financial limits just present whenever a public cost is concerned, in order to achieve a more rational and efficient service. Remarkably, in 2013 statutory law imposed on INPS savings up to 300 millions euros per year, which justified the cut of home visits by fiscal doctors that are activated by the office (rather than by the employers), which fact severely affected these workers' employment perspective.

In the private sector, the first Decree which implemented the function of medical examination for legal purposes (the above mentioned Ministerial Decree dated 1986) clarified that the service is paid by a contribution of those employers who apply for it: employers and social security bodies that apply for the controlling service must reimburse INPS, which is managing the execution of the service, the compensation which is given to fiscal doctors for each visits that they do, up to a sum that is provided by the same Ministerial Decree (including transport expenses and fees). The visits that are occasionally disposed by INPS offices instead, not by any particular employer, are thus at full cost upon INPS itself (as the 2013 cut demonstrated, putting at risk the employment perspective of many fiscal doctors).

In the public sector, instead, cost of service is not explicitly ruled in the statute law, neither in any Decree of implementation. So it should come up from the balance of each employing administration to which the service can be statutorily assigned (AuSL, the Ministers etc. in coordination with the executing competences of INPS); nevertheless, this is happening upon no explicit ruling regarding source and amount of remuneration.

Art. 5 (co. 8), of the mentioned Decree n. 463/1983, ruling compensation of the service, specified that it is up to an harmonized decision by the Minister of Labour and Social Security and the Minister of Health, after consultation with National Federation of Medical Doctor Bars and the Council of Administration of INPS, the establishing of a discipline and implementation of the service, as well as compensation of medical doctors there involved as well (from here it is followed Ministerial Decree dated 1986). It is a norm that, although explicitly regarding the private sector only, fixes a procedure that is leading to a shared decision by the main central authorities; as such, it can represents a referring parameter in the public sector too.

Moreover, art. 5 (co. 9), which is concerning the fiscal home visits only, provides the possibility to set the same discipline via a Convention. Specifically, it is stated that the Minister of Health has a subsidiary power, to be used coordinately with Minister of Labor and Social Security, to

formulate model-type of conventions with the understatement of INPS and the Regions (and AuSL, that are the local administrations of Regions), also having the purpose of delivering a service of ambulatory visits with plural specialized medical competences, for specific certifications.

Decree n. 463/1983 specified that organization of the service is managed by INPS, which relies upon an opinion from the Bar of Medical Doctors in order to establish a special list of doctors who can run the function, both as subordinated employee and as self employed, just coordinated by INPS itself. This list of doctors is the one put at risk by the 2013 cut, and that Decree n. 101/2013 (converted into Parliamentary Act n. 125/2013) transformed into a closed list. So there is the possibility for INPS to utilize both employee and self employed doctors. Contemporarily, the Minister of Health and the Minister of Labour and Social Security, the National Federation of Bar of Medical Doctors and INPS, have the possibility to set the economic content of these employment relationship, although the Government can set them as well – according to the same harmonized procedure.

Conclusively, today the discipline finds its final source in the Ministerial Decrees, but it is plainly clear that it is well possible that in the next future the same discipline will find its source directly in a Convention (which is apparently the same purpose of Act 124/2015 when it recalls the closed list of doctors already ruled according to 1983 legal frame, which essentially would merge, as for the needed workforce, checking over the public sector and checking over the private sector).

Stability Act for 2014 (L. 147/2013, co.339) was confirming the competence of AuSL over the checking we are dealing with. It contained rules for the sharing of funds amongst Regions to cover the medical examinations regarding employees of the public sector. Remarkably, we are dealing with a cost of around 75 millions of euros just paid by AuSL (working on both private and public sector), which is rather distant from the cost that is paid by INPS for the same service for sickness in the private sector, which amount is around 25 millions euros per year, and, even more surprisingly, it is referring to a number of medical certificates and medical home visits that is double if compared to those done by AuSL. The Stability Act confirmed this AuSL competence even against a constitutional jurisprudence (Sentence n. 207/2010) observing that costs for medical examinations are not the same as the sanitary essential necessities (Essential Level of Assistance) as for their financial coverage: medical examinations should not belong to the balance of health administrations while covering essential costs for assistance.

It has been upon these financial consideration that finally the reform in 2015 introduced the possibility of assigning the function that is today run by doctors working for AuSL and other administrations to INPS only: INPS will be controlling the employment relation apparently as a unique employer.

Moreover on complexity of analysing the labour cost, it must be said that to this day, according to INPS Circular n. 110/1994, a part of medical doctors working in the ambulatories, but assigned to do medical examinations as well, are working by virtue of a not better defined agreement between the National Federation of Medical Doctors and INPS which applied the Convention of specialized medical doctors.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINATION IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF A UNIQUE CONVENTION (UNIQUE EMPLOYMENT ROLE)

To this day the many medical doctors who are in charge for the function are thus operating by virtue of different contractual models; this is possibly leading to conflicting interests between the role of different administrations, and it can lead to unequal treatment to employed doctors working for the same administration .

There is an unavoidable functional dependence that must be considered, connecting any medical examiner, being he or she a subordinated employee (of a managerial level) or a self employed one, to his or her employer, which is confirmed by the duty to refrain from any not compatible activity, meant as an activity capable to rise a conflict of interest (a doctor could otherwise be the trusted personal doctor of an employer and the examiner of sick employees working for that same employer). In this perspective the ministerial discipline limited the range of activity of fiscal doctors very rigidly. At the same time, the peculiarities of the working duty (sanitary inspection) played in favor of a substantial exclusivity of the employment relation, even when these professionals are working as self employed.

The same regime of incompatibility is not clearly traced for medical doctors working in the ambulatories as subordinated doctors; according to art. 15 quarter and art. 15 quinquies of Delegated Decree n. 502/1992 these have the possibility to opt, year by year, for a regime of non-exclusivity with their employing administration (in place of an exclusive type of relation that is paid with an additional remuneration just collectively agreed). Incompatibilities might derive from a ruling at the premise level, while a general regime for incompatibility is only stated at a statutory level for fiscal doctors whose discipline is reported in Decree n. 463/1983 and Decree 1986.

These professionals have in common that they are granting a public function which, both for the reason of the physical proximity to the human being, both for ethical reasons (the relation between the doctor and the patient reports the public function of controlling over the human being) does have an institutional character, and it cannot be abolished nor reduced on merely financial considerations; it is not a function having an aleatory nature, being it linked to the state of health of workers, where aleatory can only be the number of visits that are required. The service is aimed at granting a system of labour relations, social security relations and public assistance that is meant to be sane and not corrupt, through methods that are equally running for workers and retired workers of both the private and public sector. It must be here remarked that the Italian Criminal Code (art. 357) clarifies that, to the effect of criminal law, anyone who exercises a public function, be it legislative or judiciary or administrative (administrative is the nature of the medical checking) can be called "public official" and to the same effects it is public the function of those exercising an administrative function by means of certificating powers.

From here it moves a logic project of uniting the function of sanitary inspections under the perspective of a Unique employing Role, for a unique category of medical examiners, having an equal treatment and employment opportunities, that will be running both examinations at the ambulatory and examinations at the domicile; a working category that, also in consideration of the institutional incompatibilities as to be respected, shall rely upon guaranties, also of an economic nature, that stays to maintain their independence . To this day the absence from work in the public sector has been ruled in a way that it is up to the AuSL the charge of controlling over medical certificate, and they have done it reaching a very high expense, much higher than the expense paid by INPS for the same function in the private sector; it is thus

appeared to be rational to create a Unique Role by INPS that can help through a lighter organization, a more efficient service as for releasing of medical certificates and checking. Moreover, there is a project to introduce a special commission by every public administration that is meant to deal with employees attitude and sickness .

TRANSFER OF COMPETENCES FROM SUBORDINATED DOCTORS TO DOCTORS WORKING UPON CONVENTION

Being this, *de iure condito*, the normative frame, thereafter we need to clarify few aspects under employment legal theory, in order to consider *de iure condendo* a re-definition of the institutional equilibrium, also by using the tool of the Convention – in place of the Ministerial Decree.

Preliminarily, it must be minded that any employment relation, be it qualified as a subordinated one or an autonomous one, cannot consist of doing a single task: in any subordinated employment the power of the employer to direct the worker implies the possibility to ask for several type of tasks and obligations to be performed, while in the autonomous work the need to realize a certain result does imply that the worker can achieve it by arranging himself different duties, independently from the unitary nature of the function . It derives that the mixing of competences, home visits and ambulatory visits, does not pose any specific problems, apart from adaptation of working time and compensations.

The transfer of duties from AuSL (and other administrations) to INPS, essentially prospects a reduction of duties of subordinated doctors – to be coped within the reform of medical managers duties and liabilities, which is waited nonetheless from the Reform – and, for the self employed doctors on the other side, an increasing of duties (regarding particularly ambulatory visits). To this day, both the categories of fiscal doctors and ambulatory doctors can be called to work for controlling at the domicile or in the ambulatory, in the private sector and in the public sector as well, although the coordination of the needed work force and the required controlling intervention in both sectors, public and private, is far from being clearly defined, as told above .

So, the perspective that is meant to be realized is one wherein medical examiners who have been working till this day as self employed will be disciplined by a Unique Role into which also ambulatory visits – today done mainly by subordinated doctors – will be assigned and executed, under the supervision of INPS as a unique employer. The Convention, that appears to be implicitly considered by Act n. 124/2015, would establish a control over sickness of public servants by means of the 1300 fiscal doctors that are today already employed in such a function according to regime dated 1983 and later Decrees; more doctors will be employed, since also the certification and ambulatory activity that is today executed by AuSL, on workers' sickness and disabilities, will be transferred to INPS. Therefore, it is a project that empowers the category both in functions and workforce, upon a discipline that is collectively bargained rather set by ministerial decree.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING INTERESTS

From a collective bargaining point of perspective there are several important aspects which are here in point. From the qualification of the employment relation, and the inherent directional power of the employer, especially on point of working time, to the definition of what is the range of the examining functions, till the determination of the doctors compensation, whether by contract or by ministerial decree.

An issue that rises the interest of labour unions is reasonably to define the employment relation in terms of employment stability, in order to prevent from other suffering like that of the 2013 cut, as well as in order to cope with the difficulty to undertake other activities because of the strict incompatibilities that are connected to this public function. For fiscal doctors already employed the need for stability has been partly granted by Parliamentary Acts which are recognizing their priority employment on others.

Also the perspective of a full time employment is of interest for labour unions – considering the increase of competences and tasks, ambulatory visits included – and considering the regime of exclusivity that plays against the chance of increasing the income of part time job with other type of activity.

To this purpose it is arguable at law that to cover such an institutional function by means of a temporary work-force appears to be questionable; also the increasing of competences highlights the need for permanent job positions rather than temporary, but for any consideration to the opportunity to opt for a higher remuneration in place of a stable job. It should be a long term type of employment also according to the Constitutional Court that recently delivered an important decision on collective bargaining in the public sector, stating that “it is at stake a necessary long term perspective for the financial equilibrium, which is not allowing analogies with past situations when financial provisions were based on temporary objectives”. Therefore, respecting annual stability Acts that are indicating the limits for expenditure in re-new employment collective agreements in the public sector (see art. 11, co. 3, lett. g, Act. 196/2009 and art. 48 co. 1 Dlgs 165/2001), Conventions with the NHS included, it should not be questionable that discipline for fiscal doctors is better to be an ordinary one of permanent employment. The fact that collective bargaining needs to interact with the tree years-based public financial program (see again art. 11 Act 196/2009 regarding financial public stability, and art. 17 of the same Act giving others limitations) does not justify provisions that are meant to rule employment relations temporarily, especially whenever they serve institutional functions .

THE INSTRUMENT OF A CONVENTION IN PLACE OF A MINISTERIAL DECREE OR A TRADITIONAL COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

It is important to recall the perspective of the new Reform for collaborations and self employment continuing contracts, as contained in the 2014 Jobs Act, particularly in art. 2 of the new Decree n. 81/2015, although they are not directly concerning the function and professions that here are under analysis. The new Decree defines the content of a subordinated type of employment by focusing on the “organizational setting”, orienting at reducing the abuse of ambiguous form of employment between dependence and autonomy, but to this purpose avoids to mention those legal concepts adopted by the previous legislator – specifically the concept of “economic dependence” and the employment “on project”. The Reform is rather giving high value, also in the perspective of the employment contract qualification, to collective bargaining , while it appears to be increased the power of judges as for the final recognition of labour rights, especially whenever they are different from the minimum rights as recognized also in the constitutional paper. Specifically, art. 2, co. 1 of Decree n. 81 states that the regime of subordination is applicable to collaborations that are performed exclusively by the person, continuously and which method or execution are “organized by the committing party also in regards to working time and working place”: it is thus given meaning to the concept of controlled organization rather than to that of controlled activity, it remarks the context of organization rather than the hierarchical position, implying the power of the employer to organize the employment as for time and places .

Although this Reform is not directly applicable to medical examiners – firstly because these are intellectual professionals responding to a ruled Bar, secondly because this regime of subordination is not applicable whenever there is a collective bargaining signed at the national level (like the Convention for specialist doctors is, for example) which is covering the same context, thirdly because the regime is neither applicable to public administrations.

It is nevertheless important that we investigate over the general implications deriving from the Reform, especially when it recognizes so much more power to collective bargaining.

We have seen that Decree n. 463/1983 gave the possibility to public administrations (Minister of labour, Minister of Health, National Federation of Medical doctors, INPS) to rule the employment under analysis via Convention (this is coherent to indications of also D.lgs n. 502/1992, that mentions medical employment ruled both by Convention and by traditional collective bargaining under art. 40 Decree n. 165/2001 - subordinated public servants), although it recognizes a subsidiary power of the Minister as well. Nowadays, Conventions are signed between INPS and AuSL, and the Convention that is applicable to specialist doctors has been “somehow” applied to medical examiners working within the ambulatories as well, but at the general level these professionals are ruled by Ministerial Decree. Moreover, considered the perspective of being the public sector expressly involved, the Minister of Public Administration is opportunely going to be consulted in the process.

The Convention is a tool that is already experimented within the National Health Service, and, differently from the collective agreement as ruled in art. 40 D.lgs 165/2001 for the public servants, it can regard contracts for self employment and coordinated self employment too. The discipline of a Convention would thus be giving much more autonomy – from the public power to organize the service – to the medical doctors’ representatives, coherently with a meaning of the medical profession wherein the medical liability is highly recognized and linked to the medical actions just strictly considered.

Feature of the Convention (for example the Convention ruling the employment of specialised and veterinary doctors working in ambulatories) is that it can actually rule the employment relation with a discipline that – in terms of directions, working time and disciplinary powers – is very similar to a regular subordinated contract of public service. At the same time, it is a tool that gives the chance to activate, in a given context, a contract for service rather than a contract of service – where it is accepted that the former does not imply a direct control by the public employer.

Also the load of employment, meant as the needed work force, as well as the organization of offices and management prerogatives is managed in the Convention much more autonomously, although respecting the legal principles as stated in D.lgs 502/1992 and the limits just given by the stability acts is a requirement for its validity (according to statutory law in 2009 management prerogatives are not shared anymore by the social parties and their collective bargaining: the Government stated that collective bargaining in the public sector should refrain for only ruling over disciplinary issues and performance evaluation).

The Act n. 124/2015, art. 17, lett. l, here in point, does not refer expressly to the Convention when it states the transfer of competence to INPS; nevertheless, the Convention is implicitly concerned since 1) INPS already work via Conventions while directing the service according to D.L. 463/1983; 2) art. 17 refers to the Conference for permanent relations between the State

and the Regions – that recall both the shared competence of the State and Regions as for employment issues and the discipline of Conventions based on D.lgs n. 502/1992, taking the form of the Understatement adopted by the named Conference). Nevertheless, for assuring the use of a Convention, in such a lack of express indication by the statutory law, it is needed an express statement by the implementing source, giving consideration to also the normative aspects that will be maintained as not derogable by negotiation, granting harmonization with other institutional bodies as just concerned (in particular the Bar of medical doctors and the Minister of Health).

Conclusively it will be required to focus the attention over the limits that are external to negotiation (meant as not derogable by the social parties), like it is already happening for the other categories of conventioned sanitary professionals (general practitioners, pediatricians, specialist medical doctors and veterinaries working in the ambulatories, which conventional discipline is limited by art. 8 Dlgs n. 502/1992 and later modifications). Inderogability needs to be remarked not only in the perspective of the concerned public function of sanitary examinations and certification: also the implication in managing via collective bargaining – rather than by statute – the qualification of employment contracts, be it possibly subordinated or autonomous in the mixing of competence to be performed both in the public administration premises and out of the public administration premises, generally by use of different IT software, rises issues are connected to the minimum labour law standards.

EXTERNAL SOURCES LIMITING THE POWER OF COLLECTIVE (CONVENTIONED) BARGAINING

It is now possible to imagine the development of the Convention for “fiscal doctors”, but for the need to identify and set its external limits.

From a legal theory point of perspective, it is preliminary important to state the scope of applicability of the Convention, both on the part of the objective competences and tasks (what functions are involved, what is going to be controlled, what is going to be sanitarily examined?) and on the part of the citizen/workers who will be possibly interested (public employees, private employees, retired citizens, disabled etc.), and on the parts of the employed workforce. Clarity on who is doing, being controlled by who, is the main step to accomplish the Report by the Commission for Social Affairs as mentioned above.

The Convention which is already applicable to the specialist medical doctors, and which has been “somehow” extended to ambulatory doctors doing medical examinations, could represent a first basement for articulating a proper Convention regarding the INPS medical examination, but for the need to preliminary adapt it to the special functions that will be concerned.

Together with the range of functions and persons just concerned, it shall be clarified the ruling that coordinate the presence of the different Public Administrations and Institutions.

It should not be left to collective bargaining the granting of a minimum compensation , being possibly uniform all over the national territory , while the Convention remains the best tool to discipline any variable economic elements.

Dealing with minimum standards, it would be opportune to take the chance of this implementation in order to clarify the distance between the notion of essential level of assistance as for the sanitary sector, and the notion of the essential level of economic protection as for labour rights, whenever this might clarify the competence between the

Minister of Labour and the Minister of Health, as well as the competence of Regions – while keeping an eye over the evolution of the constitutional discipline over the sharing of competences and connected economic funds.

More so, out of collective bargaining shall remain the social security system in its essential benefits.

For similar considerations, to an external source shall be left the identification of a regime stating the activities that are not compatible to the main function that is assigned to these professionals; as well as the discipline over dismissal, and working time limits.

The discipline regarding the access to the new Role by INPS shall nevertheless be not derogable by the social parties whenever they like, especially considering that they have the power to manage the overall load of employment as needed. The Convention can always be ruling any operative aspect regarding the access to the Role, and it is in position to open to new hiring, for example by formulas like the following one : “the position of those medical examiners already enrolled is stable and they are called to work with precedence, but, according to INPS requirements, more medical examiners can be enrolled according to the norms for accessing the job position, good administration, impartiality and transparency, in order to do the same functions and joining the same labour contract.

As for the operative aspect to achieve the Convention, certainly the external sources must with priority recognize rules over representativeness and bargaining procedure, which could be similar to those already operating in the public sector.

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The coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban research

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Abstract

The Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei in China plays a decisive role in economic and social development. The coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, will greatly improve the level of regional urbanization, promote regional economic development, promote urbanization and economic development of Bohai rim region. Adhere to the principle of complementary advantages and win-win cooperation, establish the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban mechanism, overall planning of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urbanization. In order to improve the urbanization level as the goal of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, optimization of regional industry layout, strengthen ecological environment comprehensive treatment, and strengthening regional urban construction coordination, coordination and ecological environment protection coordination of industrial development, realize the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urbanization.

Key words: Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei; Urbanization; Synergy; The development of

Xi Jinping pointed out: Beijing, Tianjing and Hebei added up to more than 100 million population, land area of 21.6 square kilometers, Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei geopolitical connect, dating popular, regional, cultural, historical origin, deep communication radius and Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei is fully capable of mutual confluence, collaborative development. To promote the coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, should be based on their respective comparative advantage, based on the requirements of modern industrial division of labor and based on the regional advantage complementary principle, based on the concept of win-win cooperation, according to the construction of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban agglomeration as the carrier, focusing on the optimization of regional division of labor and industry layout, with overall planning elements of space utilization of resources as the main line, in order to build the system mechanism for the gripper, speed up the development of [1] from the breadth and depth.

THE MEANING OF BEIJING-TIANJING-HEBEI URBAN COORDINATED DEVELOPMENT

Xi stressed: realize the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei, is for the future to build a new capital economic circle, the need of system and mechanism innovation, promote regional development is to explore perfect urban layout and form, in order to optimize the development of regional development provides the demonstration and the needs of the

template, is to explore an effective way for construction of ecological civilization, and promote the population, the needs of economic resources and environment in harmony, is to realize the complementary advantages of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, promote the development of the Bohai sea economic zone, to drive the needs of the development of the hinterland, is a major national strategy, insist on the complementary advantages, mutual benefit and win-win results, made solid progress, speed up out of the ongoing collaborative development with a scientific to [2].

Is beneficial to realize national development strategy

Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region is the political center and cultural center of China, north China economic center. Because of the influence of the administrative division, Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei fragmented in three provinces and cities in the region urbanization development, seriously restricted the rapid development of the region economy, affected the overall regional interests and competitiveness. Implementation of the coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, is not only beneficial to improve the level of regional urbanization, promote regional economic development, but also to promote urbanization and economic development, the Bohai rim region is beneficial to realize national development strategy.

To promote healthy development of the Beijing and Tianjing two cities

Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region of the two cities of Beijing, Tianjing and the surrounding areas on the urban development disjointed, self-closed, fragmented, core cities on the surrounding radiation function not well. The Beijing and Tianjing two city is China's most abundant education resources, talent resources, science and technology resources, these resources are not give full play to the function of. In Hebei province as the coordinated development of urbanization in the periphery of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, is the Beijing and Tianjing energy and raw materials supply base and the important channel, is of great importance in the Beijing and Tianjing technology, talent and commodity markets, is an important ecological barrier of the Beijing and Tianjing and water supply. Implementation of the coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, to improve the Beijing and Tianjing, urbanization is beneficial to greatly improve the quality of the Beijing-Tianjing urbanization, is beneficial to optimizing the Beijing-Tianjing industrial layout, is beneficial to improve the regional ecological environment, promote the Beijing and Tianjing's economic and social healthy development.

To promote regional economic and social development

Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei collaborative development strategy is put forward, bring great opportunities for the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban. As a whole of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, three different provinces and cities development is bound to affect the regional development scale and speed of development. Beijing and Tianjing is the center of the coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, is the core of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei economic development area, Tianjing's development inevitably affects the development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region. Any one area of development is inseparable from the adjacent areas of development, the development of Beijing and Tianjing will inevitably affect the economic development in Hebei province, Hebei province development also affects the development of Beijing and Tianjing. To speed up the urbanization coordinated development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban development planning as a whole, is not only beneficial to promote the

development of urbanization in Hebei, and conducive to promoting urbanization, the Beijing and Tianjing is conducive to promoting regional economic and social development.

SECOND, THE BEIJING-TIANJING-HEBEI URBAN PROBLEMS

Regional urbanization level gap is big

The Beijing and Tianjing central city development deformity

Consciousness as a regional nuclear two cities of Beijing, Tianjing and the surrounding areas of relatively independent in the development of urban agglomerations disjointed, self-closed, fragmented, loosely connected each other space, around the core city of urban economic radiation function.

At the end of 2013 the total population of more than 109 million people of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region. In 2012, a total population of 20.69 million people in Beijing, Tianjing in 2012, a total population of 14.13 million people [3]. From the point of population flows, both Beijing and Tianjing is the largest area of cross-regional population inflows. Close to the population of permanent residents in the migrant population in Beijing at the end of 2013, 8 million, an annual increase of resident population of more than 80; Tianjing since 2008 to keep the average annual increment of about 600000.

Beijing and Tianjing economic development, employment, income level is high, become the important factor of attracting migrants. In the outer ring of Beijing-Tianjing, Hebei province, because of the distance to Beijing and Tianjing, running cost is relatively low. Because the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei long-term in a region, the floating population were also more likely to get the psychological identity. According to the sixth census data in 2010, the 2010 census point to a population of 3.498 million people outside the province, Hebei province, including flow to Beijing's population of 1.559 million people, accounting for 44.6% of the population outflow. Flow to the Tianjing a population of 755000 people, accounting for 21.6% of the population outflow, flow to the Beijing and Tianjing population account for 66.2% of the outflow of population in Hebei province [4].

From 2001 to 2012, the population growth in the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region presents two characteristics: one is the population is growing rapidly, Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei population reached 107.7 million in 2012, compared with 2001 growth of 16.82 million people, an increase of 1.19%. Second, the imbalance of population growth. Beijing population reached 20.69 million in 2012, compared with 2001 growth of 6.84 million people, an increase of 1.49%. Between 2001 and 2012, Beijing's population growth is more than 0.4% of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei overall growth. Tianjing population reached 14.13 million in 2012, compared with 2001 growth of 2001 people, an increase of 1.41%. From 2001 to 2012 in Tianjing, population growth is more than 0.32% of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei overall growth [5]. Total population reached 72.88 million in 2012, Hebei province, compared with 2001 growth of 2001 people, an increase of 1.09%. From 2001 to 2012 in Hebei province population growth below the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei overall increase of 0.4%. See the table below.

The Beijing and Tianjing area in the middle of industrialization and urbanization fast development, the future will be quite a long period of time the population continued to flow region. Excessive resources and financial resources to Beijing city center, leading to Beijing "big city disease" is more and more serious, the capital has become the first wall. Tianjing, the second largest city in the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, due to urban growth too fast, cause disease of big cities is very serious, serious influence the exertion of urban functions.

The center city development lags behind

Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei regional urban system development imbalances, secondary center city development lags behind. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region in addition to the city center of Beijing population size more than 20 million, Tianjing downtown more than 14 million, other districts, urban population scale only in shijiazhuang and tangshan city has a population of more than 3 million. From 2000 to 2010, the average annual growth rates of shijiazhuang, tangshan resident population less than one over ten of Beijing. Lack of urban size, economic radiation ability is not strong.

2010 population between 1 million ~ 2 million is handan city in Hebei province, baoding, zhangjiakou. Handan city governs 4 area 1 in 14 counties, a total area of 12000 square kilometers, jurisdiction of baoding city 3 area 4 city 18 county, with a total area of 22100 square kilometers. Governs 4 zhangjiakou district 13 county with a total area of 36860 square kilometers. Handan city urban population reached 1.41 million in 2010, baoding urban population of 1.11 million people, the city's population reached 1.02 million zhangjiakou, three cities population account for 27.4% of the population of the city of Hebei province [6]. City characteristic economy and pillar industry development is not prominent, the industrial structure identical, division of labor cooperation and coordination of sharing pattern has not yet formed.

Population of 1 million in Hebei province in 2010 the following six in the center of the city, qinhuangdao comprises 3 area 4 counties, a total area of 7812 square kilometers, the urban population of 990000. Langfang area 2 cities of 8 counties with a total area of 6500 square kilometers, the urban population of 870000. Xingtai comprises 2 area 2 city 15 counties, a total area of 12486 square kilometers, the urban population of 740000. Cangzhou area 2 and 4 cities of 10 counties, a total area of 13419 square kilometers, the urban population of 620000. Chengde city comprises three district 8 counties with a total area of 39519 square kilometers, the urban population of 590000. The urban population is the least amount of hengshui city, hengshui city comprises 1 area 2, 8 counties, a total area of 8815 square kilometers, the urban population of 460000.

Time central cities in Hebei province population scale, comprehensive strength, urban function, innovation ability and the urban competitiveness, compared with the Beijing and Tianjing city exists great gap, as big as Yangtze river delta, the pearl river delta is also very obvious gap compared to the city.

Shortage of regional small and medium-sized city function

Is a medium-sized city function is not strong. Area county in Hebei province city function is insufficient, county economic development is relatively slow, not strong in the population. Medium-sized cities of regional economic development has a crucial role, which forms a connecting link between the preceding and medium-sized city in Hebei province city function is generally weak, attract population capacity is not strong, lost momentum of economic development, the essential function is weak, difficult to drive the area economic development. In Hebei province in 2012 to more than 140 counties (cities) reached more than 6000 population, 60% of the total population of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, and county GDP, total retail sales of social consumer accounts for only a third of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, the added value of the tertiary industry accounted for a quarter of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region [7].

Second, the small towns development of poor quality, a serious shortage of urban functions. Small towns in Hebei province showed the following characteristics: one is that most of the small town is too small, difficult to form scale; The second is the low level of urbanization of small towns in Hebei province, most of the urban infrastructure is not sound, the urbanization level is not high, the city function is not complete. Three small towns in Hebei province is strength is not strong, the various elements gathering force is weak, the economic development function is weak in [8].

The administrative division

Whose urban planning

The development of regional economy depends on the establishment of regional coordinated development mechanism and effective operation. For a long time, the administrative division of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region is very serious, fragmented urban planning, the function of market mechanism to adjust the economy cannot be fully effectively, the regional economic efficiency by a lot of harm. The administrative subject to being lack of cooperation and regional development of major strategic space in major industry layout, key resources development and major infrastructure construction, important aspects such as lack of overall consideration and coordination of regional ecological protection, [9] seriously weakened the regional economic development advantage.

The resources advantage of competition

Driven by the interests of the administrative subject in departments at various levels, regardless of the effect of external blind area, the development and construction main body from their respective interests, not considering the influence of the development of ecological environment and excessive use of resources, from the regional ecological space, greatly harm the interests of the regional overall development. Independent of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region logistics infrastructure, logistics facilities using competition, the organization of logistics lack of negotiation and cooperation. A lack of continuity between Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei regional transportation network, city is still a long commuting distance and time; Regional integrated transport network less foreign channels, main ability seriously insufficient; Regional integrated transport network in any mode of transport do not coordinate each other, do not match, cohesion, transportation time is long, transit times, ports, railways, highways set hydrophobic ability is insufficient. Repetition of port construction, serious waste of resources. [10]

Use less than factors of urban development

From the point of urbanization elements configuration, the Beijing and Tianjing are the two cities in Hebei province rural labor on major areas of employment, the Beijing and Tianjing two cities lack effective coordination mechanism in terms of labor mobility and network, the vast majority of rural labor flow in a state of disorder. The Beijing and Tianjing in the two cities city access to set up a high threshold for the reasonable configuration of low-end labor force, but also hinder the regional urbanization. The capital, Beijing has the most superior education resources in China, one of the most abundant human resources, the rich resources of science and technology, these resources should become the engine of the regional economic development, the spillover effect of the Beijing and Tianjing resources far not reached the level of its [11]. By the regional barrier of administrative power not only damage the overall regional interests and long-term interests, also detrimental to the healthy development of the Beijing and Tianjing urbanization.

The gap between rich and poor urban and rural residents is too large***The urban and rural residents income gap is too large***

Our country special long-term development model, the urban and rural dual structure in urban and rural income gap is widening. City occupies the absolute superiority in social resources possession, the countryside is in absolute inferiority in terms of social resources possession. This kind of dual economic structure in Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region is especially prominent. Within the province (municipality directly under the central government), urban per capita disposable income per capita net income of rural residents is 2.4 times the left and right sides. Comparison between provinces (municipalities directly under the central government), the Beijing urban residents per capita disposable income is 4.9 times per capita net income of rural residents in Hebei province.

Tich cities and poor rural co-exist

Long-term pattern of urban and rural development, and has formed the prosperity of the modern city and the surrounding backward and poor rural coexist, in the territory of 100 km border with Beijing and Tianjing Hebei a total of 32 counties and accounted for 44% of the total number of counties (districts) there. County area of 8.3 square kilometers, accounting for 63.3% of the total area in the region. A population of 10.63 million people, accounting for 29.2% of the total population in the region. Funding 3798 of them, the poor of 2.726 million [12]. Area of the living standards of the so big gap between urban and rural residents, and lack of necessary resources to support the urban development and the market space, directly restrict the coordinated development of regional economy as a whole and power to ascend.

The ecological environment is seriously deteriorated***The serious shortage of water resources***

Rapid population growth and industrialization, leading to a rapidly increasing consumption of water resources. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei regional water requirement of less than 6 billion cubic meters in the 6 billion s, the rapid increase to 24 billion cubic meters in 2008, the average annual growth of 300 million cubic meters. 30 billion cubic meters of water quantity in the 1950 s during the same period fell to 15.5 billion cubic meters at the beginning of the 21st century, almost cut in half. Water consumption is beyond the carrying capacity of the natural environment, self-purification ability and resilience, lead to the serious shortage of water resources of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region. Area of less than 300 cubic meters per year, per capita water resources is 1/7 of the national average; At the same time, due to excessive exploitation of groundwater, in recent 10 years on average groundwater depth decreased from 11.9 meters to 11.9 meters, the annual average fell 1.1 meters [13]. Countries have to make the south-north water diversion project construction, and is used to alleviate the pressure of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region water resources shortage.

Serious environmental pollution

Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei ecological environment quality in general is on the decline, with the center of the city environment pollution serious, air pollution, ecological destruction intensified the trend has not been effective control. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region is town populated areas, is also the most prominent regional haze problem worldwide. Area of the industrialization, urbanization and motorization associated with changes in the atmospheric environment in north China, formed the coal, motor vehicle, symbiotic industrial emissions of pollutants. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei regional air pollution along the taihang mountain area before extension, high pollution, energy intensive industries, the environmental quality of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region has caused great negative impact. PM2.5 monitoring data

released by the national 945 monitoring stations, air pollution standard frequency Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region the highest, the most concentrated area of pollution in handan, xingtai, etc. At the same time, the area is water pollution in our country, rural non-point source pollution and urban environmental pollution the most serious region [14]. Surface water pollution, especially through the city of organic pollution is more serious. Lake eutrophication problem is outstanding, by dot or planar pollution of groundwater, water level continues to decline, the continuous growth of the population and water pollution, intensified the contradiction between supply and demand of water resources.

BEIJING-TIANJING-HEBEI URBANIZATION COORDINATED DEVELOPMENT COUNTERMEASURE

Overall planning

The overall planning of regional urbanization

Is a set up relevant institutions, urbanization as a whole the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region. Situation of three provinces and cities each other space is not conducive to the coordinated development of regional urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, it is necessary to set up relevant institutions, coordinate the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization. On the basis of three provinces and related departments, set up a coordinating committee, according to the principle of complementary advantages, mutual sharing of urbanization as a whole the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region. Preparation of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization development plan, clear the city function orientation, industrial division layout, infrastructure construction, ecological environment management, integrated traffic system construction goal and task, find out specific measures to realize the coordinated development of region.

The coordinated development of regional urbanization policies

Regional urbanization must have relevant policy guidance. Shall, according to the regional development present situation and the economic development needs, starting from the concept of greater Beijing, in order to promote regional economic development as the goal, aiming at the coordinated development of urbanization, unified arrangement of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization process. Adjustment of urban spatial layout, optimize the urban structure, promoting collaboration, improve the level of urban agglomeration integration, improve the level of the comprehensive carrying capacity of cities and the connotation development.

Speed up the construction of urban development in coastal region, Tianjing binhai new area development and opening policy to the coastal port caofeidian, huanghua in Hebei, vigorously develop the coastal port cities, to develop the port economy, lead to the coastal areas of the Beijing and Tianjing population transfer, ease the pressure of population to gather in Beijing area.

As a whole process of regional integration

3.1.3.1 Is the overall regional industry layout. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region of the three provinces and cities in all aspects of social and economic, has a strong complementarity. For a long time, due to the influence of various factors, the lack of unified regional planning and Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region industry layout, lead to social and economic aspects of coordination is poorer, restricted the rapid development of the region's economy. As a whole the area industry layout, which is beneficial to promote the development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization, is helpful to promote the healthy development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region economy.

3.1.3.2 It is to accelerate the market integration process. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region economy development, need Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei area market integration support. Take powerful measures to break institutional barriers that affect the regional market integration, promote the production elements such as capital, technology and talent to the free flow and optimized, the development of various elements in free flow and optimized allocation in a region.

3.1.3.3 It is to build regional transportation network. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region should be based on urban agglomeration development of urbanization, urban agglomeration coordinated development to have smooth and convenient traffic network support. To build the regional modern traffic network system as a breakthrough point, to speed up building a quick, convenient and efficient comprehensive transport network connectivity, provide transportation network support for the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization.

To speed up the integration process of public service, provide public services support for the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei urban agglomeration.

To strengthen cooperation

Strengthen environmental cooperation

3.2.1.1 Is to strengthen water resources protection. As the coordinated development of urbanization in the periphery of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, in Hebei province is an important ecological barrier of the Beijing and Tianjing and water source. In recent years, the press, certain achievements have been made in the aspects of sustainable utilization of water resources, but the regional water resources issues has not been well solved. Of Zhangjiakou chengde two cities of Beijing-Tianjing upstream of the ecological environment and water environment problems, directly affect the Beijing-Tianjing water security. Will strengthen the protection of water source of Beijing and Tianjing, Zhangjiakou and Chengde areas built national clean energy base, ecological tourism economic zone, the Beijing-Tianjing ecological garden and leisure tourism base.

3.2.1.2 The second is to strengthen environmental pollution control. After years of governance, environment pollution is very serious, not only influence to the construction and development of these two cities, but also affect the environment of Beijing and Tianjing two city image, capital of security and affect the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei regional overall development. To strengthen the cooperation of pollution control of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, give full play to the Beijing and Tianjing technology and talent advantages, promote environmental pollution control of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, is conducive to improve the level of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei environmental governance. Increase the intensity of ring ecological environment construction of the Beijing and Tianjing, for the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban coordinated development to provide a good ecological environment.

3.2.1.3 Is to strengthen environmental protection coordination. Ecological environment protection is a long-term and arduous task, hard to finish just by one or two areas. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region ecological environment protection task is very heavy, strengthen ecological environmental protection coordination, joint efforts, the three provinces and cities to complete ecological environmental protection tasks. Strengthening the cooperation of the ecological environment protection, in has been started, on the basis of cooperation mechanism for the control of air pollution, building perfect protection, water conservation, water environmental governance, the use of clean energy cooperation mechanism. As the

coordinated development of urbanization in the periphery of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, in Hebei province is an important source of supply of Beijing and Tianjing water resources and ecological barrier, is Beijing and Tianjing security barrier. [15] the ecological environment in Hebei province has very important influence on the development of Beijing and Tianjing, to strengthen the construction of ecological environment in Hebei province and the construction of the ecological and environmental protection, led to the development of Tianjing a good ecological environment.

3.2.1.4 Is to focus on expanding environmental capacity and ecological space, the Beijing-Tianjing population has reached saturation, land resources, water resources and the energy demand considerably more than Beijing and Tianjing environmental capacity and capacity. Administrative division and geographical restrictions, has affected the population to the Beijing and Tianjing Hebei evacuation, lead to the population of Beijing and Tianjing mounting pressure, ecological space is very nervous, the ecological environment worsening. Establish regional resource sharing mechanism, the rational allocation of resources, expanding environmental capacity and ecological space, eliminate the influence of regional resource sharing all kinds of barriers, promote the healthy development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region.

Strengthen scientific and technological cooperation

Only the scientific and technological achievements into productivity, to promote economic development, and to promote the benign development of the scientific research. Due to regional separation and division space, lack of experimental base and achievements transformation base, resulting in a large number of scientific and technological achievements is difficult to translate into actual productivity, impact on the development of economy and the benign development of scientific research.

Beijing and Tianjing has strong scientific research strength and a large number of scientific research achievements, but the lack of high and new technology pilot and achievements transformation base. In Hebei province has a large number of high-tech park and achievements transformation base, and a large number of high quality, low cost of human resources, to Beijing and Tianjing high and new technology to provide experimental base, as Beijing and Tianjing and the transformation of the transformation of high-tech achievements provide talents, promote the Beijing and Tianjing high-tech achievements into realistic productivity as soon as possible. Beijing-shijiazhuang corridor zone of collaborative development project, make full use of high-tech achievements of Beijing and Tianjing, help the upgrading of industrial structure of Hebei region, the maximum compression polluting, energy intensive industries.

Advice led by central, Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei departments of science and technology cooperation coordination group, is responsible for the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban coordinated development of science and technology cooperation. For the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban transformation of scientific and technological cooperation and scientific and technological achievements of policies and measures to encourage the Beijing and Tianjing in Hebei province high-tech achievements and new technology, make full use of high and new technology industrial park of Hebei province and science and technology achievements transformation base, transformation of scientific and technological achievements into economic benefits. Strengthen the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban science and technology cooperation, speed up the transformation of scientific and technological achievements, both scientific research

departments can bring economic benefits, promote the healthy development of the scientific research work, can also through scientific research achievements transformation and the promotion and application of new and high technology, promote the coordinated development of urbanization of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region.

Strengthen the economic development and cooperation

Strengthening economic cooperation is the key to promote the healthy development of regional urbanization. Economy is the foundation for the development of the city, the city is the result of economic development. Regional economic development level decide the region urbanization development level, regional level of urbanization plays an important role on the regional economic development. Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei economic zone as an important economic region in northern China, the development of its economy to the north economic development plays an important role. Due to the effect of administrative division, fragmented regional economic construction, lead to repetitive construction and disorderly competition. To strengthen the coordination of regional economic development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, promote the human resources, material resources and information resources utility maximization, is helpful to promote the healthy development of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region urbanization.

Strengthening the cooperation key projects

The coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban have a large number of key construction projects, Beijing has a number of national projects, Hebei, Tianjing Binhai new area construction projects has the Caofeidian port and industrial park construction projects, all need a lot of money and high quality talents. Establish key project cooperation mechanisms, make full use of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei capital and talent advantages, provide funds for the construction of key projects, technology and personnel support, promote the construction of key projects. To strengthen the construction of key projects of cooperation and is conducive to give full play to the overall advantages of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, is advantageous to the construction of key projects of high standard, high quality, promote the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urbanization.

The coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban agglomeration, we must stick to the overall planning, adhere to reform and innovation. Adhere to the principle of regional advantages complementary and win-win cooperation. According to the construction of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei urban agglomeration as the carrier, in order to optimize the ecological environment as the goal, overall regional division of labor and industry layout, adjust the economic structure and spatial structure, the construction of regional transportation network system, construct the system of the coordinated development of Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei long-acting mechanism. Promote regional industrial upgrading, to speed up the integration process of public service, build the target direction and measures of the Beijing-Tianjing-Hebei region, complementary advantages, mutual benefit and win-win results of new pattern of coordinated development.

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An Empirical Evaluation of Technical, Vocational, Education and Training (Tvet) Processes In Kenya

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Abstract

This paper examines key stakeholders evaluations of the Technical, Vocational, Education and Training (TVET) processes in Kenya. The paper responds to on-going debate in the business community, media and training practitioners to the perceived mismatch of the skills required in the industry and those produced by the TVET program. Data for this paper were collected from government documents, previous research papers, and business reports and editorials. In addition, primary data were collected by using semi-structured questionnaires, focus group discussions and observations. Respondents included education officers, business employers and employee and trainers and trainees of four TVET institutions. **Findings:** Most stakeholders were happy with TVET objectives and its contribution in furnishing the industry with requisite skills. However, they enumerated various challenges that make it difficult for TVET to respond adequately to the industry's skill needs. Discussion was guided by the Kirkpatrick's evaluation model that has four levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and results. **Recommendations:** Addressing the mismatch of skills in TVET institutions: through a current skills' inventory, tracer studies of TVET graduates, regular program evaluation, creating linkages with the industry, enhancing industrial attachments and a flexible TVET curriculum. **Quality of training:** Accredited Business owners as trainers, introduce short trainer competency courses and TVET institutions equally. **Recognition of prior learning:** recognise prior learning methods, create validation mechanisms, integrate of formal and informal trainings and addressing numerous certificates and training levels. **Funding TVET:** Offer training loans to TVET students, introduce a training levy to businesses Getting value for money. Analyse all training inputs and judge whether the training is worthwhile. Enhancing the status of TVET. Enhance workplace competencies for survival in self-employment and communicate the benefits and successes of TVET training.

Key words: human resource development; technical vocational education and training; evaluation, Kirkpatrick, Kenya

INTRODUCTION

Education and training are two intertwined mechanisms through which economies nurture their labour forces with the view to producing necessary technical and generic skills required nationally, regionally and even globally. Authors Wargonhurst (2002) and Wallenborn (2009) have observed that skills acquisition (such as basic literacy, technical and interpersonal skills) is the ultimate aim of any training system. Further in Kenya, skills development is recognized as important for economic development, poverty mitigation, and social inclusion. It contributes to equity and access to training, and social responsibility by stimulating competitiveness and entrepreneurship to realise life-long learning concepts (Masson & Fretwell, 2009). Translating skills development into skills utilization, and therefore economic growth and poverty reduction, is dependent on such factors as quality of education, supportive environment, facilitative infrastructure and a conducive work environment (Tikly, 2010).

A major aim of training is to improve and maintain workers' productivity. This requires continuous updating of competencies to enable the workers adapt and take advantage of emerging opportunities and global trends (Ngure, 2003). In addition, there is need to ensure that the skills developed are actually utilized at the workplace (Buchanan, 2006). Employers do not see the need to raise salaries for employees who have trained in skills that do not raise productivity (Cooney, 2002). However, it is vital to acknowledge sociopolitical dynamics of different regions as they affect employee participation. Employability depends not only on skills quality, but also on the economic and social dynamism, as well as the environment in which they can be supplied and applied to the workplace (Kingombe, 2008). Formation of skills is an aspect of the development of democracy. Hence, it requires an examination of the interrelationship between the social capacity for learning and innovation within the state, regional and global levels (Tikly, 2003).

Technical, vocational education and training (TVET) can be broadly interpreted as the development of ways of learning and the acquisition of attitudes that facilitate success at the workplace (Munro, 2007). TVET plays an important role in supplying skills requisite for improved workers' productivity, improving economic competitiveness, enhancing occupational integration, raising income levels and expanding opportunities for employment (Bennett, 2000; Budría and Telhado-Pereira, 2009). In addition, formal education and work experience in formal business sectors enable employers and business owners to improve methods of production, enhance product quality, convey product standards information to the users, identify markets, and manage human and other resources, all of which offer graduates a competitive edge (Sonobe, Akoten, & Otsuka, 2011).

Some countries, including Kenya, attach great importance to TVET. Hence, an evaluation of the training and development process by stakeholders, who are the major consumers, is vital. There are three basic reasons for evaluating a training program: to find out how to improve the program, to determine the viability of the program and to justify the existence of the training program to providers (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005). A sound evaluation system enquires into the feasibility of the training system and assesses the overall impact. Fretwell (2003) observes that the results of an evaluation are vital in informing public decision-making and stimulating debate, improving employer decisions about the training, informing clients about training options and quality, and improving the quality of training systems. He further adds that evaluation aids in avoiding the possibility of wasting valuable resources by selecting optimum options, continuing with plans that are likely to produce intended results and detecting factors that may negatively impact on the training strategy.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH

The Kenyan government and multiple stakeholders and leaders have consistently pointed out that the skills that are being produced by the TVET institutions do not address the demands of the industry and are unable to respond to changing global challenges. This is embodied in the Kenya Educational Support Sector Programme (KESSP) (GoK, 2005) and the Kenya Vision 2030. The latter was deemed the vehicle that would fast track the transformation of the country into an industrialized middle-income economy by the target year of 2030 (GoK, 2007). The weaknesses of TVET identified in these documents and the need to voice the opinion of the stakeholders are the focus of this research paper. By scientifically evaluating the TVET programme through the eyes of major stakeholders, this study can form ways to develop a more demand-driven curriculum. Indeed, various documents such as KESSP highlighted the "low participation of private sector in curriculum design and implementation" (GoK, 2005 p. 24) as one of the constraints in need of attention; this study is part of addressing this important call.

While researchers and scholars have made great effort in advancing the understanding of training in MSE through empirical evidence, there is still more to be known about the acquisition of skills. This is apparent in government documents such as the KESSP (GoK, 2005) and Kenya Vision 2030 (GoK, 2007), which expose skill shortages across industry. For the purpose of a comprehensive study, the research is limited to the motor vehicle repair and industry (automotive industry), which is a skill-based industry that includes mechanics, tuners, welders, electricians and tailors.

EVALUATION

Evaluation is the means by which a training program's outcomes are compared to set objectives with the aim of finding out the extent to which the training process has achieved its purpose (Armstrong, 2009). A particular training is tailored to suit the needs of a specific time (Staley, 2008). Evaluation examines the level at which the training program meets the set targets through activities such as organisational performance changes, training content and design evaluation, and changes in learners (Alvarez, Garofano & Salas, 2004).

The effectiveness of the training program should be a major concern for training providers and policy makers as it acts as a guide when considering the relevance and suitability of an activity. The accurate definition of goals and objectives of the training program determine the evaluation procedures and constructs that form the basis of a comprehensive assessment. This varies depending on different target groups' emphasis, and between different countries. For instance, a major TVET goal of different governments is to empower young people to adapt to a dynamic environment through life-long training; for the workers, however, the emphasis could be wage increases; to the employer, improved productivity; to the trainee, employment and wages; while from a policy-maker's view it may be to decrease societal expenses (Fretwell, 2003). Interest in evaluation of training programs has led different researchers to develop models of training evaluations, four of which are discussed in the section below this.

MODELS OF TRAINING EVALUATIONS

First, in 1959, Kirkpatrick published a four-dimensional evaluation method that tests reactions, learning, behaviour and results—a simple measurement method for comprehending training evaluation, and the most quoted procedure (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005). In this model,

...learning is measured during training and refers to attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioral learning. Behavior refers to “on-the-job” performance and, thus, is measured after training. Additionally, reactions to training are related to learning, learning is related to behavior, and behavior is related to results. (Alvarez et al., 2004, p. 388)

The Kirkpatrick model has stood the test of time and is widely used to evaluate training and development programs in different fields. For example, van Eerde et al. (2008) used the four levels to measure the effect of training programs to organisational effectiveness, while Piyali et al. (2011) used only the reaction level. The four dimensions measure different aspects of the training program because they progress from the stage of simply getting a reaction to the training to the more complex processes of measuring results.

The second model was developed by Tannenbaum, Mathieu and Martineau, (1993) who added post-training attributes to Kirkpatrick's model and separated evaluation outcomes into transfer and training performances. This model was tested by Alvarez et al. (2004) when construct-

ing “An integrated model of training evaluation and effectiveness”. The authors used evaluation measures such as training and transfer performance, and cognitive learning; and effectiveness variables such as pre-training experience and self-efficacy, and post training interventions, such as mastery orientation and learning principles.

In the third model, Holton (1996) incorporated three evaluation objects: transfer, learning and results. He did not consider reactions as a main outcome of training; he regarded them as an intervening or regulating outcome between trainees' learning drive and the actual learning. Thus, learning is linked to transfer, which in turn is associated with the outcomes.

Finally, in the fourth model, Kraiger (2002) provided a model that emphasises three objectives for an evaluation program: learning material and design (i.e. delivery, strategy, and rationality of training), learners' behavioural modifications (i.e. emotional, intellectual, and developmental) and structural benefits (i.e. transferability, work performance, and outcomes). This fourth model advances the measurement of the learners' behaviour changes as a result of the training. These measurements can be quite challenging given how difficult it is to tell if the learners' emotion or intellect have changed as a result of training.

A different perspective in training evaluation was advanced by Kearns and Miller (1997) who advocated for a 'return on investment' (ROI). They opine that ROI is a means of assessing the overall impact of training in organisational performance, further arguing that particular measures should be used to evaluate specific training, for example customer satisfaction or return on sales, which should improve by some percentage (Alvarez et al., 2004). Armstrong (2009) adds that besides concentrating on the traditional levels of evaluation there is need to “concentrate more on the validation of the total learning process and on the outcomes of learning, which means focusing on the return on expectation” (p. 696). This could be achieved through attributes such as increased customer satisfaction, volume of sales and increased production.

The models of evaluation discussed above assist in conceptualising how, where and why evaluation measures can be used. The Kirkpatrick model that was first published in 1959 and composed of four levels reactions, learning, behaviour and results is simple and most comprehensive for use in a training, because the other models components can be integrated into its four levels. For instance: post-training attitudes proposed by Tannenbaum (1993) and transfer of learning proposed by Holton (1996) can be integrated in the behaviour phase; learning material and design, learners' behavioural modifications and structural benefits learning materials proposed by Kraiger and Kearns (1997).

RESEARCH FOCUS

The KESSP document highlights the low participation of the private sector and other stakeholders in training needs analysis, curriculum design and implementation (GoK, 2005). In response to this assertion and the concerns expressed in the Kenya Vision 2030, this study involved key stakeholders in the industry, training institutions as well as technocrats in the relevant Ministry in examining the training processes. The TVET training process has been identified as a problem by key stakeholders in the industry (Kenya Private Sector Alliance [KEPSA], 2010), and by the government in its review of TVET (GoK, 2008), necessitating research on key components of a training system, to discern issues that may hinder effectiveness in that particular sector.

Despite this important role that TVET plays in addressing labour challenges, major policy documents lack an explicit approach by which this role can be achieved (Nyerere, 2009). This failure to fully embrace the role of skill training is particularly baffling given that most African governments and development partners are consistent in emphasising the need for intensive structures that shape the human capital of the marginalised (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2008). Bennell (2000) observed that since the late 1980s, most African governments have accorded limited significance to donor financing systems and dialogue, leading to limited inclusion of TVET in mainstream education systems. However, funding has to go hand in hand with other strategies such as building trainers capacity as there is a challenge of ensuring that once resources are available in training institutions, they are used effectively to promote skills acquisition (Tinkly, 2010).

Furthermore, translating skills development into skills utilisation, and therefore economic growth and poverty reduction, is dependent on various factors like quality of education, supportive environment, facilitative infrastructure and a conducive work environment (Tikly, 2010). This study therefore, looks at the TVET processes from the stakeholders' perspective by addressing the following question:

How do key stakeholders in TVET evaluate its responsiveness to emerging global trends?

METHODOLOGY

To examine the research question, the researcher sought the views on training processes from a sample of major stakeholders: 19 business employers and 57 of their workers, four training institutional managers, four trainers, 32 trainees and four government officers responsible for curriculum design, implementation and supervision.

This study employed the use of semi-structured interviews that were carried out with the education officers, employers, employees and trainers. Although semi-structured interviews rely on pre-formulated questions for guidance, they allow respondents to talk about those things that are of interest and importance to them (Baker & Foy, 2008). Four focus group discussions (F2) of eight students each were used to gather data from final year learners of each training institution under study. F2s allow shared opinions of a particular defined subject that is of interest to a group of individuals who have had certain shared experiences (Myers, 2009). They attempt to answer the "how" and "why" questions that produce rich, multifaceted, nuanced and even challenging interpretations of how people attribute meaning to and construe their understandings (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2011).

Observation was used in the institutions and businesses under study to discern the day-to-day processes and activities. In the businesses observations were made on working conditions, relationships among employee, employer and customers, equipment in use and occupational health and safety issues; and in the training institutions, equipment, other facilities, relationships and documents mounted on walls. Baker and Foy (2008) noted that observations "...avoid the possibility of distortion that may arise when people are asked to report their own behaviour" (p. 147). In addition, the researcher gathered data from government documents, and archival records in line with the six types of information recommended by Yin (2004): archival records, direct observations, documentation, interviews, and physical artefacts that bring a contextual understanding by relying on multiple sources. Content analysis, a systematic method of qualitative data analysis that seeks structures and consistencies (Myers, 2009), was used to deal with the enormous amount of data. This involved coding data using thematic areas

and then further segregating them to smaller groups. To easily identify the participants in analysing and reporting the findings for this study, the following codes were used.

Study respondents

study respondents	Number	code
Education Officers	4	ED1-ED4
Trainers	8	TR1-TR8
Trainees	4 focus group discussions	F1-F4
Employers	19	ES1-ES19
Employers	57	S1-S57

DISCUSSION

The following section discusses the findings of this paper and they are classified according to Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation.

Reactions: At this level of evaluation, trainees react to the program through completing a post-course evaluation of their opinions of the training. The reactions level therefore measures the participants' interest, motivation, and attention levels (Smidt, Balandin, Sigafos, & Reed, 2009). This level is important for the future of the program because the motivation to learn, and changes in behaviour, are greatly influenced by the participants' positive reactions (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005).

Employees who had been trained in the formal TVET institutions in Kenya expressed varied levels of satisfaction with the program. Although they faced challenges with the level of practical skills imparted, they valued their theoretical knowledge as it enabled them to diagnose car problems—an exercise their counterparts with informal training found challenging. Education officers and the MSE employers felt that the program was essential to the workplace and that with some improvements it would be satisfactory. Trainees evaluated the program as satisfactory, but they suggested numerous ideas on how to make it better.

The reasons for the mixed reactions of the stakeholders are based on their experiences, both at the workplace and in the training institutions. Most of the negative reactions were concerned with the quality of training, which was influenced by the insufficient equipment, the competency of the trainers and the content of the curriculum. Further, the poor perception of TVET as a last choice for those who are academically challenged, coupled with the knowledge that they did not receive adequate practical know-how in their institutions, led the graduates to suffer from low self-esteem when they entered the workplace.

Learning: Evaluation at the learning level is measured during training (using written or practical assessments and role-playing) and refers to attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioural learning; it aims at understanding the learners' grasp of instruction, ideologies, knowledge, ideas and skills (Kay, et al., 2004). It seeks to obtain information on the extent to which learning objectives have been attained, knowledge acquired, skills developed or improved, and attitude changed to desired levels (Armstrong, 2009; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005; Smidt, et al., 2009).

Literature gathered showed that there were numerous examination providers that measure learning levels, such as the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC), the Kenya Accountants and Secretaries Examination Board (KASEB), City and Guild, The Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT) and many other foreign bodies. Despite these numerous examination bodies, there lacks an examination national qualifications framework that would standardise the certificates, thus making the learning level difficult to measure in Kenya.

Employers commended TVET for producing graduates with special interpersonal attributes of communication skills, innovation, professionalism, teamwork, respect to others and work safety consciousness. Graduates, however, faced challenges in practical and technological skills practice when they entered the workplace. This was because the appropriate equipment was missing at the MSE, while at the large garages the graduates were confronted with technology that was too advanced for them to operate.

Employees cited another problem whereby some of them were conducting tasks that they were not trained in. In these instances, their pay was reduced because they were considered untrained. This problem was also confirmed by Groot and van den Brink (2000) who noted that a significant proportion of the workforce in western economies works in jobs that are not commensurate with the skills acquired in training. This results in employees receiving less pay, being less productive and having reported lower levels of job satisfaction compared to those who are utilising skills in which they were trained (McGuinness, 2006).

Data gathered for this study identified four factors that influence TVET learning, and which are discussed below.

Inappropriate materials and equipment: Training institutions used aluminium and plastic for their training, while a large number of firms were still using traditional materials such as steel and timber for training and production of goods. The TVET graduates' unfamiliarity with the materials found in the industry was confusing because they had to re-learn their skills in order to be proficient with the new materials. Furthermore, the MSE industry in Kenya lacks most of the equipment needed to comprehensively carry out tasks in its jurisdiction.

Employment: The proportion of all graduates of youth polytechnics and vocational centres who either work in the MSE industry or opt for self-employment in similar situations is 80 per cent (UNDP, 2010). The government has recognised the vital contribution of the MSE sector to the employment of TVET graduates in its economic survey which observed that the ease of entry into the MSE sector had made it a fall-back option for those who left the training institutions because they waited to join the larger industries, and for those leaving their regular jobs through attrition (GoK, 2010). The survey therefore suggested various ways of equipping the MSE, for example with the provision of low interest loans or establishing a tool library.

Curriculum: The TVET curriculum emphasises science, technological knowledge and measuring proficiency rather than practical knowledge. While this kind of program is good for progression to the next level of training, it does not support immediate employment. This could explain why graduates need extra training to transfer the skills to the workplace. In addition the curriculum tends to confine itself to the Kenyan industrial needs, while global integration is not emphasised despite the opportunity of exporting middle level skills to other countries.

Accreditation: The poor collaboration and linkages in TVET hinder the mobility of trainees wanting to transfer their credit from one institution to another and, furthermore, most institutions are not in touch with the industry that absorbs their graduates for employment. In this area there needs to be an appropriate scale of equivalence by which the knowledge and skills acquired can be externally vetted. Without this equivalence, the competence of the graduate is difficult to evaluate in terms of their level achieved (Wachira, et al., 2009). In addition, the lack of standardised training and independent testing make it difficult to control the quality of training, meaning that the consumer of the services has no guarantee as to what they are purchasing.

Ongoing quality monitoring and assessment present an opportunity to correct any flaws observed during the process of training instead of waiting until a comprehensive evaluation is done, which may be too late for the correction to have any real impact. In 2008, the Kenya government admitted that inadequate quality assurance mechanisms in TVET contributed a great deal to the poor curriculum delivery and the production of graduates who are insufficiently equipped for the labour market (GoK, 2008a). To correct this situation, the government published the National TVET Strategy (GoK, 2008a), which identified four impact indicators of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability that would be measured during monitoring and evaluation.

Behaviour: Evaluation at this level measures the ability of the trainees to use their newly acquired knowledge or competencies at the workplace (Smidt, et al., 2009). Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2005) observed that most organisations bypassed reactions and learning levels to measure behaviour. They noted that this was a serious mistake because failure to transfer skills and knowledge may be due to other exogenous factors of the training, which can be traced by measuring reactions and learning. Changes in behaviour require an environment that involves four conditions: knowledge and skills, the right climate, adequate rewards and the desire to change (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005) which are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Knowledge and skills: The acquisition of skills and knowledge in the institutions is important, but they must be applicable to the workplace. Employers indicated they invested a further 6–12 months of training for those they recruited from TVET institutions because their skill levels were too low. This is a wasteful practice in terms of time, finances and personal growth. Furthermore these graduates cannot be expected to actively compete in the international markets.

Right climate: Employees complained that although they had been taught important skills and competencies in the training institutions, the MSE were not adequately equipped to offer them an opportunity to apply their skills, while safety instructions were largely ignored. Most Kenyan workers do not have the essential awareness, technical know-how and resources to implement health and safety processes, making them vulnerable to environmental hazards, occupational accidents and diseases (Theuri, 2012). The circumstance of inadequate equipment at the workplace resonates well with findings made by Kaskustas et al. (2010) in the United States, where apprentices reported that the institutional-based training they had received was safety-focused, but that the methods taught did not correspond to methods actually employed on their worksites. In cases like these the employees had to unlearn what they had learned and re-learn other short cuts to employ at work, leading to frustration and confusion. This was exacerbated by the employers and other employees who may never have learnt the correct procedures for particular tasks, since they may never have received formal

training, or were lacking the capacity to follow guidelines, thereby creating environments that did not provide opportunities for the learned competences.

Adequate rewards: The formally trained TVET employees complained of very poor pay, whereby their employers did not recognise their level of education. Employers did not feel that the graduates deserved more pay than the informally trained graduates. The lack of recognition of their certificates through salary awards was a demotivating factor for effective work. In addition, some of them had secured student loans from financial organisations to pay for their training. Although employees value adequate compensation, there are other constructs that consolidate their job satisfaction. Szamosi (2006) described these as “tangible and intangible benefits, empowerment and respect, workplace involvement, concern for employee welfare, supportive management, and the workplace environment” (p. 662). These factors create an enabling environment for skills transfer because, as Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2005) observed, there is a very minimal chance that training will transfer to job behaviour if the climate is discouraging.

Desire to change: The motivation and drive to change behaviour plays a big role in the success of transferring skills gained at the training institutions to the workplace. The desire to change is enhanced by the creation of a positive attitude through acquisition of the necessary skills and knowledge from the institution (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005). Individuals who possess skills that are transferable to the labour market, tend to have higher motivation levels, and are more productive in their work, fostering social wellbeing and intellectual growth (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2003).

Informal and workplace training is conducted largely for the firm-specific skills since the manager does not see the need to train for transferable skills that may lead to the loss of an employee who has been trained and large sums of money invested in the training (Walker & Redmond, 2008). In addition, employees who attain more training will usually demand pay rises, which the employers are keen to avoid (Cooney, 2002). Further, in spite of the gains that would add to their individual, professional and business growth, small business owner managers seldom participate in formal administration competencies development because of the time and monetary costs involved (Bowen, et al., 2009). However, the resistance to training is dependent on the level of education attainment of employers—those with higher education qualifications are more likely to accept skill upgrading (Bishop, 2008), probably because they have experienced its benefits.

The Kenya government lacks the capability or willingness to follow the graduates' work pathways to find out how well they are coping in the job market. This is partly due to inadequate evaluation mechanisms and partly due to insufficient staff. In 2008, government officers numbered only 365 instead of the required 861, with the technical department having a deficit of 308 (GoK, 2008b). The inability of the training institutions to track the employment destinations of their graduates denies them valuable feedback from past trainees on the quality of the training they have received and the opportunity for their experience-based inputs to be factored into the review of curricula (African Union [AU], 2007). UNESCO adds that in most developing economies, there lacks a systematic evaluation, graduate tracer systems, and effective two-way linkages between the industry and TVET (UNESCO, 2009). Comprehensive behavioural evaluations are not implemented in a systematic manner by either the public or private sector in many developed or developing countries (Fretwell, 2003).

Fretwell therefore recommends an evaluation involving both the inputs (policy and programs) and the outputs (economic and social factors). He illustrated thus:

If the clientele of a training program is highly disadvantaged or residing in an area of high unemployment, the impact of training will be less than if conditions were otherwise. Hence, poor employment of graduates may not necessarily mean that a training program was of poor quality. On the other hand, there may be problems with the quality and quantity of inputs, thus the reason and need for evaluation of both inputs and out-puts. (Fretwell, 2003, p. 180)

The Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology (MoHEST) Strategic Plan 2008–2012 (2008b) recommended that sound monitoring and assessment were required to make decisions aimed at improving performance, determining whether the program is likely to achieve the intended objectives, assess the use and delivery of the resources in accordance with the implementation plan and monitor the achievement of the intended outputs in a timely manner. From the data gathered from the stakeholders, in particular the employers, there were various suggestions for improving the transfer climate from the training institutions to the work-place. Two of those that stood out were more meaningful work experiences for TVET trainees and improved entrepreneurship education. This is consistent with Halpern and Hakel's (2003) advice that training institutions need to go beyond just training and skills acquisition to teaching students in such a way that they will be prepared for unpredictable future workplace challenges outside the classroom.

In TVET training, the level of technology in the institutions in comparison to that found in the industry has a big effect on the transfer of skills. Kitainge (2003) found that Australian TVET graduates were more prepared for the workplace than their Kenyan counterparts due to the high level of sophisticated equipment found at the Australian training institutions compared to the Kenyan training facilities. Subsequently, the Kenyan graduates required more workplace training compared to those trained in Australian facilities. It is for this reason that Munro (2007) observed:

... that individuals need a range of competencies that allow them to deal with and manipulate growing amounts of increasingly diverse information, use their knowledge selectively and strategically, cope with increasingly rapid change, take greater responsibility for their own learning and direction and think more laterally at the workplace (p.77).

RESULTS

Evaluation at the results level measures the overall financial expenditure impact, production increase, reduced turnover and morale impacts (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2005; Smidt, et al., 2009). In a formal training structure, results criteria in education include a wide variety of results, such as graduates' employment and increased workplace productivity, service to marginalised groups, social inclusion, improving literacy, personal and family economic stability, and responsible social conscience (Praslova, 2010). This level therefore assesses the benefits of training to an organisation against its costs, with the objective being to determine the added value of learning and development. Data gathered from the automotive industry stakeholders gave mixed results in relation to their views or opinions of TVET graduates. On the one hand it was thought that the graduates bring professionalism that enhances production, customer satisfaction and a positive outlook to the MSE sector; on the other hand stakeholders felt that, due to obsolete facilities in training institutions, the graduates need a longer induction, which is wasteful and time consuming. Stakeholders felt that the country does not get value for the

money used in the training program because the curriculum, trainers and the institutions fail to address emerging sector issues.

A key feature that a sound TVET evaluation would achieve is the linkage between the training and the industry. Many employers lamented that the government has not recognised their training contribution despite their role in the provision of services to the country. A major observation during the research was the informal type of operation in the businesses visited. Many of them did not have adequate documentation of their operations, marketing or finances. Human resources inputs such as job descriptions, job contracts, performance appraisals and trade union representation were also missing in the businesses.

Possible reasons for the kind of results observed in the automotive industry are suggested from this study. Results in this sector are difficult to quantify because they are largely influenced by other variables, such as workplace conditions, the country's economic conditions, societal factors, owner-manager's managerial attributes and rapidly changing global trends. Arthur, et al. (2003) observe that results are realised through increased productivity, better customer satisfaction, improved employee morale and an increase in profits—aspects that are very difficult to measure or attribute to a single factor like training. Furthermore, organisational, economic and social limitations highly influence not only data gathering, but outcomes as well (Praslova, 2010).

Since the development of entrepreneurship in MSE contributes significantly to job creation, social stability, and economic welfare (Ladzani & Vuuren, 2002), there is an urgent need for a policy change that would create an enabling environment that supports Kenyan businesses to improve their profitability and competitiveness, and facilitates their advance into more modern enterprises that can actively compete in the global arena (GoK, 2010). This is especially critical in Africa where employment is scarce because of structural adjustment programs, insufficient educational opportunities, and the impact of globalisation on labour (Mndebele & Mkhweli, 2007).

RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the findings of this study and the analysis thereof, this study recommends the following:

Addressing the mismatch of skills in TVET institutions. To address the issues of skills' mismatch, a current skills' inventory is vital because information is required on the courses that TVET should train, the existing job openings, and the emerging skills demanded by the industry. In addition there is need to enhance tracer studies of TVET graduates, which would give valuable feedback to gauge the efficacy of the program. The tracer studies would gather data on the percentage of graduates who gain employment, how well the skills acquired are utilised at the workplace and areas of improvement. Further, program evaluation will point out areas that have been successful, those that require revision, and priority areas of future programs.

Creating linkages with the industry will enable the training institutions to open up more industrial attachments for the learners and encourage the industry to provide instructional equipment and materials. Furthermore, communicating to the employers the advantages of taking up trainees for industrial attachments will help bridge the perception of learners as an added burden.

Making the TVET curriculum flexible. Most stakeholders who took part in this study were concerned about the inflexible curriculum offered by TVET. Online, holiday and evening courses would cater for mature learners and those already at the workplace who need to improve their skills and make them aware of emerging trends.

Quality of training: Business owners interested in offering training should be accredited as providers of training. In addition, more quality private training providers should be encouraged to offer TVET, thereby streamlining the private sector by weeding out institutions that offer poor services. The efficiency of trainers could be enhanced by introducing short training-competency courses that would allow industry trainers to acquire a certificate in pedagogy.

Most TVET institutions are concentrated in major towns and high economic-potential areas of the country. More equitable distribution of institutions to all regions of the country would make them accessible to all segments of society including people with disabilities, the poor and women.

Recognition of prior learning: The formal TVET systems ought to develop ways of recognising prior learning, whether this was acquired formally or informally, through the creation of validation mechanisms. Weaknesses in informal training such as the level of theoretical base and poor technology are best addressed through the integration of formal and informal trainings to address the shortages and inadequacies in skills and to increase the levels of skill certification.

Further, the government needs to address the issue of numerous certificates and training levels that are found in the market and which confuse employers. A national qualification framework or body would be particularly useful in gauging different levels against an agreed standard. In addition, as Bishop (2008) advises, information concerning national qualifications frameworks need to be disseminated in a high quality and well-publicised manner.

Funding TVET: Vocational training is an expensive venture, which requires massive inputs in terms of finances as well as equipment. Already there is a move to offer training loans to TVET students in the same system as that of the university. In addition fees is waived for female students who wish to study in the engineering and science courses.

Getting value for money. Evaluating a training program involves measuring its outcomes against its set targets either in terms of outcomes or resources. All inputs of a training program ought to be analysed, costs calculated and judgments made on whether the venture meets the perceived benefits. Areas of concern should include: technology levels, teaching methods, trainers' remuneration, duration of training programs, student attrition and under-utilisation of available resources (Mun, 1997).

Enhancing the status of TVET. The acquisition of workplace skills such as book keeping, interpersonal, and entrepreneurial competencies by entrepreneurs is vital to surviving in self-employment.

Transfer of skills. More collaboration between the training providers and the industry is needed to address the issues pertaining to transferability, such as the level of training attainment, the expectations of both the employee and the employer, and safe work practices.

Furthermore, there are added benefits that employers involved in training would reap by cooperating amongst themselves (Cooney & Long, 2008).

The creation of industrial incubators would provide workplace experiences for trainees and ease transferability of practical skills. In addition, training providers ought to guide potential trainees in their course choices by taking cognisance of their abilities and academic qualifications to ease transfer of skills.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations to this study. The first one relates to the number of respondents that took part. Only 19 MSE in the automotive industry (out of an approximate 4500), four training institutions (out of a possible 1,500); 32 trainees (the total is about 60,000) and four education officers were involved in this study. Due to this small sample, generalising these results should be done with caution.

The second limitation arises from the rapid political and departmental changes taking place in the country in the TVET sector that has been occasioned by the passing of the TVETA bill. However, the findings of this study are still relevant because although departments may change rapidly, pertinent issues in training and business industries take a much longer time to evolve.

AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research focussed on only one context where TVET is undertaken: the automotive industry. There is need to examine other sectors to find out how the skills and competencies gained from TVET are aligned to the workplace. For example, one education official intimated that the quality of skills that TVET offered for the hotel industry was more appropriate than that for the automotive industry. In addition, courses for the trade industries such as marketing and finance, which do not require massive resources, would most likely offer a different perspective of the training process.

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Lexical-Historical Graphics of Kohen, Hekal and Melek as Template for Understanding Cultic Roles of Kings during the Monarchy

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INTRODUCTION

Ancient Israel was renowned in the Near East for its reputation as a nation governed by Yahweh. She flaunted her theocracy in the faces of her adversaries. Whenever she was involved in any battle, the battle was fought by Yahweh Sabaoth on her behalf. Hence, she was sure of victory. Whenever Israel lost any battle, it is assumed that such defeat was certainly as a result of her disobedience to Yahweh's command. Israel prided herself in the knowledge that the LORD, the creator of heaven and earth, is her own God and king, and this is reflected in many aspects of her national and religious life.

For a long time, the nation was under the leadership of charismatic judges who rose as deliverers in moments of troubles; and also priests and prophets who led her by means of words from the LORD. Samuel was the last of such charismatic leaders. As the nation grew and the ineptitude of Samuel's sons became obvious, the people desired a politically structured leadership. Hence, they requested for a king to lead them "as other nations." Even after the institution of the monarchy, Israel still considered herself as being under the direct rulership of Yahweh, the human kings merely served as vassals to Yahweh, Israel's sovereign king. Similarly, the priesthood continued to administer the religious aspect of the nation's life; serving both as the conscience of the nation as well as God's mouthpiece to the people.

Studies are continually undertaken into the various aspects of ancient Israelite socio-political and religious life; and these have left in their trail a reasonable volume of works which have contributed enormously to knowledge in the field of Biblical Studies as well as materials in the field. In the light of these, this paper looks into the operation of Israel's civil administration vis-à-vis her religious life by conducting a comparative study of the functions of her key leaders, the king and the priest. Employing a historical-grammatical approach, the paper attempts a lexical and semantic analysis of the cognate words for these offices, traces their historical development and juxtaposes between their differing and inter-twinning functions, especially in relation to their place of operation, the Hekal IK;yhe.

Sequel to this, the paper tries to answer the question, "Are kings justified to perform priestly functions?" "Was there any moral or spiritual justification for Israel's priestly class to rebuke or reprimand kings who perform such functions?" "Were the priests right in arrogating the cultic functions as solely for priests?" The thesis of this paper is that a correct understanding of the cognate words Kohen, Hekal and Melek, would serve as medium for better understanding the religious and administrative system of ancient Israel especially as it concerns the tension between kings and priests in the performance of cultic obligations and in relation to the translation of hekal as temple and palace.

GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF KOHEN, HEKAL AND MELEK

The term Kohen is a noun masculine absolute which lexically means priest. It appears as !yheK' or an'h;>K; in the Aramaic. Its plural absolute form is ~ynlh;>ko meaning "priests" while its plural construct form is ynEh;>Ko meaning "priests of." Abe traced its etymology to the Akkadian Wna.K' ((kanu from the root !ak k'n which means "to bend down, to do homage." It is in this wise related to the verb root !wk which means "to stand upright." When used in reference to the high priest, it is rendered lAdg' !heKo but rendered jAyd.h, !heKo when used in reference to a common priest. ,

The word was also used in Exo 19:6 with reference to the nation of Israel as priest and king in relation to other nations. Here, the plural absolute form was used in construct relationship with an inflected form of %l,m, to construe ~ynlh;>ko tk,l,m.M; which is translated "Kingdom of Priests." In this sense it expressed the concept of the priesthood, rendered hN'huK. and denoting the office of one saddled with the responsibility of exercising priestly functions.

Used in the generic sense, !heKo denotes anyone who for one reason or the other and at any point in time performed a cultic function, especially that of sacrifice. In this sense, it was used of Potiphara, the !ao !heKo (Priest of On), Ahab's priests of Baal, l[B; ynEh;>Ko the priest of Midian !y:d.mi !heKo, and of the sons of David, his grandson, and Ira the Jairite, who as princes performed priestly or cultic functions. ,

As a verb, !heKo occurs only in the piel stem and is rendered in its perfect 3ms form as !h;K' meaning "to presage, to predict." In the imperfect, it is rendered as !heK;y>, "he will act as priest." In the strict piel stem, it occurs as !heKi meaning "to be or become a priest" and as !heK; in the infinitive construct state. It was rendered in this form in Exo 31:10; 35:19; 39:41; Lev. 16:32; and Num 3:3-4 where it appeared in the absolute and was translated "minister as priest." When rendered as hw'hyl; !heK;, it is usually in reference to the Aaronic order except in Eze 44:13; 2 Chron 11:14 where the Levites were restricted from ministering and also in Hos 4:6 in reference to Israel whose national priesthood has been taken away.

lk;yhe: The word lk;yhe is one of the Hebrew words with attendant ambiguity and ambivalence regarding its root and gender. Davidson identifies it as a masculine noun and offers the alternate rendition lk'yhe. Tregelles on the other hand identifies it as a common noun, which had earlier been thought of as feminine. He traced its root to a number of cognates including lk;h', lkoy', lh;k., and lh;k. In this sense, he ascribed the meanings "to be great, lofty, capacious and spacious" to it. He further described lk;yhe as "a large and magnificent building, a palace" especially as used in Pro 30:28; Isa 29:7 and Dan 1:4. This description was as well in consonance with Davidson's definition – "a large splendid building, a palace."

Its usage in 1 Kings 6:5 and Dan 5:2-5 refers to the temple, especially the space between the entrance and the holy of holies. Tregelles noted that its translation as the holy of holies itself in Simonis Winer's Lexicon was an error. He also noted that when used in construct relationship with the holy name hw'hy>, and taking the form hw'hy> lk;yhe, it is to be translated as "the palace of Jehovah." This construct is an appellation for the temple at Jerusalem, which is elsewhere referred to as hw'hy> tyBe, "the house of the LORD." The house of the LORD is his temple, his abode and the place of his glory and name.

%l,m,ä: The word %l,m, is the noun masculine form of the verb %l;m' which means "to reign, to be king," hence, %l,m, is translated "king." The root means to exercise the functions of a

monarch. When the root ל;מ is used with ל ; or B., it is translated “to reign over or to be king over.” According to Davidson, ל,מ , is often applied to God as well as to false gods especially when used with the definite article and having the form ל,מ,ה . The inflected form ל,מ,ה , transliterated molech or moloch is identified with an idol of the Ammonites, who was at various times worshipped by Israel in the valley of Hinnom.

The verb form takes on different related translations as it transits from one stem to the other. In the hiphil stem, it is written as ל,מ,ה , and implies “to make king” while it connotes “to be made king” in the hophal stem, ל,מ,ה . When rendered in the niphil stem, ל,מ,ה , it has the idea of “to consult, to take counsel.” In the Arabic, it means one who possesses or owns exclusively while the Assyrian context denotes a counselor or adviser. In the Aramaic and Hebrew sense, it implies one whose opinion is decisive.

The root ל,מ also has the inflection ל,מ which denotes messenger or servant. By implication, the king is not just a leader but a servant and messenger. He serves the people of his community by providing justice and making the community habitable by all standards. The inflection ל,מ is also translated angel when used of divine messengers. This implies that the king is as well a messenger of the deity to the people.

Some of the variant usages of ל,מ , include being used in respect to the Davidic kingship to connote one under divine protection as well as conveying the Messianic promise. ל,מ , is also often used in figurative or metaphoric parlance to convey ideas with allegoric undertones, hence, it appears as ל,מ , “king of trees” in Judges 9:8; as ל,מ in Job 41:26 where it was used figuratively of the crocodile as “king over all that are proud” and as ל,מ in Job 18:14 where it was used in reference to death as a king of terror.

Another term used sometimes synonymously to express the concept of ל,מ , is ל,מ meaning “leader.” The word occurs 11 times in Samuel and Kings to denote the king-designate whom God has chosen and appointed to rule over Israel or a tribal chief, military commander, or leader. While some have argued that the meaning of ל,מ should be restricted to non-monarchical leaders, and particularly military commanders, its usage in Samuel-Kings as well as other historical usages suggest the opposite. It was used in reference to Saul, David, Jeroboam, Baasha and Hezekiah, all of whom were kings and not mere military leaders. Buttressing this, Hertzberg submitted that ל,מ refers to the individual whom God has designated as a regal figure.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPTS OF !HEKO, LK;YHE AND ל,מ ,

Ryan Bonfiglio noted that few topics are more central to Jewish life and society than priests and priesthood. The Hebrew Bible has Priestly colourations and concerns on display in various places, from legal materials to historical narratives and from the prayers of the Psalms to the discourses of the prophets. In many ways, the Hebrew Bible bears witness to a community of people whose social identity, religious beliefs, and ritual practices were deeply enmeshed in matters related to the priesthood.

In the light of the lexical analysis presented in the previous section, it can be deduced that a priest is “one who officially stands before a deity or a superior in the capacity of his priesthood.” In the Hebrew Bible, the term priest (*kōhēn*) generally designates “an official who was set apart from the rest of the community in order to carry out certain duties associated with worship and sacrifice.” However, the priesthood as a religious institution is not unique to the Israelite or Hebraic community. Apart from priests being attested in societies throughout

the ancient Near Eastern world, the root *khn*, from which the translations, “priest” and “to act as priest,” are deduced, is also known from Northwest Semitic literature. ,

Priesthood in some form appears to have existed from the earliest times. In patriarchal times the ‘office’ was occupied and its functions were performed by individuals holding some sort of headship, especially by the father or the chief of the family and of the tribe. Thus, in this capacity, Noah on behalf of his household “built an altar unto Yahweh, and took of every clean beast, and of every clean bird, and offered burnt-offerings on the altar” (Gen 8:20). Abraham offered the ram “for a burnt-offering in the stead of his son” (Gen 22:13). In like manner, Job offered burnt offerings for his children and later for his three friends when the great trial had passed (Job 1:5; 42:8). In the aforementioned and similar instances individuals performed priestly roles of similar status with that of Aaron or of any regularly appointed priest in Israel.

The official Israelite priesthood has its origin in the Mosaic-Aaronide administration where Moses was the ‘ruler’ and Aaron was his priest. The Priestly historian (P – source) limits the priesthood to the Aaronic branch of the Levitical order while the Deuteronomist (D – source) expands the scope of the priesthood to include all Levites. Hence, he employs the term *hakkōhānīm halwiyyim* to underscore that all Levites were qualified to be priests. The dichotomy between Aaronides and other Levites is traceable to Exo 32:26-29 where Aaron made a Golden Calf for Israel to worship while Moses was on the mount to receive the Tablets of Law.

Priests generally functioned as mediators of God’s presence and were responsible for the operation of cultic sites, whether the tabernacle, local shrines, or the Temple in Jerusalem. Abe reiterates that the priests represent the worshipper before the deity when they offer offerings and sacrifices on behalf of the worshipper and poured the blood of the sacrificial animal on the altar. They, however, represent the deity to the worshipper when they pass instructions and teachings from the deity to the worshipper. , The priests also carried out numerous administrative roles, including the collection of tithes, the maintenance of the Temple, and the blowing of the trumpet on festive occasions.

The Temple as an institution of worship in Israelite cosmogony has its origin in the Mosaic wilderness Tent of Meeting ‘ohel mo’ed as well as in the Davidic Tent. Drane noted that as the people journeyed out of Egypt, they worshipped God in a special tent erected in the centre of their camp. This wilderness place of worship was described in terms such as “tent of the LORD’s presence,” or “tabernacle.” God’s presence in this tabernacle was symbolized by the cloud which covered it, and the movement of this cloud provided the signal for the people to either move on or stay put. It was in this tent that the Ark of Covenant was placed and it served as “the meeting-place between Yahweh and Moses, where he makes known his will to the captain of the people.” At its entrance the nation gathered to hear the words of the LORD from Moses anytime he had a message for them. It also served as the seat of judgement where matters of civil and social concerns are settled.

Whatever happened to the tent of the LORD’s presence and Ark remains a mystery. After the wilderness wandering, the Ark was mentioned a number of times – at the crossing of the Jordan, in the sanctuary at Shiloh, in Jerusalem during David’s reign and later in Solomon’s Temple. It was probably used during religious festivals at the time of the monarchy and may have been captured or destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar when he overthrew Jerusalem in 586 BC. The tent, however, had disappeared from mention even earlier than the Ark as there was no

mention of it after the settlement into Canaan. It was probably for a while at Shiloh but that would have been for a short time since there was already an erected building for worship at Shiloh by the time of Samuel.

However, the sanctuary at Shiloh suffered moral and spiritual deterioration climaxing in the capture of the Ark and sacking of the town itself by the Philistines ca1104 BC. Subsequently, Samuel operated a kind of itinerant priesthood-prophethood moving round the year from Beersheba to Dan and returning to Ramah where he lived. By the time of Saul, information about the central location of the tabernacle was hazy. There are suggestions linking it with Gibeah, the administrative centre of Saul, as well as Gilgal, its initial location at the time of the conquest. ,

There are indications that the location of the tabernacle shifted from either Gibeah or Gilgal to Nob and remained there until Saul ordered the destruction of the town because the priests had entertained David. The tabernacle was then relocated, probably to Gibeon, because its next mention during the reign of David was in Gibeon and it was also in Gibeon that Solomon worshipped after his enthronement.

After establishing a stately Israel, David had the intention to build a house for the Ark of the LORD but was restrained from doing so and, instead, the honour was passed on to his son, Solomon. Upon his enthronement, Solomon set to build the Temple according to the grand plan already put in place by his father. He was able to do that with the help of Hiram the king of Tyre who supplied materials as well as workmen for the project. Commenting on the impact this had on the design and outlook of the Temple, Ogburn remarked that "The best materials were imported at great cost, and skilled artisans were brought in from Phoenicia. They used their own art forms in its construction, and the general design of the temple they produced was thoroughly Canaanite." Regardless of the Canaanite touch on the Temple, the Priestly writers portrayed it as the place where God revealed himself and manifested his election of Israel.

The beginning of kingship in Israel had its roots in the request by the elders of the land owing to Samuel's old age and the ineptitude of his children at managing the affairs of the land. After acceding to their request, Samuel appointed Saul for them as the first king. Saul was, however, rejected by God as king after a series of disobedient acts and David was anointed king in his stead.

David's initial shot to limelight was occasioned by his defeat of Goliath, which brought him into the royal family as Saul's in-law and by implication, a potential heir to the throne. Saul's jealousy of David's successes led him to make a number of attempts on his life, thus making David flee for his life and becoming a fugitive. Although David had opportunity to kill Saul on two occasions, he spared him under the conviction that he would not lift his hands against the LORD's anointed. At Saul's demise David was made king over Israel; an incident viewed by many monarchists as the real beginning of Hebrew monarchy for it was he who "carried into effect the whole system, civil and ecclesiastical, which had been foreshadowed at Sinai."

Under David's leadership, the nation was transformed from a loose union of Tribal Confederacy into an empire sculpted along the structural blend of neighbouring states. David was, without doubt, a great leader and shrewd military strategist who routed the enemies of Israel. He was also an incisive leader who applied tact and diplomacy in uniting various estranged parties within the Tribal Confederacy he inherited from Saul. In the words of Ogburn, "David achieved what Saul had failed to do: he established his own position independently of

the continued acclamation of the people. His own army, with his own city, controlled the nation; even perhaps, his own national shrine at the center of things.”

In the twilight of David’s reign he made Solomon co-regent with him and at his death Solomon was made king; it was under Solomon that the kingdom attained the peak of her glory. Solomon’s reign was characterized by wise, strategic policy making, state of the art architecture, and explosive international trade which resulted in a blossomed economy. Ogba noted that Solomon was not just a leader among equals, he represented a new aristocracy determined to maintain its affluence and influence by whatever necessary means. It was under Solomon that Samuel’s prophecy of the king exerting heavy taxes on the people found its total fulfillment. In the construction of the Temple and palace, he made the people pay heavy taxes and conscripted many to join the labour force. Solomon’s greatest undoing, however, was his marriage alliances with foreign women, princesses of surrounding pagan nations, who turned his heart from following Yahweh to following after their own gods. After reigning for forty years, Solomon died and Rehoboam his son was crowned king in his stead.

Rehoboam’s lack of adroitness in handling the request of the people concerning relief from their heavy burden led to the disintegration of the land into two separate kingdoms. The tribes of Judah and Benjamin remained with Rehoboam and made up the Southern kingdom, called Judah while the remaining ten tribes went with Jeroboam to form the Northern kingdom, called Israel. The two kingdoms continued under monarchic rule until their captivities in 721 BC and 586 BC respectively.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN !HEKO AND %L,M, IN THE CONTEXT OF LK;YHE

From the grammatical analysis in section one and the history in section two, a number of deductions can be made as regards the functions and relationship between the priest and king in relation to the temple.

Perhaps the most significant relationship between kings and priests in ancient Israel lies in their functions. While the priests are saddled with the temple and its administration, kings are responsible for the day-to-day administration of the society using the palace as base. However, some of these functions overlap each other. For instance, the priests gave instruction to the people on how they were to live their lives both in the religious and civil spheres. The kings were also known to have undertaken cultic functions at various times in history.

From the lexical perspective, the priest is one who bends down to do homage to a superior while the king is one who holds regal honour and to whom homage is paid. In the light of this, the king could be said to be superior to the priest. While the king is construed as one who owns or possesses exclusively and whose opinion is decisive, the priest’s services and actions are subject to the ratification of a higher authority. This can either be the god(s) he represents or the king who appoints him to serve in the priesthood.

The lexical analysis also reveals that the word !heKo can also be translated minister as found in 2 Samuel 8:18; 2 Samuel 20:26 and 1 Kings 4:5. This implies the performance of an act of service or servitude for or on behalf of a superior. The priest here ministers to the deity on behalf of the people. Similarly, as noted in the lexical analysis an inflected form of the root %lm translates as messenger, both of people and of the gods. In this perspective, both the priest and the king are divine messengers who serve as intermediary between a people and their god.

Further, the priest's sphere of operation is the IK;yhe, temple; the king's domain is also the IK;yhe, palace. Westermann describes the Temple as a part of the palace complex. Drane established that the priests and kings had a close relationship with one another during the period of the monarchy. He also reiterated the assumption of scholars that the priesthood officially came into existence at the time of the monarchy although its existence and functions go further than that. He stated that priests operate in a restricted capacity in the national cultic sanctuaries that were closely controlled by the kings.

Drawing from the Samuel encounter at Shiloh, William submitted that the temple housed other adjoining rooms and living quarters in which priests, Levites and other sanctuary workers lived. Hence, he argued that Samuel was sleeping in one of these rooms when he had his encounter with Yahweh. Since the temple was an enlarged form of the Shiloh tabernacle, and in support of Westermann's assertion that the temple was a part of the palace complex, it could be deduced that there were living quarters within this complex. This argument is also in consonance with Tregelles's description of IK;yhe as "a large and magnificent building, a palace" and Davidson's description of it as "a large splendid building, a palace." This implies that the IK;yhe was a large magnificent building which housed the king's living and administrative quarters (palace) as well as the nation's centre of worship, temple.

JUSTIFICATION OF %L,M, PERFORMING THE ROLES OF !HEKO IN THE LK;YHE

Religion and politics have always been meticulously connected in ancient and contemporary civilizations. A look at Israel's ancient Near Eastern neighbours reveals that kings have always had a special role in religion although their specific functions vary from place to place. While the kings of Judah and Israel could not be said to have ascribed divine status to themselves like some of their ancient Near Eastern counterparts, evidences of Israelite kings assuming cultic roles are spread across the pages of the Hebrew Bible. This, however, led to confrontations between the kings and the priestly class. Beginning with the Samuel-Saul episode and running through to the Azariah-Uzziah episode, there were confrontations between kings and priests over the former's right to minister at the altar. The questions then arise: "Do kings have any right to perform cultic functions?" "Do the priests have any justification to arrogate the sole operation of the temple and its altar to themselves?"

Evidences from the ancient Near East, and the Hebrew Bible, reveal that kings obviously have an important role in the religious life of their people. Since kings were believed to be appointed by God and they are his legates, they moderate over the affairs of the people including the religious aspect. As leaders of the people, kings are responsible for the "general tenor of organized worship." Some instances in the Hebrew Bible where kings are portrayed as directly in-charge of religious policy-making include the case of Asa, Ahaz, Joash, Hezekiah, Manasseh, and Josiah in 1 Kings 15:11-15; 2 Kings 16:1-18; 2 Kings 12:1-19; 2 Kings 18:1-7; 2 Kings 21:1-9 and 2 Kings 22:3-23:23 respectively.

Going by the aforesaid description of the temple as a part of the palace complex and the lexical inference that priests, as subordinates, answer to kings it could be inferred that kings control public worship. By implication, the priests were themselves members of the royal household albeit not necessarily by biological descent. This being so, they have their lots determined by the king. Since the king determines the lot of the custodians of the cultic centre, he also has power over the worship and should have access to perform cultic functions.

In addition, shrines, temples and sanctuaries are thought of in ancient Near Eastern religious philosophy as the king's place of worship. The lexical analysis earlier presented reflects the

king as being conceived of as one who owns and possesses exclusively. Hence, all within his domain and kingdom, including the temple belong to him. Amaziah reiterates this idea in Amos 7:13 when he describes the shrine as “the king’s sanctuary, and a temple of the kingdom.” If the temple belongs to the king, can he then be prevented from offering sacrifices therein?

The construction of the king not only as leader but also as servant or messenger also lends weight to his being able to perform cultic functions. As a servant-leader, the king serves the people of his domain by making available quality leadership, being of exemplary conduct, providing basic amenities and representing them in matters of civil and religious disposition. He is also a messenger of the deity and represents the deity to the people. Though not officially a priest, the king by virtue of being a messenger of the deity, is in position to pray on behalf of the nation, issue blessings in God’s name and even offer sacrifices as exemplified in 1 Kings 8:14-66; 2 Kings 19:14-19; and 2 Samuel 6:12-19 respectively.

In describing the Messiah, the Psalms refer to the messianic king as priest forever in the order of Melchizedek (Ps 110:4). As priest, the messianic king is qualified to offer sacrifices on behalf of his subjects. Since Israelite kings are seen as vassals of Yahweh, the sovereign king of Israel; the Messiah is Yahweh’s anointed, and the earthly Israelite king is a type of the coming Messianic king, then the type can also perform the function of that which he points to. As a type of the coming Messiah who is both king and priest, the king is empowered to offer sacrifices on behalf of his subjects as he mediates for them in the presence of the deity.

Moreover, the exclusive functions of priests were not yet as clearly defined as at the time of the monarchy as they became after the exile. Before this time, the paterfamilias was responsible for making sacrifices on behalf of their families, clans, communities or tribes as the case may be. Noah, Job, Abraham and the other patriarchs all offered sacrifices on behalf of their families; Micah consecrated one of his sons as priest before a Levite came along. These instances indicate that there was no rigidity attached to the performance of cultic functions prior the establishment of the priesthood. If ‘mere men’ performed priestly functions and were not condemned either by their people or the deity for doing so, then what stops kings, the sovereign rulers of communities, from performing ‘priestly’ functions?

CONCLUSION

This paper has examined from grammatical and historical perspectives, the nature, development and functions of priests and kings in relation to the temple/palace. It was discovered that the same word translated palace has the connotation of temple and that the temple could in fact be an extension of the palace. From the aforesaid, there appears to be enough lexical, hierarchical and historical grounds to justify the undertaking of cultic functions by kings. However, it needs be noted that kings are not priests hence their operational scope goes beyond the performance of cultic functions. In addition, the performance of cultic functions by kings was mostly on special occasions; the day-to-day running of the temple and the cultic functions associated with it were mainly handled by the priests and other religious officials so appointed by the king.

In the light of the above analysis and juxtaposition, this paper concludes that it is not an aberration for kings to perform cultic functions, especially that of making sacrifices. Since their sphere of operation is the *lk;yhe* which literally means a large magnificent building or palace of which the temple is a part, the kings’ function transcends administrative and civil obligations in the palace to include cultic functions in the temple. Congruently, the priestly class of Israel

that chastised kings for performing cultic functions could be said to be merely fuelling their ego and creating an unnecessary distinction. The condemnation of Saul by Samuel and Uzziah by the Azariah-led company of priests for performing sacrifices is not justified in the light of ancient Near Eastern practices and the lexical implication of the cognate words.

The Effects of Stress on Academic Performance of Senior High School Students in Ghana

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Abstract

This is a descriptive study carried out to assess the effect of Stress on academic performance among Senior High School (SHS) students in Ghana - a case of New Juaben municipality. The main objective of the study was to verify the effect of Stress on academic performance among Senior High Students in the municipality. The study population comprises the entire New Juaben SHS students' population. Primary and secondary sources of data were employed for this study. Stratified sampling technique was used to collect data from respondents. The sample size for the study was three hundred and fifty (350) that is, twenty-five (25) first year SHS students and twenty-five (25) final year students from Seven SHS schools in the municipality. The findings show that stress is associated with poor academic performance. 85% of the respondents indicated that Stress affects academic performance. Also, the sources of stress among SHS Students includes boyfriend and girlfriend relationship problems, social activities, course load, examination, lack/ inadequate family support and feeling homesick. Most of the students in this study were found using combination of coping strategies. This is similar to different studies which show students utilize a number of strategies to cope with stress. The study recommends that guidance and counseling services should be a part of the school's curricular.

Keywords: academic performance, academic stress, coping strategies, stressors

INTRODUCTION

Stress is known “to be the fuel that the body uses to meet the challenges of our fast-paced modern life; for others, it is the aversive by-product of such a life” (Altmaier, 1983). Stress is associated with major life events, daily life hassles, and changes in life. Stress is created by excessive environmental and internal demands that need constant effort and adjustment.

Academic stress can be conceptualized as a student's interactions between environmental stressors, the student's cognitive appraisal of and coping with the academic-related stressors, and psychological or physiological response to the stressors (Lee & Larson, 2000; Lou & Chi, 2000). Academic stress is a pervasive problem across countries, cultures, and ethnic groups, and must be viewed in its context (Wong, Wong, & Scott, 2006). Academic stress is particularly severe because students are expected to pursue academic success to achieve respect, family pride, and social mobility (Gow, Bella, Kember, & Hau, 1996), resulting in extremely high academic demands and extraordinary pressure on school-aged children and adolescents.

The education system and its high stakes testing (e.g., the West Africa Examination Council [WAEC]), may exacerbate the competitive academic climate and generate high levels of academic stress.

Many students undergo considerable stress due to the demands associated with change: leaving home, becoming independent decision makers, and competing against new standards (Altmaier, 1983). Some students can see these transitions as a positive experience that can be exciting, but some students seem to be threatened by this change. Senior high school is where many students experience a time of increased demands, expectations, and stress (Nelson, Dell 'Oliver, Koch, & Buckler, 2001).

The transition of moving to Senior high school and leaving home can be an added stressor for a student. There are many first-year students who deal with being homesick, whether it is mild and self-limiting or profound grief and anxiety. There is loss of control for students who are attending school and have to adapt to a different climate, new language, behavior, and social customs. The changes and transition are stressful for students because of this new environment.

Many people recognize that stress comes in the form of negative tension that is caused by someone or something. Those who recognize stress as negative tension fail to realize that stress can generate a positive reaction to a stimulus. The positive reaction of stress can drive individuals to achieve and to test their potential to its fullest.

It is therefore important to investigate the stress that SHS students experience because of the amount of stress that students encounter. SHS life can be quite stressful for anyone. Being a freshman can make it even more difficult to handle stress. It is important to look at the different factors of stress to help them cope effectively.

Statement of the problem

The Senior High School (SHS) level is a milestone in the academic life of any student. During this period, the student and his/her parents take the crucial decisions of future career selection. Adolescents of our schools face many problems peculiar to their age. They are also worried about their academic performance. Many students are under great parental pressure to score high marks. The exams preparation and in many cases, high parental expectations double their anxiety and stress. They cannot get admission in prestigious tertiary institutions without a superior academic record. So the students are generally under stress during the Senior High School years.

Consequently, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the causes of stress among the SHS students in the New Juaben municipality, what are the coping strategies adopted by the SHS students and lastly, how does stress affect the academic performance of SHS students in

the municipality leading to their failure or success in examinations. Thus, the fundamental question is how stressors among SHS students affect academic performance in the municipality.

Objectives

The general objective of the study seeks to assess the effect of Stress on academic performance among Senior High students in the municipality.

The specific objectives are to:

1. determine the relationship between stress and academic performance among SHS students in the municipality
2. identify sources of stress among SHS students in the municipality
3. identify the features of students' coping strategies in response to academic stress among SHS students in the municipality.

Research questions

The following research questions have been formulated to guide the study:

1. What is the relationship between stress and academic performance among SHS students in the municipality?
2. What are the sources of stress among SHS students in the municipality?
3. What are the features of students' coping strategies in response to academic stress among SHS students in the municipality?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of stress and stress management is increasingly gaining recognition in literature and the globe. Oyerinde (2004) describes stress as the biological responses to events that threaten to overwhelm the individual capacity to cope satisfactorily in the environment. Melinda, Ellen, Jeanne and Robert (2008) defined stress as a powerful neurochemicals and hormones that prepare one for action to fight or flee if one does not take action, the stress responses can lead to health problems.

There are three health-related factors which contribute to the academic performance of students. These factors comprise of amount of exercise, sleeping habits and nutritional routines (Hammer et al., 2009) which have been found to contribute to how a student performs academically.

Among the stressors, test or exam anxiety is one of the main causes of academic stress and most students seem to be more emotionally vulnerable to examination (Fisher, 1994). Students have a fear of failure in relation to their grades and academic work. To fall short of their own or others' expectations in school, job, athletics, or any other activity, one risks both external and internal costs: threat to academic or career prospects, disapproval, rejection, humiliation, guilt and blow to the self-esteem (Schafer, 1996).

Many models have been developed to measure coping strategies. For example, the problem-focused and emotion-focused model (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

New Juaben municipality has seven (7) Senior High Schools in the municipal. The details of the secondary schools are as follows:

Table 1: Study Setting

NO	NAME OF SHS	POPULATION
1.	Pope Johns Senior High School	1,630
2.	Ghana Senior High School	1,465
3.	SDA Senior High School	712
4.	Koforidua Secondary and Technical school	1,958
5.	New Juaben Senior High School	1,526
6.	Oyoko Methodist Sec. School	1,738
7.	Oti Boateng Senior High School	1,265

Source: GES-New Juaben (Annual Report 2014)

Research design

The research design chosen for this work is the descriptive survey design. It is designed to provide further insight into the research problem by describing the relationship between the stress and the academic performance

Population

The study population comprises the entire New Juaben SHS students' population. The total population is ten thousand, two hundred and ninety-four (10,294) representing all the SHS student population.

Sample and sampling procedures

The sample size for the study was three hundred and fifty (350) i.e., twenty-five (25) first year SHS students and twenty-five (25) final year students. Hence, a total of fifty (50) students were sampled from each of the seven (7) SHS in the municipality. Stratified sampling technique was used to collect data from respondents. Also, the respondents were randomly selected using the random table.

Data collection method

The study employed both primary and secondary data. The primary data was collected from the selected respondents within the sample frame in the research population.

For secondary data, annual reports, articles, and journals were used to collect information on the subject to obtain additional information in order to answer the questions set in the problem definition. The main research instruments that were used are questionnaires and interviews.

Data analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in the data analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and excel were used for data entry and analysis of the data collected. Data collected were collated and analyzed using various quantitative statistical models such as tables, bar chart and pie chart to illustrate the results. The findings were critically examined to ensure consistency with the research objective and questions.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Background of respondents

Age of Respondents: A total number of three hundred and fifty (350) respondents were part of the research. From the table below, it could be seen that 14-17 age group had the highest representation of 57.7%. and the 18-21 age group had 42.3%. The distribution by age is shown below in table 4.1.1.

Table 2: Ages of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
14-17 years	202	57.7	57.7	57.7
18-21 years	148	42.3	42.3	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Gender of Respondents

Out of the three hundred and fifty (350) respondents, 56.3% of the respondents were female, and 43.7% of the respondents were male.

Form of the students

The findings show that out of the three hundred and fifty (350) respondents, 50% of the respondents were in Form One (1) and Final year respectively.

The Relationship Between Stress and Academic Performance Among Shs Students in the New Juaben Municipality

Effect of stress on Academic Performance

The result of the findings revealed that out of the three hundred and fifty (350) respondents, 85% of the respondents indicated that Stress affects Academic Performance. Whilst 15% stated that Stress does not affect Academic Performance. This shows a very high percentage believing Stress affects Academic Performance. This is in agreement to McCarty et al., (1999), who asserted that teachers have observed that some children appear to perform below their best in situations characterized by a high degree of stress.

When Stress is mostly experienced by the Students

The response of when Stress is mostly experienced by respondent. 42.3% of the respondents indicated that Stress is mostly experienced when there was examination, 39.4% stated that stress is mostly experienced due to the course load. Whilst 18.3% of the respondents asserted that the stress is mostly experienced due to feeling homesickness. This is in conformity with the assertion made by McCarty et al., (1999), that it is a common occurrence that a certain student gets so upset that he "falls to pieces" or "chokes up" during an examination and fails to live up to the promise shown in his class work.

Table 3: When Stress is mostly experienced

When Stress is Experienced	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
Feeling homesick	64	18.3	18.3	18.3
Examination time	148	42.3	42.3	60.6
Course load	138	39.4	39.4	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Concentration in class when stressed

The research wants to find out whether students are able to concentrate in class when stressed. 61.1% of the respondents indicated that they are unable to concentrate in class when stressed. Whilst 38.9% of the respondents asserted that they were able to concentrate in class when stressed.

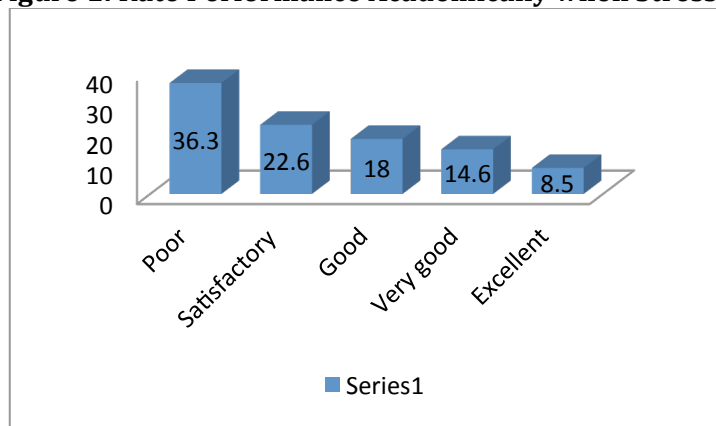
Able to learn when stressed

On the issue of students' ability to learn when stressed 97% of the respondents indicated that they are unable to learn when stressed. Whilst 3% of the respondents asserted that they were able to learn when stressed. This is in agreement with Schafer, (1996) claim that, too much stress can interfere with a student's preparation, concentration, and performance.

Rate of Academic Performance when stressed

With Reference to bar chart (figure 1) below, shows percentage of rate of performance academically when stressed. 36.3% of the respondents rated academic performance as poor when stressed, 22.6% rating academic performance as satisfactory when stressed. Also, 18% of the respondents rated academic performance as good when stressed. Again, 14.6% rated academic performance as very good when stressed and the least 8.5% rated performance academically as excellent when stressed. 63.7% of the respondents rated their academic performance above satisfactory. This is in conformity with Robert and White, (1989) who affirmed that positive reaction of stress can drive individuals to achieve and to test their potential to its fullest.

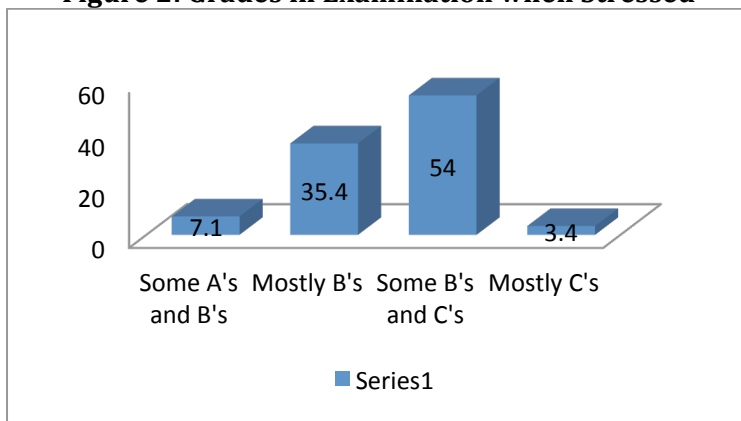
Figure 1: Rate Performance Academically when Stressed



Grades in Examination when Stressed

With Reference to Figure 2 below, shows the grades of respondents in Examination when Stressed. 54% of the respondents had B and C in Examination when stressed, 35.4% of the respondents who had mostly B in the Examination when stressed. Also, 7.1% of the respondents had "A" in Examination when Stressed. The least 3.4% of the respondents had mostly "C" in Examination when Stressed. This means the students performed above satisfactory even though they were stressed. Again, this is in conformity with Robert and White, (1989) assertion of positive stress.

Figure 2: Grades in Examination when Stressed



Performance of Students in class as compared to colleagues when stressed

Performance of students in class as compared to colleagues when stressed, 62.3% of the respondents' performance in class as compared to colleagues when stressed was little better, 23.4% of the respondents who performance in class as compared to colleagues when stressed was much better. Also, 11.4% of the respondents' performance in class as compared to colleagues when stressed was about the same. The least 2.9% of the respondents' performance in class as compared to colleagues when stressed was worse. This means 62.3% of the respondents performance in class was little better as compared to their colleagues. This is shown in table 4.2.3 below:

Table 4: Performance of Students in class as compared to colleagues when stressed

Performance in class as compared to colleagues	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Much worse	10	2.9	2.9	2.9
About the same	40	11.4	11.4	14.3
Little better	218	62.3	62.3	76.6
Much better	82	23.4	23.4	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

The Sources Of Stress Among Senior High School Students In The New Juaben Municipality

Type of food/Nutrition as a source of stress

Response from respondents on whether the type of food ate in school are a source of stress among Senior High students, 74.9% of the respondents indicated that the type of food ate at school is not a source of stress to them. Whilst 25.1% of the respondents asserted that the type of food ate at school is a source of stress to them. This shows that a few people are stressed depending on the type of food they eat. Trockel et al., (2000), asserted that type of food appears to predict high GPAs, and it seems to influence the recall ability and short-term spatial memory.

Change in Environment as a source of stress

On the issue of change in environment being a source of stress among Senior High students, 60% of the respondents indicated that the change in environment is not a source of stress to them. Whilst 40% of the respondents asserted that the change in environment is a source of stress to them. This is not in agreement with Altmaier, (1983), who propounded that many

students undergo considerable stress due to the demands associated with change that is, leaving home.

Table 5: Change in Environment as a source of stress

Change in Environment	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	140	40.0	40.0	40.0
No	210	60.0	60.0	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Not getting enough sleep as a source of stress

Response of whether not getting enough sleep is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 79.4% of the respondents indicated that not getting enough sleep is not a source of stress to them. Whilst 20.6% of the respondents asserted that not getting enough sleep is a source of stress to them.

Boyfriend and girlfriend relationship problem as a source of stress

Table 6, below shows response of whether boyfriend girlfriend problem is a source of stress among Senior High Students. 77.1% of the respondents indicated that boyfriend and girlfriend relationship is a source of stress to them. Whilst 22.9% of the respondents asserted that boyfriend and girlfriend problem is not a source of stress to them. This means that the school Authorities should find a way of addressing relationship problems with students, so that the relationship will not stress them.

Table 6: Boyfriend and girlfriend relationship problem as a source of stress

Boyfriend girlfriend problem	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	270	77.1	77.1	77.1
No	80	22.9	22.9	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Class attendance as a source of stress

Response of whether class attendance is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 67.1% of the respondents indicated that class attendance is not a source of stress to them. Whilst 32.9% of the respondents asserted that class attendance is a source of stress to them.

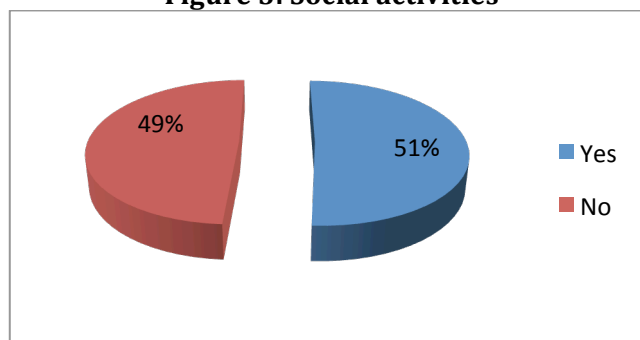
Problem with Dormitory mate as a source of stress

Response of whether problem with dormitory mate is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 70.6% of the respondents indicated that problem with dormitory mate is a source of stress to them. Whilst 29.4% of the respondents asserted that problem with dormitory mate is not a source of stress to them. Based on the review of literature, very little research has been conducted to ascertain whether problem with roommate is another factor contributing to stress and its effect on the academic performance among the students.

Social Activities as a source of stress

The pie chart (figure 3) below shows response of whether social activities are a source of stress among Senior High Students, 51% of the respondents indicated that social activities are a source of stress to them. Whilst 49% of the respondents asserted that social activities are not a source of stress to them. This means that the school authorities should ensure to reduce the social activities since it has effect on the students.

Figure 3: Social activities



Financial difficulties as a source of stress

The study shows response of whether financial difficulties as a source of stress among Senior High Students, 62% of the respondents indicated that financial difficulties are not a source of stress to them. Whilst 38% of the respondents asserted that financial difficulties are a source of stress to them. Parents should make it a point to provide the financial needs of their SHS students.

Course load as a source of stress

Response on whether course load is a source of stress among Senior High Students. 84.9% of the respondents indicated that course load is a source of stress to them. Whilst 15.1% of the respondents asserted that course load is not a source of stress to them. This means that the course load should be looked at by the authorities in Education. Academic stressors refer to any academic demands that cause a student to adjust his or her behavior (Thoits, 1995) and the course load is no exception.

Examination

Response on whether examination is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 75.7% of the respondents indicated that examination is a source of stress to them. Whilst 14.3% of the respondents asserted that examination is not a source of stress to them. This means that examination is a major source of stress to students. Consequently, school authorities must find ways of reducing the stress level of students.

Talking in class as a source of stress

Response on whether talking in class is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 55.7% of the respondents indicated that talking in class is not a source of stress to them. Whilst 44.3% of the respondents asserted that talking in class is source of stress to them. School authorities should devise means of ensuring that students contribute in class without being under stress.

Table 7: Talking in class as a source of stress

Talking in class	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	155	44.3	44.3	44.3
No	195	55.7	55.7	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Crowded classes as a source of stress

Response of respondents on whether crowded classes are a source of stress among Senior High Students, 62% of the respondents indicated that crowded classes are not a source of stress to them. Whilst 38% of the respondents asserted that crowded classes is a source of stress to them. However, the authorities should ensure that classes are not crowded to stress any student.

Lack/ Inadequate Family Support as a source of stress

Response on whether lack / inadequate family support is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 54.3% of the respondents indicated that lack/ inadequate family support is a source of stress to them. Whilst 45.7% of the respondents asserted that lack/ inadequate family support is not a source of stress to them. Majority of the respondents' source of stress was inadequate support from family. School authorities should inform parents through the PTA meetings.

Table 8: Lack/ Inadequate Family Support as a source of stress

Lack/ Inadequate Family Support	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	190	54.3	54.3	54.3
No	160	45.7	45.7	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Feeling homesick as a source of stress

Responses on whether feeling homesick is a source of stress among Senior High Students, 57.1% of the respondents indicated that feeling homesick is a source of stress to them. Whilst 42.9% of the respondents asserted that feeling homesick is not a source of stress to them. Homesickness is an unpleasant and stressful experience for students. For some students this is mild, but for others it can lead them to a state of grief, anxiety, and depression. Homesickness can debilitate a student, making it difficult for them to study or cope effectively with academic life (Fisher, 1994).

Students' Coping Strategies In Response To Academic Stress Among Shs Students In The New Juaben Municipality

Get relieved by studying or substitute activities to cope with stress

On the issue of coping strategies, 56% of the respondents stated that they never got relieved by studying or indulging in substitute activities to cope with stress, and 44% of the respondents indicated they occasionally got relieved by studying or indulging in substitute activities to cope with stress.

Talk/ Share Personal worry with people to cope with stress

The response on coping strategies, 45.4% of the respondents stated that they occasionally talk/ share personal worry with people to cope with stress, 30.9% of the respondents indicated they often talk /share personal worry with people to cope with stress. Also, 16.6% of the respondents indicated they never talk/ share personal worry with people to cope with stress. The least 7.1% of the respondents indicated they always talk/ share personal worry with people to cope with stress. This shows that only a few of the respondents share their personal worry with people.

Trying to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress

Table 9 shows the response on coping strategies, 40.3% of the respondents stated that they occasionally try to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress, 26.6% of the respondents indicated they often try to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress. Also, 17.7% of the respondents indicated they never try to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress. The least 15.4% of the respondents indicated they always try to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress. This means that the few which is 40.3% is encouraged to look at the bright side of things as a means of coping with stress.

Table 9: Trying to look on the bright side of things to cope with stress

Trying to look on the bright side of things	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	62	17.7	17.7	17.7
Occasionally	141	40.3	40.3	58.0
Often	93	26.6	26.6	84.6
Always	54	15.4	15.4	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Change mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress

The response on coping strategies, 51.7% of the respondents stated that they always change their mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress, 23.7% of the respondents indicated they often change mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress. Also, 22.3% of the respondents indicated they occasionally change mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress. The least 2.3% of the respondents indicated they never change mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress.

Table 10: Change mind, and focus on more important things to cope with stress

Change mind, and focus on more important things	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
Occasionally	78	22.3	22.3	24.6
Often	83	23.7	23.7	48.3
Always	181	51.7	51.7	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Do not take problem too serious as a coping strategy

The response on coping strategies, 46.6% of the respondents stated that they always do not take problem too serious to cope with stress, 21.1% of the respondents indicated they often do not take problem too serious to cope with stress. Also, 18.6% of the respondents indicated they occasionally do not take problem too serious to cope with stress. The least 13.7% of the respondents indicated they never take problem too serious to cope with stress.

Come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress

Response on coping strategies, 55.7% of the respondents stated that they always come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress, 15.7% of the respondents indicated they often come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress. Also, 25.7% of the respondents indicated they occasionally come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress. The least 2.9% of the respondents indicated they never come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress. This means that majority of the respondents come up with different solutions to problems to cope with stress.

Table 11: Come up with different solutions to problem

Come up with different solutions to problem	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	10	2.9	2.9	2.9
Occasionally	90	25.7	25.7	28.6
Often	55	15.7	15.7	44.3
Always	195	55.7	55.7	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Seeking suggestions from relative's /friends/ peers to cope with stress

Table 12, below shows the response on coping strategies on the issue of seeking suggestions from relatives/friends/peers, 52% of the respondents stated that they often seek suggestions from relatives/ friends/ peers to cope with stress, 37.7% of the respondents indicated they always seek suggestions from relatives/ friends /peers to cope with stress. Also, 6.9% of the respondents indicated they occasionally seek suggestions from relatives /friends /peers to cope with stress. The least 3.4% of the respondents indicated they never seek suggestions from relatives/ friends/ peers to cope with stress. This means that majority of the respondents cope with stress by seeking suggestions from relatives/friend.

Table 12: Seek suggestions from relatives /friends/ peers

Seeking suggestions from relatives friends peers	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	12	3.4	3.4	3.4
Occasionally	24	6.9	6.9	10.3
Often	182	52.0	52.0	62.3
Always	132	37.7	37.7	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Use Experience of other people to cope with stress

Respondents were asked the rate of using experience of other people as coping strategies, 43.1% of the respondents stated that they occasionally use experience of other people to cope with stress, 39.4% of the respondents indicated they always use experience of other people to cope with stress. Also, 30% of the respondents indicated they often use experience of other people to cope with stress. Lastly, 14% of the respondents indicated they never use experience of other people to cope with stress. This means that majority occasionally but not always use experience of other people in order to cope with stress.

Use hobbies or recreational activities as a coping strategy

Response on coping strategies, 40.3% of the respondents stated that they often use hobbies or recreational activities to cope with stress, 37.1% of the respondents indicated they occasionally use hobbies or recreational activities to cope with stress. Also, 17.1% of the respondents indicated they always use hobbies or recreational activities to cope with stress. The least 5.4% of the respondents indicated they never use hobbies or recreational activities to cope with stress. This means that 40.3% of the respondents often use hobbies or recreational activities as a coping strategy.

Accepting the reality as a coping strategy

Table 13, shows the responses on coping strategies. 35.7% of the respondents stated that they often accept the reality to cope with stress, 33.1% of the respondents indicated they occasionally accept the reality to cope with stress. Also, 20.3% of the respondents indicated they never accept the reality to cope with stress and 10.9% of the respondents indicated they always accept the reality to cope with stress. The implication is that majority often accept the reality to cope with stress.

Table 13: Accept the reality as a coping strategy

Accept the reality	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	71	20.3	20.3	20.3
Occasionally	116	33.1	33.1	53.4
Often	125	35.7	35.7	89.1
Always	38	10.9	10.9	100.0
Total	350	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Data, 2014

Self-Control

Response on coping strategies, 36% of the respondents stated that they never use self-control to cope with stress, 27.4% of the respondents indicated they often use self-control to cope with stress. Also, 19.4% of the respondents indicated they occasionally use self-control to cope with stress and 17.1% of the respondents indicated they always use self-control to cope with stress.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research aimed at establishing relationship between stress and academic performance among SHS students in the New Juaben municipality. The results show that stress is associated with poor academic performance. 85% of the respondents indicated that Stress affects Academic Performance. Also, 97% of the respondents indicated that they are unable to learn when stressed. Moreover, 54% of the respondents had some B's and C's in Examination when

stressed. To solve the problem of poor academic performance, the students need to identify the sources of stress and develop a coping strategy to improve the poor performance.

Secondly, the research aimed at establishing the sources of stress among SHS students in the New Juaben municipality. 84.9% of the respondents indicated that course load is source of stress to them. 77.1% of the respondents indicated that boyfriend and girlfriend relationship problem is a source of stress to them. 75.7% of the respondents indicated that examination is a source of stress to them. 57.1% of the respondents indicated that feeling homesick is a source of stress to them. 54.3% of the respondents indicated that lack or inadequate family support is a source of stress to them. 51% of the respondents indicated that social activities are source of stress to them.

Lastly, research aimed at establishing the students' coping strategies in response to academic stress among SHS students in the New Juaben municipality. These were the dominant coping strategies used always by SHS students to tackle their stress. 55.7% of the respondents stated that they always come up with different solutions to problem to cope with stress. 51.7% of the respondents stated that they always change their mind on issues, and focus on important things in life for them to cope with stress. 46.6% of the respondents stated that they always do not take problem too serious to cope with stress. 39.4% of the respondents indicated they always use experience of other people to cope with stress. Finally, 37.7% of the respondents indicated they always seek suggestions from relatives or friends or peers to cope with stress. Most of the students in this study were found using combination of coping strategies.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Students would be able to manage stress at school when the following recommendations are considered.

Schools should provide an opportunity for each individual to learn and grow at his/her own pace.

Parents should ensure that the home provides children sufficient emotional support and encouragement for their learning.

School atmosphere should be supportive for the emotional development and mental health of children.

Teachers should be approachable and they ought to give emotional support to students in hours of crises.

Child centered and life centered curricula should be implemented in schools for promoting children's interest in learning.

Guidance and Counseling services should be a part of the school system. Schools can make use of the help of professional counselors and psychologists.

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How to Manage a Bully: Workplace Bullying in Construction

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Abstract

Workplace bullying is industry specific. Organizations need to evaluate what is acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in their industry and among their workers in order to make organizational policies effective and respected. This paper looks at workplace bullying in the construction industry. The paper considers how employees, specifically site superintendents, working in construction view workplace bullying and view the best ways for dealing with workplace bullying. The data examined in this paper is drawn from an online forum for construction site superintendents. The comments by the site superintendents reveal how workplace bullying is dealt with on construction sites and how workplace bullying policies are viewed.

INTRODUCTION

Anyone can become a target of bullying if the bully chooses however a number of individual and organizational factors contribute to the likelihood of bullying occurring. Bullying has many definitions. For the purpose of this paper it is defined as “a persistent, enduring form of abuse at work” [5]. Bullying develops out of the interpersonal dynamic of individuals and the structural influences of organizations such as hierarchy and organizational culture. Each industry has a unique range of employee behaviours that are tolerated and not tolerated and differing interpretations of what bullying is and is not. While organizations provide their own unique approach there are industry norms that develop. This can be dictated by the level of stress of the work environment, safety issues, the interface between individuals in the industry and the nature of the people within the industry. For example, bullying on a construction site will differ from that found at a factory, in a sports team or in a hospital. A raised voice on a construction site may be an assertion of power, may communicate urgency related to a safety issue or could be due to hearing loss from heavy machinery. Safety issues are of critical importance in construction and easily can lead to misunderstandings around behaviour [13]. A loud voice in a hospital may only be appropriate during an emergency and is likely unacceptable in day to day interactions. Organizations must observe provincial and federal workplace bullying and/or violence legislation but the legislation is worded in such a way that organizations have the opportunity to apply the legislation to their unique work environment. Bullying legislation provides an umbrella set of guidelines that have to be modified to fit the specifics of the organizational environment and work for the nature of the industry and people involved.

Construction superintendents work at the front line interfacing with contractors on construction sites where buildings are renovated or new buildings are erected. They also interact with owners that hire the organization the superintendents work for and governments that set the building guidelines, issue permits and enforce safety. Superintendents face budget constraints, time lines, changing environmental conditions and changing economics. As front line managers they also have to communicate with mid-level and/or senior management in their organization. As a result of these multiple demands and stressors and the range of

individuals they negotiate with they are subject to and have to navigate many relationships. Some of these relationships involve managing inappropriate behaviour and bullying.

Site superintendents use a wide range of means to keep bullying under control. This paper examines the ways superintendents deal with workplace bullying. A public forum accessed by superintendents in the construction industry provides the source of data on the way this community of managers navigates bullying.

This paper begins with a short summary of literature related to workplace bullying and individual responses to such behaviour. The summary applies workplace bullying to the construction industry. Secondly, the methodology is discussed. Thirdly, the data is evaluated and finally a set of recommendations are provided for how organizations in the construction industry should deal with workplace bullying on the construction site. Further research is also identified.

WORKPLACE BULLYING

It is helpful to know the prevalence rate of workplace bullying in an organization however many organizations do not have the expertise or motivation to complete such research. A meta study by Zapf, Escartin, Einarsen, Hoel and Vartia [15] showed research results in organizations on prevalence ranging from 1 per cent to 69.6 percent of employees being bullied. Measuring the prevalence of workplace bullying can lead to different levels of prevalence depending on how you ask employees about bullying [7]. Having individuals evaluate behavioral experience tends to lead to higher rates of prevalence than self-labeling because many people do not want to be viewed as being bullied as it may be seen as being weak or may disadvantage advancement opportunities. Behaviours may also be tactics bullies use, such as gossip or eye rolling, but some individuals may be oblivious or indifferent to such behaviours. Individuals may ignore inappropriate behaviour in order to complete work or reach a deadline rather than confront it or they may avoid confronting in self-preservation. Studies on bullying prevalence have found that bullying rates vary across an organization. Some employees are subject to more bullying than others. For example, a study by Ortega, Høgh, Pejtersen, & Olsen [10] on Danish psychosocial workers found that unskilled workers were bullied more frequently than supervisors. At the same time work by Namie and Namie, over two time frames, found that the rate of bullying by subordinates is on the rise or is being more often acknowledged by supervisors [8][9].

Individual antecedents of workplace bullying include two perspectives - that of the bully and that of the target. Work by Zapf and Einarsen [14] identified three key causes for raising the ire of a bully. The first is threatened self-esteem which can fit with the construction industry because of the link between work and self-esteem [11]. If a superintendent raises an issue concerning the quality of work of a contractor they have hired the individual's self-esteem may be impacted resulting in a response of self-protection and counter attack which could be in the form of bullying. The bullying could be verbal attacks directed to the superintendents or shared with others covertly in a form of gossip. The second individual antecedent [14] is a lack of social competence. In the construction industry there are many individuals running their own businesses to contract out their skills. In some cases these contractors have selected the construction field for work based on their skill set, training and experience. However, others may be attracted to working in construction due to a lack of skills or other work opportunities. The industry places a high amount of emphasis on experience or physical strength. Interpersonal skills are less often a prerequisite for employment as it is in other professions

like sales, teaching or nursing. Once an individual has obtained employment in the construction industry they can work to be advanced. Again their employment opportunities may be based on completing the task more than on interpersonal skills.

A third individual antecedent, according to Zapf and Einarsen [14], is micropolitical behaviour in organizations. In micropolitics organizations require individuals to participate in decision making and offer and allow them opportunities for influence and decision making. Individuals who engage in micropolitics do not only better the organization but improve their own circumstance. Micropolitics can lead to bullying as employees strive to maintain their territory. They may “only slightly transgress organisational norms and values such as being, dominant, competitive, high-achieving” [14:173]. These transgressions may be tolerated since they are seen as characteristics of employees seeking advancement to management positions or being successful. They also may be tolerated because they are not easily identified or documented for evaluation and assessment.

Organizational antecedents are also a factor in the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in the construction industry. According to Salin and Hoel [12] there are four key organizational contributors to creating an ideal environment for workplace bullying. These are the changing nature of work, work organization, organizational culture and climate and leadership. Changing nature of work refers to organizations downsizing and restructuring due to changing economics. This can place pressure on employees leaving some with more work or the threat of losing their job. There is also a move in organizations to empower employees removing layers of management and shifting responsibility downward in the organization. This can create time pressure and enormous work stress as the organization shifts responsibility and decision making structures. In addition organizations are increasing the percentage of part time workers to provide more financial flexibility creating increased stress on employees.

The second organizational factor is the way work is organized. The work environment is stressful. It can involve long hours in stressful work environments. Not surprisingly, heavy workloads have been linked to increased workplace bullying [1]. “Faced with what (employees) may consider unreasonable demands and poor working conditions, workers under pressure may protest or voice their concern, possibly resulting in a punitive and retaliatory response from their superior” [12: 208]. Hoel and Stalin also argue the way work is organization can lead to role conflict and role ambiguity which creates tension among employees. Work can be poorly organized with unclear expectations.

Third there is organizational culture that can be overly competitive and encourage elements of bullying by promoting aggressive and harmful behaviours [3]. Harmful organizational culture can be across an organization or be in departments or specific areas of the organization as subcultures. Fourth is issues related to leadership [2]. Leaders may not be trained to manage or they may have too many individuals reporting to them to know what is really going on in their area. Another issue is the managers and leaders are often the source of bullying. They may have poor interpersonal skills or practice a management style that is destructive. They may make decisions on their own without consult individuals that are closer to the facts. On the other hand they may not be present leaving the leadership to those beneath creating conflict and a power vacuum [6].

Nature of Bullying in Construction

In the construction industry the location of work sites being separated from head office and often isolated means inappropriate behaviour can occur without senior oversight. The superintendents who oversee the work on the construction site have to be very skilled in

dealing with a range of behaviours. Because of the range of abilities of the superintendents and the variability of the work condition at a construction site bullying is more likely to appear in pockets or hotspots. Some sites will have the people and conditions that promote good interpersonal relations among workers while others will not. Some superintendents will have strong interpersonal skills while others may be new or ineffective in dealing with interpersonal conflict. The prevalence of bullying at construction sites is higher than most workplaces because of the frequency and nature of human interaction. There are many contractors entering the sites and being required to work under the management of a site supervisor who works for a different company than the contractors. This means the contractors are being required to relinquish their authority and work within the policies of a different company while on the site. Such work conditions can operate smoothly if the expectations of the contractors and the company hiring their services align. However, if the behaviours between the two groups are significantly different conflict can arise. For example, if the site superintendent's company has a high safety standard and the contractor is not as observant about safety disagreements can arise. There can also be issues around the way work is completed and the quality of the work.

Bullying of superintendents by contractors or owners or vice versa can take many forms. For reasons such as a heavy workload, limited time and tight budgets superintendents might challenge a contractor's work which results in a backlash by a contractor. Simple acts by contractors such as voicing disapproval of a superintendent's decisions, challenging the superintendent's knowledge or talking to other contractors on site about the superintendent can disrupt the work environment and convey disrespect. In addition, work sites are owned by an individual or company that is often different from the company the superintendent works for so at any time an owner or manager for the site might enter the site and pose questions about the quality or nature of the work being completed or the speed by which the work is being completed. This can be done in such a way that the superintendent feels threatened or demeaned.

Superintendents may also engage in inappropriate behaviour. They might repeatedly single out a contractor or undermine a contractor by pointing out weaknesses in their work in front of others. The power difference between the superintendent and contractor may be enforced in an overt or covert way. It is not uncommon for superintendents to raise their voices or kick contractors off their site in order to reassert their position of authority. In some situations this is done instead of discussing problems or resolving issues on site. The power differential makes it hard for contractors to report such behaviour. Contractors are looking for work and so they may tolerate one superintendent's behaviour in order to keep working for the larger construction company that the superintendent works for.

Superintendents may find working with owners challenging especially if owners openly criticize their work and the work of the contractors they hire. Superintendents may be dealing with owners who believe their needs should be given immediate attention and treated with the utmost importance. With cost escalation and a competitive work environment owners may be stressed about deadlines and turning their site into its ultimate purpose such as a store or mall or storage unit. Superintendents also face the challenge of working in an environment in which owners frequently have greater authority than they do but are not as knowledgeable about the nature of the work being completed.

WHO IS BULLIED

Some superintendents are more vulnerable to bullying than others. The vulnerable typically include new and inexperienced employees. They may lack confidence and competence due to the newness of the work. Alternatively, new superintendents may have extensive work experience that threatens their peers and contractors. They may have as much or more work experience in the areas the contractors are working in such as foundations, plumbing, electrical or framing. This knowledge may lead to conflict between the superintendent and a contractor on how work is completed. In addition, a new superintendent may be required to build up their experience to prove their worth meaning they may be given less favourable jobs that include more challenging owners or work sites.

A second group that is targeted is older employees who may be viewed as out of date or too expensive to keep due to their high salaries based on years of work. A third target is individuals with personal problems, such as a sick family member, abuse in their personal life or mental health issues. Such stressful situations can impact their performance, leading to more emotional displays or inappropriate workplace behaviour. Such individuals may also face resentful coworkers if they take time off to manage their personal situation.

A fourth group are those with differences. Organizations that complete construction work accept individuals with many different skills and backgrounds. These individuals may have difficulty fitting in or gaining acceptance. Differences include those of culture, race, language, gender, sexual persuasion, physical abilities, belief systems and individuals who may be neuroatypical or with character styles different from the norm.

Finally, contractors may become targets of bullying when they accept superintendent work and therefore are no longer completing the work but rather are involved in managing the work. As a result they are viewed as being managers only and not personally experienced in a specific trade.

IMPACT OF BULLYING ON THE ORGANIZATION

If bullying is ignored, it impacts more people resulting in widespread incivility. In the worst case scenario unchecked bullying results in a pervasive toxic work environment that is difficult to reverse. Rampant bullying can create an organizational culture or subculture where normally unacceptable behaviours, such as racism, sexism and ageism, are tolerated. Employees will reduce their hours at work and may reduce the quantity or quality of work they complete as they feel increasingly detached from their job. Innovation and creativity are curtailed as employees avoid risk in an effort to protect their job. Ongoing bullying results in lower employee engagement and higher job turnover rates [4].

METHODOLOGY

The research data source in this paper was a North American forum for construction site superintendents. The subject matter for the forum was workplace bullying. Those construction superintendents commenting on the workplace bullying did so voluntarily. The forum was not associated with an organization. Those participating in the discussion did so relatively freely as measured by the comments but the members of the forum all included their names and in most cases pictures of themselves that were part of the forum design. The sample of comments from the forum were taken in October 2015 over a two week timeframe. A total of 128 comments were examined as data posted by 70 superintendents. Most individuals commented once. Twelve commented twice adding a bit of back and forth dialogue. There were no apparent limits to the number of comments a member could make. Two individuals had a total of 12 and 15 comments.

One question raised a range of responses and is the focus of this research article. The question posed by a member of the forum was “How do you deal with the bully?” The answers were gleaned from the responses. The data was also reviewed for common themes that emerged. See Appendix 1 for the summary of how the participants believed you should deal with a bully. Each idea was listed and the number of individuals that mentioned the idea are noted by the number of Xs beside the idea. All names and identifying details have been removed from the data for purposes of confidentiality. Most comments in the forum focused on the subject and sharing participant views on the subject but some comments were reactions to ideas raised. A third column in Appendix 1 notes where participants in the forum specifically argued against an action or way of dealing with bullying.

FINDINGS

What is evident through the responses is that human resources protocol is a common theme with responses like talking to the individual who is the perceived bully, educating, documenting and applying the policy. However, in many of the responses there was an effort to assert the hierarchy. For example, fire them immediately, stand up to them, get tough or put them in their place. There also were comments that suggested that the organizations these superintendents work for create bullying opportunities. In four instances participants provided examples where raising a bullying issue upward was ineffective and harmed the superintendent’s career leading to the superintendent being fired.

Many participants argue that superintendents should bully the bully. This has an element of ego or self-esteem by the superintendent in their responding. For example, threaten the bully, attack or hit the bully or work it out elsewhere like “off site.” It may be that the participants feel the need to sound tough among their peers on a forum or perhaps this is how they deal with the issue of bullying but what is evident is that such responses could put a company at risk of lawsuits. At the same time what is evident from the responses is how demanding their jobs are and how common threats, toughness and bravado are used as a management tool or by contractors and owners on a construction work site.

There were other interesting themes that arose that shed light on the work environment in construction and the nature of workplace bullying in the construction industry. There were many comments made around the issue of being tough. One respondent asked if workplace bullying was really a problem in construction. This resonated with many of the participants who felt that it was easy to deal with workplace bullying by being tough and if you were tough you would not have a problem. Several participants questioned the value of being politically correct and aligned being politically correct with worrying about bullying. One participant noted that a bully is a weak link in an organization and needs to be removed to solve the problem. The participants went back and forth around the tough guy approach versus showing leadership, being a team player and resolving problems through policy. Some argued for being tough and applying policy. At times those who argued for leadership, team player, dialogue and policy were identified as being soft. One participant even questioned if the whole discussion indicated the superintendents were getting too touchy-feely. Another argued that bullies refuse to acknowledge that bullying is wrong. Given some of the actions of the superintendents on their sites it could be that they feel justified in their tough behaviours and are not acknowledging that they could be viewed by some as being bullies.

Another theme that arose was dialogue around causes of bullying. Several participants linked bullying to being overworked and stressed. The time pressure on sites was noted and linked to

tolerance of bullying. Participants pointed out that in the interest of completing the work inappropriate behaviour was ignored or tolerated. Others argued that with the current time pressures on sites bullying could not be tolerated as it would impede work. Several participants also argued that the bullies do not realize what they are doing or saying suggesting that workplace bullying policies are not taught or reinforced.

Appendix 1: How Do You Deal With the Bully?

Method of Managing Bullying	Number of Forum Participants who Supported the Method	Number of Forum Participants who do not Support the Method
work hard and smart/focus on goal	XX	
control those things in your power, let the rest go	X	
put a stop to it	XXX	
became the bigger bully	XX	XX
educate the bully	XXX	
talk to your (project) manager	XX	X
document/report	XXXXXX	X
explain/apply policy	XXXXX	
common respect for each other	X	
maintain an open door policy	X	
handle it	XXXXXXXX	
talk like you know what your doing – no name calling	X	
act decisively and quickly	X	
fire them immediately	XXXXXXXXXXXX	XX
Fire them when appropriate	XX	
put them in their place	XXXXX	
screen before you hire	XX	
address the issue	XX	
solve without conflict	X	X
work it out elsewhere “off site”	XXX	XXX
give them time out	X	
team approach	XXXX	
threaten the bully	X	XX
attack or hit the bully	XX	
look for another job	XXX	
private conversation with person	XXXX	
give them one warning/second chance	XXXXX	
set rules and follow them	XX	
try to motivate behaviour	X	
stand up to them	XXXXX	
diffuse the situation	X	
get tough	XX	
manage the situation	XX	
confront	X	
pass on to HR	XX	
don’t talk to your manager they will not support you	XXXX	

What Companies Can Do

Based on the comments gleaned from the forum a number of conclusions can be drawn. First, construction companies need to educate superintendents about the organizational policy and

relevant laws related to behaviour and bullying. Organizations need to go beyond lecturing and checking for understanding (as with electronic training). Scenario training and retraining run in small groups can be used to inform participants how to apply the organizational policy and relevant laws. Complaints should also be monitored. It is too easy to go through the learning and then deem the process too onerous to apply and hope that everyone behaves or that bullying targets will just “suck it up.” Ignoring the issue can be an additional form of bullying. However, it seems that training the superintendents about what bullying is and how to apply the policy would require some stronger protocol around acceptable and unacceptable behaviours by contractors and owners and the consequences of ignoring such policies on the construction site.

Secondly, construction companies should use educational avenues to reinforce awareness and encourage self-monitoring. Training should focus on defining and creating a civil workplace. Workers should learn about the continuum of inappropriate behaviour (incivility leading to workplace bullying, possibly resulting in violence) and the importance of reporting and documenting incivility, bullying and behaviours that could be labeled as violence. A code of conduct should be publicly posted and enforced. Construction companies must set clearer standards around what is a healthy and constructive discussion around work and what is unacceptable behaviour or bullying.

Thirdly, upper management and supervisors should also be prepared to support targets of bullying. Organizational support and genuine empathy is vital for targets to manage and survive the experience. At the same time the participant comments indicate that teaching management and leadership skills would be equally as important as educating superintendents about workplace bullying policies.

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Construction companies need to deal with bullying as a macro (organizational wide) not just a micro issue (interactions between several individuals on one construction site). The solution involves attention to organizational culture and structure as much as interpersonal relations. In addition, as demonstrated through the comments by the forum participants, a construction company should consider how to adapt managing workplace bullying to the construction industry. While a physical approach would be unacceptable the means to manage workplace bullying in this industry will need adaptation to encourage uptake and acceptance by the employees. Bullying has to be viewed as destructive to the objectives of the organization and the superintendents rather than an exercise in political correctness and being touchy-feely.

Further research needs to be completed examining the issue of workplace bullying in the construction industry. Surveying site superintendents about their interpersonal interactions over six months or a year could provide more industry specific information. Prevalence, behaviours, responses and organizational actions would provide additional insights into how organizations can better manage bullying in this industry. The forum has indicated that the participants are conflicted about how best to keep a site safe and functional. Power issues appear to be an overarching issue for site superintendents. A workplace bullying policy must be tailored to fit the nature of work on the construction site. Further research could examine how best to fit a policy to this work environment.

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