UNESWA JOURNAL OF EDUCATION (UJOE)

An Online Journal of the Faculty of Education
University of Eswatini
Kwaluseni Campus

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Articles

The predictive validity of personality and emotional intelligence on counsellor efficiency in South-West Nigeria

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Abstract
The likelihood of a client turning up for counselling depends on the rate of success of the earlier interventions. This success may depend on the attitudes, personal-emotional dispositions of the counsellor. Therefore, this study investigated the predictive validity of personality and emotional intelligence on the counsellor efficiency. Three research questions were raised while corresponding hypotheses were formulated. Survey research design, which adopted a correlational approach, was employed in the study. The population of this study consisted students in Senior Secondary selected from schools selected South-West Nigeria. A sample size of six hundred (600) Senior Secondary School students was drawn from fifteen (15) secondary schools using the multi-stage sampling technique. The researchers adapted 'The Big Five Personality Inventory (BFPI)', 'Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ)' and 'Counsellor Efficiency Scale (CES)' as research instruments. The instruments were validated and their reliability co-efficients of 0.878, 0.922 and 0.956 for BFPI, EIQ and CES respectively were obtained. Data analyses were carried out using Multiple Regression analysis. The findings of the study revealed that the Big Five personality and emotional intelligence attributes significantly predicted Counsellor Efficiency when taken separately. Also, they jointly predicted Counsellor Efficiency in Senior Secondary Schools. Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that counsellors should develop desirable attributes and competencies in the domains of personality and emotional intelligence in order to prepare for circumstances, which may be a source of threat to their efficiency in delivering counselling services.

Keywords: Counsellor. Efficiency. Personality. Emotional intelligence. Counselling

Introduction
The desire to be efficient is a common psychological process in virtually every setting that is characterised by human efforts. This is not an unusual desire because humans naturally gravitate towards executing or accomplishing tasks successfully. Archer (2010) explains efficiency to mean the measure of effectiveness that produces the minimum waste of time, efforts and skills. Counsellor efficiency can be described as the extent to which a counsellor can satisfy his or her client's quest for proper adjustment to daily experiences with minimal efforts and resources. It depicts a function of feelings, degree of fulfillment and contentment, which the client experienced at the end of counselling session. A counsellor could be said to be efficient when he or she can meet a client's needs by helping him or her to resolve his or her challenges successfully to a reasonable extent. Hence, an efficient counsellor is expected to possess attributes of personality and emotional intelligence, which are necessary for the attainment of desirable changes in the client.

A counsellor's contribution to counselling practice may be influenced by such factors as the individual characteristics of clients and qualities of the setting. However, there are predominant personality characteristics of the counsellor that transcend helping relationships, clients, and techniques that exert an influence on the counsellor's practice of counselling. In other words, the character and interpersonal style of the counsellor predicts the nature of the counselling offered to clients. In counselling practice, it is expected that counsellors in execution of their counselling services should try to be emotionally poised and well-adjusted in terms of personality. This is because the severity of the client's challenges may dominate the feelings of the counsellor. Hence he or she may tend to react to the client's challenges based on emotions rather than ethical principles guiding the delivery of counselling services. At this point, it is highly essential that the counsellor distance himself or herself from the feelings and pains of the client while still recognizing and coming to terms with the client's challenges. This could only be possible if the counsellor's personal-emotional characteristics could enhance his or her efficiency in meeting up with the demands of the clients.

The personality of an individual refers to a collection of thoughts, behaviour, feelings, emotions, attitudes, unique learning and response patterns, habits of an individual, which are consistent overtime. Personality characteristics in this study are extraversion, neuroticism (or emotionality), openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The Big-Five personality dimension includes the predisposition to empathise, trust, and to be supportive, which is termed as agreeableness. The propensity to be gregarious, fun-loving, and warm is known as extraversion, which is another component of the Five Factor model. Another component of Big-Five personality dimension is openness to experience, which includes traits such as tendency for imagination, independence, preference for variety, having wide interests, being imaginative, insightful, attentiveness to inner feelings and intellectual curiosity. Conscientiousness, which is the tendency to be prepared, cautious, and disciplined, is also one of the components of Five Factor personality dimension. Lastly, neuroticism is the tendency to be anxious, emotionally unstable, and pessimistic. Neurotics are often self-conscious and shy, and they may have trouble controlling urges and delaying gratification.

Counselling is not just about being a brilliant counsellor but being accommodating, empathic and trusting. Generally, emotional experience and expression are unique to the counsellor and the client. Hence, emotional intelligence is a special proficiency that a counsellor should possess so that he or she can do well in his or her vocation. In contrast to professions like Law and Business, the profession of counselling is often more emotional in nature (Dlugos & Friedlander, 2001). Salovey and Mayer (2008) defined emotional intelligence as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. It has been assumed that an individual's emotional intelligence measure may be more significant than his or her intelligence quotient and is unquestionably a better predictor of value of relationships, success and general happiness.

Actually, there is deficiency in literature with respect to the joint or separate predictive validity of personality and emotional intelligence on counsellor efficiency. However, some studies have associated them with job performance, psychological well-being among others. Joseph and Newman (2010) tested the incremental validity of EI measures to explain job performance over and above cognitive ability and the

"Big Five" personality traits. They concluded that most types of EI do have incremental validity above both personality and cognitive ability, especially in jobs that are high in emotional demands. Gutierrez, Jimenez, Hernandex and Puente (2005) studied 236 nursing professionals and found that personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism are most predictive of subjective well-being. Avsec, Masnec and Komidar (2009) examined predictive validity of the Big Five personality traits and three dimensions of emotional intelligence (EI) regarding psychological well-being on the sample of primary and high school teachers. Results showed good predictive validity of personality traits, for they accounted for 22 to 43% of variability in different psychological well-being scales. Predictive validity of EI is also excellent, but when controlling for personality traits is far worse, since it accounts for only 1 to 3% of variance in well-being scales.

James, Bore and Zito (2012) administered a battery of tests to a cohort of 1st-year law students (n = 150) and measured the Big Five personality traits and emotional intelligence (EI) to examine their relationships to psychological well-being as indicated by coping styles, satisfaction with life, performance-based self-esteem. They found that whereas EI was significantly related to three of the five well-being variables, the Big Five personality factor of neuroticism was found to be a stronger predictor of well-being. The findings suggest that EI does not account for additional variance in well-being over personality.

Personality and emotional intelligence have been separately linked to several factors such as life satisfaction, counsellor effectiveness, counsellor self-efficacy, career commitment, skills competency, personal development and social relationship, as well as occupational success (Adeyemo & Adeleye, 2008; Bar-On, 2005; Mustaffa, Nasir, Aziz & Mahmood, 2013; Ohuakanwa & Eze, 2014; Onyekuru & Ibegbunam, 2015). However, these studies did not examine the predictive validity of each attributes of personality and emotional intelligence with the dependent variables of their study. Based on the studies reviewed above, the current study hypothesised that personality and emotional intelligence will significantly predict counsellor efficiency so as to fill the gap in literature and provide support to existing research works.

Statement of the Problem

The onus of addressing some school challenges rests on the efficiency of the counsellor. Evidently, no counsellor can give out what he or she does not have. One wonders if counsellors have the appropriate personal-emotional characteristics that can predict efficient delivery of counselling services. This study explored the prediction of personal-emotional characteristics on the efficiency of the counsellors, since their interaction with clients, calls for high level of personality and emotional intelligence traits. Do big five personality and emotional intelligence attributes predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools? Do attributes of big five personality and emotional intelligence predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools jointly? Hence, the problem of this study was hinged on whether the attributes of big-five personality (Extraversion, Openness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Agreeableness) and emotional intelligence (self-awareness, empathy, and social skill, motivating oneself and managing emotions) of counsellors could predict the counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools in South-west Nigeria.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study and were tested at .05 level of significance.

1. The big five personality attributes do not significantly predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools.
2. Emotional intelligence attributes do not significantly predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools.
3. The big five personality dimension and emotional intelligence do not significantly predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools jointly.

Theoretical framework

This study is hinged on Carl Rogers' client-centered theory, which is one of the historical and influential theories in counselling field. Though the theory focuses on the client's responsibility and capacity to discover ways to more fully encounter reality, but Rogers points out that the therapist/counsellor should be genuine, non-possessive, warm, accepting and have empathy. This highlights the personal-emotional characteristics of the counsellor, which constitute the necessary and sufficient conditions for therapeutic effectiveness. The therapist's function is to be immediately present and accessible to the client and to focus on the here and now experience created by their relationship (Charema, 2004). The theory emphasises the important role of the characteristics of the counsellor in facilitating effective and efficient counselling. In other words, it stresses the personal-emotional domains of the counsellor as prerequisites for counselling effectiveness.

The counsellor facilitates the counselee's self-understanding, clarifies and reflects back to the client by understanding the expressed feelings and attitudes of the client. To accomplish this, the counsellor should be able to appreciate and understand his/her own feelings and attitudes as well as other personality characteristics. This theory provides a safe climate in which counsellors can explore the full range of their own feelings and to become gradually open to new experiences and develop confidence in themselves and their own judgments through self-assessment. With this theory in view, the researchers hypothesised that personality and emotional intelligence as characteristics of the counsellors can predict their efficiency.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A correlational approach of the survey research design was adopted in this study. This approach was adopted because the researchers examined the relative and joint contribution of the independent variables of this study to the dependent variables.

Population of the Study

The population of this study constituted all students in Government owned senior secondary schools in South West Geopolitical Zone of Nigeria. The senior students were chosen because they had spent at least five years in the school. The researchers ensured that the selected schools had counsellors who offered counselling services (individually or in group) and ensured that these services were very accessible to the students. This would have availed them the ample time to interact with the counsellor, hence they can identify some of the counsellor's personal-emotional characteristics. There are six States in South West Geopolitical Zone of Nigeria namely; Ogun, Ondo, Lagos, Ekiti, Osun and Oyo.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

A sample size of six hundred (600) senior secondary school students was drawn from fifteen (15) secondary schools which were purposively selected on the grounds that students in these schools had counsellors who offered both group and individual counselling. The sample of the study was selected using the multi-stage random sampling technique.

In stage one, three (3) States were randomly selected from six (6) states in the Southwest geopolitical zone. In stage two, the researchers purposively selected a major urban town from each of the states on the ground that most urban towns have schools with guidance counsellors who offer counselling services. This gave three urban towns namely: Akure, Ado-Ekiti and Ilesa. In stage three, the researcher adopted a purposive sampling technique in selecting five (5) secondary schools with guidance counsellors each from each urban town, summing up to fifteen (15) secondary schools. Stage four also involved a purposive selection of forty (40) students who have received counselling services through group or individual counselling in the selected secondary schools with frequency of counselling session as a criterion. The Big Five Personality Inventory (BFPI), Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) and Counsellor Efficiency Scale (CES) were adapted for data collection.

The personality of the counsellors was measured with The Big Five Personality Inventory (BFPI) adapted from John and Srivastava (1999). Originally, the inventory comprised 44-items on the personality facets. But a short version of 25 items was devised by the researchers. Items 1-5 measure Extraversion, items 6-10 measure Agreeableness; item 11-15 measure Conscientiousness and items 16-20 measure Neuroticism while items 21-25 measure Openness. The scale was designed with the response based on a 4-point scale of the Likert type, that is strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3) and strongly agree (4). The following adjustments were made in the original instrument. The response was on 5-point scale but the researcher decided to strike out the "neither agree nor disagree" column because such response is not specific. In addition, the items in the devised copy of the instrument were arranged according to each personality traits for easy scoring and computation and words such as "ingenious", "deep thinker", "cold and aloof" which were in the original instrument were simplified to suit the respondents' level of understanding. Finally, based on the researchers' experience with respect to respondents' attitudes towards lengthy questionnaire, the instruments' items were abridged. Instead of 44 items, 25 items were used with 5 items capturing each personality facets. "I see myself as someone who" was altered as "I see my counsellor as someone who" to suit the respondents.

The second instrument was the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ). This is a Likert-type and self-report questionnaire designed by London Leadership Academy (n.d) but modified by the researchers and used to measure emotional intelligence. The original form had fifty (50) items and five (5) subscales namely; social skill, empathy, motivating oneself, managing emotions and self-awareness. A version of the instrument structured by the researchers, with twenty-five (25) items and five (5) subscales was used in this study; and would yield EI score for each of the five subscales. Each item consisted of a 4 point Likert scale with a response of; strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3) and strongly agree (4). The suitability of this instrument was ensured by the following alterations. The response pattern in the original instrument read "how much each statement applies to you" but since this

study assessed the emotional intelligence of the counsellor using the students, the strongly disagree and strongly agree continuum was adopted. This enabled them to indicate their level of agreement on how much their counsellor possessed the indicated EI traits. This instrument was abridged considering the convenience of the respondents and the appropriateness of the selected items.

The Counsellor efficiency was measured using a Counsellor Efficiency Scale. Counsellor Efficiency Scale (CES) is an adapted instrument from the works of Oluseyi and Oreoluwa (2014); Mynick and Kelley (1971); and Alutu (2013). Items were selected from their instruments and adapted by the researchers to capture the level of understanding of the respondents of this study. The alterations include change of words, sentence restructuring among others. Each item consisted of a 4 point modified Likert scale with a response of; strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3) and strongly agree (4).

Validity and reliability of the instrument

The instruments were validated by three experts so as to ensure that the instruments met the criterion for face and content validity. The reliability of the three instruments was established using the Cronbach's alpha statistics which gave reliability co-efficients of 0.878, 0.922 and 0.956 for BFPI, EIQ and CES respectively.

Method of data analysis

The hypotheses were tested using ANOVA and multiple regression statistics. All the hypotheses were tested at .05 level of significance. Multiple Regression statistics was used because the study examined the relationship between more than one independent or predictor variables (personality and emotional intelligence) and a dependent or criterion variable (counsellor efficiency). More so, relative and joint contribution of the independent variables of this study to the dependent variables was examined in the study.

Results

Hypothesis 1: The Big Five personality attributes will not significantly predict Counsellor Efficiency

Table 1: Relative Contribution of the Big five personality attributes to Counsellor Efficiency

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	32.410	3.619		8.957	.000
	Extraversion	.899	.248	.164	3.623	.000
	Neuroticism	.893	.239	.152	3.727	.000
	Agreeableness	.357	.324	.050	1.102	.271
	Openness	1.791	.219	.351	8.179	.000
	Conscientiousness	.017	.258	.003	.066	.947

From the results in Table 1, the beta weights which represent the contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable are as follows: extraversion, (β=.164, 3.623; $p<.05$) and agreeableness, (β= .050, 1.102; $p>.05$) and neuroticism, (β= .152, 3.727; $p<.05$), openness ((β= .351, 8.179; $p<.05$), conscientiousness (β=

.003, .066; p>.05). Of all the attributes, only three (extraversion, neuroticism and openness) made a significant contribution to Counsellor Efficiency; openness is the most potent predictor, followed by neuroticism and then extraversion.

Table 2: ANOVA table showing Regression Analysis between the Big five and Counsellor Efficiency

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	64915.553	5	12983.111	56.729	.000[a]
	Residual	131365.997	574	228.861		
	Total	196281.550	579			

Table 2 indicates that the analysis of variance of the multiple regression data produced an F-ratio value of 56.729 which is significant at $p < .05$ and shows that the prediction of Counsellor Efficiency by the attributes of big five is significant. Hence, the null hypothesis that says "the Big five personality attributes will not significantly predict Counsellor efficiency" is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that Big five personality attributes jointly predict Counsellor efficiency.

Table 3: Model summary of Multiple Regression Analysis between the Big five and Counsellor Efficiency

Mod	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std Error of the Estimate
1	.575[a]	.331	.325	15.12814

The result in Table 3 shows that the independent variables (Big five personality attributes) when put together yielded an R-value of .575 with an adjusted R square value of .325 which indicates that the attributes of Extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and agreeableness accounted for Thirty-two point five percent (32.5%) of the variance in counsellor efficiency

Hypothesis 2: Emotional intelligence attributes will not significantly predict Counsellor Efficiency.

Table 4: Relative Contribution of the emotional intelligence attributes to Counsellor Efficiency

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	25.585	2.283		11.207	.000
	Self-awareness	.940	.190	.182	4.950	.000
	Managing Emotions	-.358	.213	-.060	-1.677	.094
	Empathy	.982	.211	.197	4.655	.000
	Motivating Oneself	.317	.195	.061	1.625	.105
	Social Skills	2.402	.190	.505	12.672	.000

From the results in Table 4, the following are the beta weights which represent the contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable: self –

awareness, (β=-.182, 4.950; p<.05) and managing emotions, (β= -.060, -1.677; p>.05) and empathy (β= 1.97, 4.655; p<.05), motivation oneself, (β= 0.61, 1.625; p>.05), and social skills (β= .505, 12.675; p<.05). All the attributes of emotional intelligence made significant contribution to counsellor efficiency except managing emotions and motivating oneself.

Table 5: ANOVA table showing Regression Analysis between the emotional intelligence attributes and Counsellor Efficiency

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	121381.016	5	24276.203	186.041	.000[a]
	Residual	74900.534	574	130.489		
	Total	196281.550	579			

Table 5 indicates that the analysis of variance of the multiple regression data produced an F-ratio value of 186.041 which is significant at p < .05 and shows that the correlation of the attributes of emotional intelligence and Counsellor Efficiency is significant. Hence, the null hypothesis that says "Emotional intelligence attributes will not significantly predict Counsellor Efficiency" is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that Emotional intelligence attributes jointly predict Counsellor Efficiency.

Table 6: Model summary of Multiple Regression Analysis between the emotional intelligence attributes and Counsellor Efficiency

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.786[a]	.618	.615	11.42317

The result presented in Table 6 shows that the independent variables which are the emotional intelligence attributes (self–awareness, managing emotions, empathy, motivating oneself and social skills) when put together yielded an R-value (.786) with an adjusted R^2 (.615) which shows that the joint attributes of self–awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and social skills account for only Sixty-one point five percent (61.5%) of the variance in Counsellor efficiency.

Hypothesis 3: The Big five personality attributes and emotional intelligence will not significantly predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools.

Table 7: Relative Contribution of personality and emotional intelligence attributes to counsellor efficiency

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	9.549	2.992		3.191	.001
	Counsellor Personality	.344	.052	.210	6.561	.000

Emotional Intelligence	.788	.040	.626	19.572	.000

From the results in Table 7, each of the independent variables made a significant contribution to the prediction of counsellor efficiency. The results indicate that the following beta weights which represent the contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable were observed: personality, (β=.210, 6.561; p<.05) and emotional intelligence (β= .626, 19.572; p<.05). Personality and emotional intelligence made significant contribution to counsellor efficiency except managing emotions and motivating oneself.

Table 8: ANOVA table showing regression analysis of (personality and emotional intelligence) and counsellor efficiency

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1	Regression	112554.817	2	56277.409	387.834	.000[a]
	Residual	83726.733	577	145.107		
	Total	196281.550	579			

Table 8 indicates that the analysis of variance of the multiple regression data produced an F-ratio value of 387.834which is significant at p < .05 and shows that the joint correlation of personality/emotional intelligence and Counsellor Efficiency is significant. Hence, the null hypothesis that says ''The Big five personality dimension and emotional intelligence will not significantly predict counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools'' is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that the Big five personality dimension and emotional intelligence significantly predicted counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools.

Table 9: Model summary of multiple regression analysis of predictor variables (personality and emotional intelligence) and counsellor efficiency

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.757[a]	.573	.572	12.04604

The result presented in Table 9 shows that the independent variables which are personality and emotional intelligence when put together yielded an R-value (.757) with an adjusted R^2 (.572). This implies that personality attributes and emotional intelligence jointly account for only Fifty-seven point two percent (57.2%) of the variance in Counsellor Efficiency.

Discussion

The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that attributes of emotional intelligence and personality either collectively or separately are potent predictors of counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools. The results revealed that big five personality attributes (extraversion, openness, neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness) separately are potent predictors of counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools. This is similar to Popoola (2004) whose study revealed that counsellors' personality characteristics predict counsellor effectiveness and Woko

(2012) who reported that personality traits had a significant joint relationship with counsellors' job satisfaction. Each of the independent variables made a significant contribution to the prediction of counsellor efficiency except agreeableness and conscientiousness. It implies that these attributes could account for counsellor efficiency. Of all the attributes, only three (extraversion, neuroticism and openness) made significant contribution to the prediction of counsellor's efficiency; openness is the most potent predictor, followed by neuroticism and then extraversion. This finding differs from the findings of Woko (2012) who found that neuroticism had a negative relationship with counsellors' job satisfaction.

In addition, the results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that all the attributes of emotional intelligence separately made significant contribution to the prediction of counsellor efficiency except managing emotions and motivating oneself. This implies that emotional intelligence is essential in enhancing counsellors' preparedness and discharge of duties while dealing with clients. This result is similar to the findings of Daodu, Elegbede and Lapite (2015) who showed that emotional intelligence has a significant relationship to school counsellor efficacy in terms of making decisions, solving problems, planning and organizing programmes that are consistent with behaviours of professional counsellors. Also, an earlier study by Olonisakin (2002) drummed up support for emotional intelligence as a significant variable in predicting human success.

In support of the above assertion, Easton (2004) had earlier highlighted that elements of emotional intelligence and confidence in the process of counselling can be regarded as a core built-quality counselling service. In the same vein, Tindle (2016) recently argued that counselling psychologists require a well-developed 'emotional intelligence' comprising intra and interpersonal skills, knowledge and experience and outstanding listening and reflection skills. They need to be sensitive to every cue and innuendo of nonverbal behaviour, facial, voice and body expressions. This is because, with respect to counsellors, the level of emotional intelligence affects their therapeutic competence in working with children as well as adults (Easton, Martin & Wilson, 2008).

The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that emotional intelligence and personality collectively are potent predictors of counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools. Personality and emotional intelligence made significant contribution to the prediction of counsellor efficiency. This finding lends credence to the fact that a counsellor's understanding of self in terms of his/her emotional intelligence and personality can contribute in no small measure to his/her efficiency in delivering counselling services. This finding agrees with that of Samuel (2011) who found that personality and emotional intelligence had significant correlations with psychological well-being. The results equally showed that emotional intelligence is the most predictor. This agrees with the finding of Fakolade (2014) that emotional intelligence is a more potent predictor of achievement. This is supported by an earlier assertion of Olawale (2002) that counselling is emotionally demanding. Hence, for any counsellor to be effective in the execution of his/her counselling programme, he or she must be necessarily emotionally mature.

Conclusion and Recommendations
From the findings of the study, it was concluded that the big five personality and emotional intelligence attributes when taken separately significantly predicted counsellor efficiency. Also, the attributes jointly predicted counsellor efficiency in senior secondary schools. Based on the findings of this study, the researchers

recommend that counsellors should develop attributes and competencies in the desirable domains of personality and emotional intelligence in order to prepare for circumstances which may be a source of threat to their efficiency in delivering counselling services. The counsellors should focus more on the attributes of emotional intelligence because of their high predictive value. Counsellor educators in the field of counselling should endeavour to impact the cultivatable and desirable attributes of personality and emotional intelligence on counsellor trainees. Personal-emotional attributes need to be incorporated into the criteria requirements for employing practicing counsellors.

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Teaching emotions for citizenship participation within a culture of human rights

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Abstract

This study seeks to identify and defend emotions, which should be developed by teachers among students so that they are encouraged to reflect on their motivation for citizenship participation. Drawing from literature in moral philosophy and education, the study follows a philosophical approach to argue that students need motivation that is informed by public reason while supported by emotions for citizenship participation. In particular, feelings of patriotism are necessary in order for students to think seriously about citizenship participation. It is also argued that good patriots do not just participate in citizenship but participate in particular ways such as showing compassion for their fellow citizens through the provision of material aid to those in need as part of the general welfare of society. The emotion of patriotism and compassion are considered appropriate for sustaining a society that is rooted in the respect for human rights. The study also acknowledges that teachers need to understand why emotions should be developed and how they should be taught in citizenship education as an over-arching aim of education.

Keywords: Citizenship participation, Inclusive citizenship. Moral action. Patriotism. Compassion.

Introduction

The development of critical thinking is hardly a controversial subject in citizenship education as an over-arching aim of education. For instance, it is acknowledged that critical thinking is necessary in the preparation of students for their future role in society such as deliberation in democratic life. In addition, critical thinking is regarded necessary in the preparation of students for their adulthood so that they develop self-sufficiency and self-direction (Bailin & Siegel, 2003). What is often regarded as controversial in the philosophy of education literature is the development of emotions such as patriotism. The research question, on which this article is based therefore, is what is the role of emotions in motivating students to consider citizenship participation?

It is necessary to consider what motivates students to participate in citizenship whether we perceive them as citizens now or in the future. It is recognised that the moral motivations of people to participate in citizenship may be motivated by the desire to right a wrong, to help, or to enhance the doings and beings of others as part of the pursuit for social justice. However, there are indications that these moral motivations need to be supplemented by emotions (Callan, 1997; 2006; Hand, 2011; Nussbaum, 2013; White, 2001) in order to enable citizens to overcome powerlessness in their citizenship participation. For instance, fear may prevent people from doing what they ought to do while feelings of indignation, which are incorporated in the virtue of justice (Kristjánsson, 2010), may motivate individuals to persist against the threat of a security force that is armed with an assortment of weapons during a protest demonstration. Most virtues such as compassion including

care already incorporate emotions, making them suitable for motivating citizens to participate in citizenship. However, we still need to consider how we may supplement motivation within the duties (in human rights), so that citizens may be able to do what they ought to do. The provision of reasons such as the desire to right a wrong may not be sufficient on its own to sustain motivation for citizenship participation among students.

To argue that emotions should be incorporated in the teaching of students to become participating citizens does not mean that there is consensus on the involvement of emotions for citizenship participation. In particular, disagreements on the involvement of emotions are based on the particularity of emotions such as anchoring them on historical narratives, memories and symbols of the nation. It is perceived that anchoring emotions for citizenship participation on a particular nation has the potential danger of clouding students' judgement about the character of the nation (Archard, 1999; Hand, 2011). Yet those who support the involvement of emotions in citizenship participation and education (Callan, 1997; Nussbaum, 2013) argue that the nation is the best possible alternative on which students could develop the necessary emotions that would make them participate in citizenship at both national and global level. It is not clear though, how the emotions may be extended to the global level if they are attached to the nation as the particular. Brighouse (2006) argues that patriots are partial towards their compatriots such that they may consider people who are near and dear when giving material aid to those in need. Any study that looks at the involvement of emotions in citizenship education therefore, should answer the question of how emotions developed from partial connections at national level could be extended to global level.

In this article, I argue that students need motivation that is informed by public reason while supported by emotions for citizenship participation. In particular, feelings of patriotism are necessary in order for students to think seriously about citizenship participation. It is also argued that good patriots do not just participate in citizenship but participate in particular ways such as showing compassion for their fellow citizens through the provision of material aid to those in need as part of the general welfare of society. The emotion of patriotism and compassion are "appropriate for citizenship participation because they sustain a decent society" (Nussbaum, 2013: 15). So, this study seeks to identify and defend emotions which should be developed by teachers so that students are encouraged to reflect on their motivation for citizenship participation. The study also acknowledges that teachers need to understand why emotions should be developed and how they should be taught in citizenship education.

My discussion begins by setting the scene through addressing the debate on teaching emotions in citizenship education. I then, discuss the teaching of patriotism as an emotional feeling or attachment to one's country or nation following Callan (1997). In this discussion, I raise some of the challenges of developing patriotism for motivating students' citizenship participation including how these problems may be resolved. I also use Nussbaum's (2013) ideas to discuss the development of an appropriate patriotism that is supported by compassion in order to encourage students to act for the general welfare of society. The discussion of compassion also includes ideas on how citizenship participation developed within a particular nation may be extended to global level. I then conclude the article by responding to the question of what emotions mean for the public dimension of citizenship education.

Understanding the rationale of motivation for citizenship participation through emotions in citizenship education

There is a need to consider the objections of those who are opposed to the teaching of emotions if we are to defend it in citizenship education. For instance, political emotions such as the love of one's country are said to compromise critical reasoning among students (Archard, 1999) because they attach students to particular symbols, the history of the community, as well as its heroes and heroines rather than a general critical reasoning detached from the particular.

It is argued that people should be individuals rather than patriots or inheritors of a tradition or identity (such as *Britishness or South Africanness*) which may be repudiated even if one were born into it. Miller (2007) also argues that the teaching of patriotism in the United States, which is based on a particularistic citizenship, should be replaced with commitment to a global social movement in order to ensure that critical reasoning counters the lack of attention to excesses of American foreign policy. Basically, the general feeling among those who are sceptical about the teaching of political emotions (Archard, 1999; Hand, 2011; Miller, 2007) is that it is difficult to teach emotions with confidence because they cloud students' judgement about the character of the nation. The view that emotions cloud students' judgement is held despite acceptance that most emotions are evaluative judgements which can be moderated by thought.

On the other hand, those who advocate the teaching of political emotions (Callan, 1997; Nussbaum, 2013) acknowledge that motivation for students to participate in citizenship is developed through emotions associated with particularity such as the nation's history, poetry and symbols. The development of these particularised emotions is not only meant to develop the love of one's nation but attachment of students' emotions to the nation's ideals of equality and freedom (Callan, 1997; Nussbaum, 2013). According to Callan (1994; 1997) the attachment of emotions to rationally developed principles of justice such as equality and freedom minimises the potential danger of clouding students' judgement about the character of the nation. In addition, the teaching of emotions should be accompanied by critical thinking in order to avoid the development of bad emotions such as xenophobia (Nussbaum, 2013).

It is therefore, argued that the nation is the most suitable entity for the generation of strong emotions (Nussbaum, 2013) which may then be generalised to the rest of humanity given that emotions are attached to common ideals of freedom and equality. I expand more on these issues in different sections of the article including the development of emotions necessary to motivate citizens to sacrifice their self-interests for the sake of the common good. I also support the involvement of emotions in motivating students to participate in citizenship education. This support for the involvement of emotions does not ignore the concerns raised earlier regarding the distortion of students' judgement about the character of the nation. Instead, the attachment of emotions to rationally developed principles of justice such as equality and freedom as well as critical thinking in teaching emotions (Callan, 1997; Nussbaum, 2013) addresses bias concerns. For instance, the attachment of emotions to rationally developed ideals of tolerance and people's rights may guide students when pursuing new ideals for the nation such as those advanced by politicians during an election.

In addition, students may guard against bad or inappropriate emotions such as the projection of disgust on minority groups by populist politicians or students' peers. Inappropriate emotions lead to division of the nation and social problems such as

xenophobia and religious intolerance. The emotional feelings of patriotism and compassion advocated here are appropriate for motivating citizenship participation in a decent society because they promote an inclusive citizenship that does not marginalise any member of society according to race, gender, religion, disability or any other characteristic.

My discussion considers emotions necessary for students to be excited about pursuing the nation's goals or doing what they ought to do. Most people are unlikely to solely depend on civic duty in their citizenship participation such as voting during an election. Instead, the emotions associated with political campaigns, including those aroused by the charisma of candidates, may motivate citizens to do what they ought to do which is registering and voting for the elections. It is also precisely because of the possible challenge of being misled by devotion to political candidates and peers that students require guidance in critical thinking as well as focus on the ideals of the nation such as tolerance and respect for people's rights.

According to Kristjánsson (2010), emotions and identity (or moral selves) are regarded in moral psychology as the two motivations responsible for closing the gap between cognition and moral action. The two motivations are combined in the same person in the form of emotional virtues, such as compassion where emotions are infused with reason. However, there is a good chance that we could motivate students to participate in citizenship through emotions even without the character traits (or identity) implied in emotional virtues. The following discussion on patriotism illustrates this point.

Motivation for citizenship participation through the teaching of patriotism in citizenship education

Patriotism is defined by Callan (2002), as an "active identification with one's particular nation as a cross-generational political community whose flourishing one prizes and seeks to advance" (p. 468). From this definition we may observe that patriots have an emotional attachment to their nation, and this attachment or identification motivates the citizen to act for the common good rather than self-interest. Peterson (2011) explains that "Moral notions of the common good are moral in so much as they presuppose and involve the existence of essential ties, or bonds between citizens within a particular community" (p. 22).

The presupposition of strong ties between citizens may be interpreted to mean that emotions such as the love of one's community are essential in order to fulfil one's duties concerned with acting for "*the general welfare of society*" (Peterson, 2011: 25, emphasis in original) as the common good is known in political theory. Despite the association of the common good with citizenship approaches such as republicanism and communitarianism, there is no reason to think that acting in the general welfare of society does not apply to liberalism (especially political liberalism as opposed to comprehensive liberalism). For instance, the national curriculum for citizenship education in England includes community participation as one of its strands (McLaughlin, 2000).

However, there is a lot of debate on the teaching of patriotism despite its relevance for motivating citizens to act for the common good. The reluctance to include patriotism as part of citizenship education arises from the view that it is not clear what situation or feature of the nation actually triggers patriotism (Hand, 2011). In the case of other emotions such as compassion we may perceive that thoughts concerning the undeserved misfortune of the other may trigger feelings of compassion.

However, the love of one's community is not diminished by situations such as bad actions or history. The lack of this cognitive component in patriotism makes it vulnerable to criticism that it may distort students' thinking about what they ought to do. So, if we are going to justify the teaching of patriotism according to Hand (2011), we may only do so by looking at the benefits that accrue from it such as acting for the common good instead of what actually causes patriotism. We may also observe as some may argue, that we do not need patriotism since it is only necessary to supplement our motivation "to do what we ought to do" (Hand, 2011: 335). Citizens may be motivated to act for the common good based on other reasons such as fulfilling their duties.

It is easy to take a neutral stand on the teaching of patriotism given the controversies surrounding it. For instance, Hand (2011) contends that we should teach patriotism as a controversial subject since there are good reasons for teaching or not teaching it. By teaching patriotism as a controversial subject, he means that we should alert students to the benefits of patriotism and its dangers so that they may decide for themselves. His position is that patriotism as emotional education should be rational rather than non-rational. He maintains that rational emotional education provides students with good reasons for changing their emotional responses and uses teaching strategies that allow students to make decisions based on good reasons rather than being manipulated. For instance, he rejects the "singing of the national anthem, saluting flags and swearing oaths" (Hand, 2011: 331) as non-rational emotional education. In his view of teaching patriotism as a controversial subject, he admits that students will encounter feelings of patriotism at some point of their lives, and that students may find it difficult to understand most of their history without feelings of patriotism. However, he insists that teachers should approach the subject of patriotism by exploring all possible solutions without endorsing any of them as part of rational emotional education.

My view is that patriotism should be promoted as a good rather than a controversial subject while I also agree with Hand (2011) that we should avoid non-rational forms of teaching patriotism. It is possible for teachers to explore different aspects of patriotism during a history lesson but still bring into focus those things that are valuable for students to love or cherish such as the ideals of equality and freedom. Students are likely to be indifferent about their support for public reason such as justice as fairness which involves the distribution of resources to those in need if we teach patriotism solely as a controversial issue or subject. Patriotism is important for the stability of a democracy including the incorporation of marginalised groups in society. Nussbaum (2013) observes that a good society with good democratic principles and firm aspirations to achieve those good principles needs feelings such as patriotism in order to sustain the stability of a democracy and protect it from being destabilised by self-interest, hypocrisy, greed, anxiety and many other common ills in society. Teaching patriotism as a controversial subject risks the stability of the nation as students may be indifferent about the things that they should be passionate about or simply avoid feelings of patriotism as controversial, and dependent on whatever one thinks as an individual.

However, to argue that patriotism should not be taught as a controversial subject does not tell us much about how it should be taught since I have made a case that it should be promoted. Callan (1994; 2002) wrestles with this challenge as well when he observes that teaching the truth about the history of a nation does not always inspire feelings of patriotism. Criticism in the search for an accurate truth particularly in history may lead to an "implacable scepticism" (Callan, 1994: 204) which may

make students question everything around them but fail to inspire a sense of patriotism. In addition, students may be disappointed by inconvenient truths from history which may reveal their heroes and heroines as imperfect. At the same time, the teaching of a narrative history built on myth such as the omission of actions that could have been taken but were ignored without good reason may be construed as sentimental education (Callan, 1994). Sentimental education according to Callan (1994) is concerned with arousing public emotions that students have not psychologically developed as their own. In other words, they are feelings of patriotism that are inauthentic in so far as they are not developed from students' reason. Uncritical patriotism may also involve bad emotions due to peer pressure such as the projection of disgust onto others.

Motivation for citizenship participation through incorporation of justice into teaching patriotism

A possible solution to the challenge described above is to match a nation's ideals of democracy such as the values of freedom and equality against the narrative of a nation's history. A "political morality that insists on freedom and equality for all" according to Callan (2002: 476) may serve as a useful filter for learning the narrative history of one's nation. He explains that it is important for students to understand how ideals of the country they would inherit are enacted and sometimes sacrificed at the altar of political expediency by those who are considered the guardians of the nation's principles. If students use freedom and equality as their political morality, they could develop patriotism as a result of shame at the nation's history such as the inequalities that may exist in society despite the ideals of justice held by the nation (Nussbaum, 2013; White, 2001).

In this regard, the students develop feelings of patriotism that are psychologically their own rather than sentimental public emotions. Students may also use their imagination based on the nation's ideals of justice when considering reasons for taking one action over other possible alternatives taken in the past (Callan, 1994). Ultimately, the difference between the nation's ideals of justice and the existing reality may inspire students to think about transforming their nation if necessary. The role of justice in teaching patriotism is central to avoiding what Callan (2006) describes as an 'idolatrous love' of country in favour of a morally apt patriotism (Brighouse, 2006). An idolatrous patriotism, according to Callan (2006), is one that is grounded in a mistake about the character of the nation as the beloved object. Any patriotism that is not based on the values of justice is likely to be idolatrous. Idolatrous patriotism is still love for one's country but it is loving one's country badly (Callan, 2004). Examples of an idolatrous patriotism may include xenophobic patriotism as well as other forms of patriotism such as where the good of the nation is described according to one particular social group or religious belief (Brighouse, 2006).

A contrast to idolatrous patriotism is a morally apt patriotism which according to Brighouse (2006) "is attentive to the force of other, non-patriotic, moral demands and permissions" (p. 550). In other words, a morally apt patriotism is sensitive to justice. From what I have described here, we may observe that the choice between an idolatrous patriotism and a morally apt patriotism ultimately depends on how patriotism is taught in the classroom. Avoiding the teaching of patriotism is not an alternative either since students might learn idolatrous patriotism from their peers outside the school. So, what would a morally apt patriotism look like in a school? Thus far I have raised doubts about Hand's (2011) answer to this question where he

advocates that we should teach patriotism as a controversial subject. To teach an important subject such as patriotism as a controversial subject is risky; when it comes to the stability of a nation and a flourishing democracy it is important not to be indecisive and neutral. Patriots as opposed to mere individuals are not apathetic about whether their democratic institutions are just (Callan, 2006) but they engage passionately in the affairs of the state (Brighouse, 2006).

If we are to motivate students to think seriously about citizenship participation, we need to develop their emotions in addition to giving reasons for and against patriotism. It would appear, therefore, that we need to adopt Callan's (1994; 1997; 2002) solution of matching the ideals of justice to the narrative history of a nation in order to answer the question of how to teach a morally apt patriotism. However, Brighouse (2006) observes that a morally apt patriotism is very difficult to develop under any circumstances. He explains that an idolatrous patriotism often finds it easy to develop because of the difficulty in constructing a morally apt patriotism. One might agree that the morally apt patriotism described by Callan (1997; 2002) is difficult to develop because it is abstract and involves a lot of imagination. Nussbaum (2013) also follows a morally apt patriotism, which is why she argues for appropriate emotions. Both Callan and Nussbaum argue that the teaching of patriotism cannot succeed in motivating citizenship participation without justice because of the danger of descending into an idolatrous patriotism characterised by xenophobia and other forms of discrimination. They also agree that patriotism is necessary in order to motivate citizens to support just institutions in a liberal democracy. Yet Nussbaum (2013) takes on a more practical approach to patriotism by describing other emotions, such as compassion, anger and hope which are necessary to support public reason.

Compassion may be related to the duties of material aid while anger may be associated with the duty of justice. Nussbaum's (2013) practical approach also includes the use of rituals, symbols, memories as well as poetry and narrative history to develop particularised emotions that are necessary to support principles of justice. In the following section I look at some of the emotions that she describes as having "their roots in, or are forms of love" (Nussbaum, 2013: 15) that are necessary to support public reason.

Motivation for citizenship participation through the teaching of patriotism as part of public reason

To extend my discussion in this section I focus on motivation for citizenship participation through the attachment of emotions on political norms such as respect for equality. Nussbaum (2006; 2013) observes that the motivation for people to participate in citizenship requires the attachment of emotions to political norms such as tolerance and respect for the rights of others. Young people in particular need poetry and narratives in citizenship education in order to develop emotions that are supportive of the political norms of tolerance and respect for the rights of others.

Nussbaum (2006) agrees with Kant that people often behave in ways that militate against toleration and respect for the moral law (or rights) even with good social teaching at times. She therefore suggests that citizens do not only need knowledge on political norms of tolerance and respect for other people's rights but emotional attachment to these political norms so that citizens may appreciate their importance (Nussbaum, 2006). She endorses Rawls's (1993) observation that citizens are likely to sacrifice their interests to secure and maintain the political goals of equality and tolerance if they do not only support the political norms but value or

cherish them. Political emotions are therefore, necessary to motivate individuals to support principles of democracy. It would be difficult to dispute Nussbaum's view on the attachment of students' emotions to political norms in order to motivate them to participate in citizenship because her view does not only respect students' reason but also allows them to guard against inappropriate emotions. Nussbaum (2013) observes that we need to ward off some of the "forces that lurk in all societies and, ultimately, in all of us: tendencies to protect the fragile self by denigrating and subordinating others" (p. 3).

Appropriate emotions recognise the humanity of others such that there are no citizens who are considered inferior or second-class citizens. In other words, appropriate emotions are exercised in ways that are consistent with rationally developed political norms of tolerance and respect for the rights of others. At the same time, students through the emotions may be motivated to participate in citizenship in ways that demonstrate the love of the political goals of tolerance and respect for the rights of others. So, there is a symbiotic relationship between the emotions and the political norms in citizenship education. While the political norms encourage students to exercise emotions in appropriate ways consistent with the humanity of others such as justice as fairness, the emotions also encourage strong attachment to the political norms of justice so that they are exercised or realised.

Motivation for citizenship participation: the particularity of patriotism and other emotions in citizenship education

Motivation for citizenship participation develops from the nation state as the particular and extends to the global or universal level when emotions are attached to political norms in the manner described above. In her characterisation of patriotism, Nussbaum (2008) explains that

although it calls the mind to many aspects of humanity that lead the mind beyond its domestic confines- for example human need or the struggle for justice and equality - patriotism is also reducibly attached to particular memories, geographical features and plans for the future (p. 79).

In other words, political norms such as tolerance and the respect for people's rights, which may be considered universal, are contextualised through historical narratives, symbols, geography and poetry so that they concretise students' feelings. Osler (2009) also explains that universal values of "belief in democracy, the rule of law, tolerance, [and] equal treatment for all" (p. 86) are justified as British values in the citizenship education curriculum for England because they tell the British story of how democracy has developed in Britain. In this way, the nation becomes the pillar on which citizens latch their feelings of patriotism but it does not end there. Instead, passions developed around justice within the nation may be used to fuel similar causes elsewhere beyond the nation.

However, some people think that patriotism narrows the mind to those who are near and dear at the expense of global justice. Brighouse (2006) criticises the morally apt patriotism described earlier as limiting the achievement of global justice. He argues that while he supports the idea of a morally apt patriotism defended by Callan (2006) as opposed to an idolatrous patriotism, the challenge is that patriots tend to be partial to their compatriots when it comes to charity donations. He compares the actions of patriots to members of a family who are likely to be partial to other members of the same family. However, Nussbaum (2013) argues that it does not follow that members of a family should treat others outside the family differently even if we were to characterise the nation as a family. Instead, "we may think that all

families deserve a decent level of support and family love can be tethered to that norm" (Nussbaum, 2013: 212). Given this view, it seems probable that we should ground our motivation for citizenship participation on the nation state because it provides a rich source for our passions rooted in symbols, rituals, memories and geographical features as opposed to the abstract and thin view of humanity. Students in citizenship education may be encouraged to expand their sacrifices and sympathies to global justice from the nation state.

What gives us further incentive for moving from the particular to the universal in motivating students for citizenship participation is that the nation, as described by Callan (2006) and Nussbaum (2008; 2013), is an abstraction based on narrative history and ideals in addition to its physical attributes. Both Callan and Nussbaum envisage the aspirations and narrative history of a nation to play an important role in fuelling a sense of patriotism for citizenship participation among students. However, they also acknowledge that there could be various interpretations to a nation's history.

These different interpretations to the nation's narrative may highlight some issues while it obscures others into the background. Nussbaum (2008) therefore, suggests that we should "select from the many versions of a nation's history the one that makes best constructive sense against the background of the core moral commitments of the decent society" (p. 83). For instance, she argues that a good patriotism should develop compassion for people in need, anger and hope against injustice, as well as repress emotions associated with the projection of shame and disgust onto others which tends to divide or destabilise a nation. In the following paragraph I explain that this is not similar to being selective or biased about the nation's history but it is consistent with public reason.

Nussbaum's position on the use of narrative history suggests that it is justifiable in so far as it supports public reason within a plurality of ideas. For instance, she encourages teachers in citizenship education to present the history of the "denigrated group as part of a "we" that suffered together in the past and is working together for a future of justice" (p. 211). Such a view of narrative history promotes an inclusive citizenship that recognises the existence of diversity in society. Osler (2009) also observes that the Ajegbo Report added a strand called "identity: living together in the UK" (p. 86) in the citizenship education curriculum for England. An inclusive citizenship makes it possible to develop altruistic feelings of compassion for people in need including anger at injustice against people in less powerful positions within the political relations of power that exist in society. Teachers need to make students appreciate the value of others as part of developing appropriate emotions necessary for motivation in citizenship participation. Nussbaum (2008) considers narratives, poetry, rituals and memories of a nation in citizenship education as "vehicles of public reason" (p. 83). She does not agree that narratives and other methods for developing emotions for public reason should be confined to the background culture of society.

It is also necessary to keep in mind that the use of emotions to support public reason in teaching patriotism does not only reject an enforced homogeneity in terms of culture but encourages critical reasoning as well. Nussbaum (2006) agrees with Kant that the "vigilant protection of freedoms of speech, press and scholarship" (p. 168) are important in resolving the problem of people acting against toleration and respect for the rights of others. What she means is that we do not only need to attach people's emotions to political norms of tolerance and respect for people's rights but we need to defend their freedom of speech, press and scholarship as well.

These freedoms which constitute part of public reason are necessary because there is a recognition that while patriotism calls people to sacrifice their self-interests for the sake of the common good, (idolatrous) patriotism may also make people to see themselves differently from others (Nussbaum, 2012) such that those who are considered not patriotic 'enough' may be excluded from citizenship participation. The recognition of the freedoms of speech, press and scholarship presupposes a critical public culture and promotion of critical thinking in teaching patriotism. So, both critical thinking and the development of emotions can co-exist in citizenship education in the teaching of patriotism.

Thus far, I have added more information on what an acceptable or morally apt patriotism would look like in a school than what I discussed earlier relating to Callan (1997). For instance, a morally apt patriotism would use poetry, narratives, rituals and memories which are embodied in the nation itself in order to develop emotions necessary to arouse students' interest in citizenship participation. These emotions should promote an inclusive citizenship or patriotism that recognises the humanity of others as well as their diversity. On the other hand, inappropriate emotions such as the projection of disgust onto others should be suppressed because they cause division and instability. In addition, citizenship education should not only reflect the diversity of people's culture but encourage the diversity of opinions and critical thinking. Peterson (2011) also observes that "we would primarily seek to develop within students a willingness to engage in deliberation with others" (p. 28) if we understand educating for the common good within citizenship education in political terms.

Conclusion

In this article, I have argued that we need emotions because dependence on duties alone is not sufficient to motivate students' commitment to rationally developed principles such as tolerance and respect for people's rights in their citizenship participation. In particular, feelings of patriotism are essential in order to motivate students to care deeply about national ideals of equality and freedom. Emotions also need to be utilised within the moral principles of justice in order to avoid attitudes that cause divisions such as perceiving other citizens as not patriotic enough or classified as second-class citizens. So, emotions are necessary for our commitment to moral principles or national ideals while moral principles also assist us to ensure that emotions are utilised in appropriate ways that do not cause divisions and derail the national goals of equality and freedom. At the same time, teaching patriotism for motivation in citizenship participation does not imply homogeneity in culture and critical thinking. Students are allowed to engage in dialogue and critically analyse their narrative history so that they develop feelings of patriotism that are psychologically their own rather than sentimental public emotions. Lastly, what I have said in this article about teaching emotions including critical thinking as well as ethical reasoning has implications for teacher education. A teacher who does not understand the role of emotions in citizenship education as well as critical thinking and ethical reasoning would find it difficult to teach citizenship education as an over-arching aim of education within the curriculum.

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An analysis of entrepreneurial education component of selected agricultural training institutions' curricula in Zambia

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Abstract

The article highlights the adequacy of entrepreneurial education in the curriculum of Agricultural Training Institutions (ATIs) of the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAL) in Zambia. The main objective of the study was to analyse the adequacy of the entrepreneurial education component of selected Agricultural Training Institutions curricula in Zambia. Little research points to the adequacy of entrepreneurial education in ATIs curricula. A descriptive survey research design was employed using a mixed methods approach but with greater focus on a qualitative approach. A sample size of 348 was used, of which 48 were interviewed comprising 10 Principals or Vice Principals (Management), 10 Registrars or Assistant Registrars, 10 Librarians or Assistant Librarians, 10 Farm Managers or Assistant Farm Managers, 3 officials from Zambia National Farmers' Union, 2 officials from Technical Education Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority, 3 officials from the University of Zambia School of Agricultural Sciences. 300 open ended questionnaires were administered to respondents consisting 240 final year students and 60 ATIs training officers. Purposive and simple random sampling procedures were used. Quantitative data were analysed using frequencies, percentages and tables while qualitative data were analysed thematically. Most of the respondents interviewed acknowledged that the current ATI curricula did not adequately address entrepreneurial education in ATIs. It was also observed that the present curricula were anchored on training students for employment in the public sector and scarcely in the private sector. The study concludes that entrepreneurial education in ATIs curricula was inadequate. This research, therefore, recommends the use of interactive methods for students to put into practice investigative and decision-making skills in order to be self-reliant when they graduate.

Keywords: Agricultural training. Entrepreneurial education. Curriculum. Interactive methods.

Introduction

The lack of technically trained human resources, in the agricultural sector, at the time of independence in 1964, was among the major constraints to the rapid growth of the Zambian economy. To ameliorate the situation, a number of Agricultural Training Institutions (ATIs) were created. However, the ever increasing number of graduates from ATIs and other learning institutions seeking formal employment is creating challenges for the Zambian government (MACO, 2004).The educational system in Zambia needs to be reviewed in order to provide knowledge and skills which are appropriate for today's economic realities. So far, the focus of education and training programmes in Zambia has been in the development and preparation of jobseekers. High population growth rates and the accompanying increases in the labour force have not been matched with corresponding increases in job creation (Kelly, 2010).

Entrepreneurial education is vital to promoting job creation (Akiri, 2011). It stimulates creativity in students and enables them to discover opportunities for innovations. It motivates them to transform ideas into practical targeted activities that give students apt knowledge and skills which enable them to be self-reliant. For the past ten years, the importance of entrepreneurial education has been broadly acknowledged as a basic skill to be provided through lifelong learning and adult education. Therefore, different steps have been taken in many African countries including Zambia to review school curricula (Swartland, 2008).

Literature review

Literature has been suggesting that the most suitable indicator to appraise the results of entrepreneurial education in ATIs is the rate of new business creation in a country. However, studies that were undertaken by Yergin and Stanislow (2012) show that the results are not immediate. Additionally, researchers like Venkataraman (1997), Swartland (2008), Gartner (1988), Cooper and Dunkelberg (1987) have tried to understand activities of entrepreneurial education, which are necessary to assess entrepreneurial education. Entrepreneurial activity is an ingenious human accomplishment in a quest to generate profit through the creation or expansion of a business entity, by identifying and exploiting new products, making improvements on old ones, as well as identifying and exploiting processes or markets (Vesper, 1997).Wilson and Twaalhofen (2005) recognised the scope of entrepreneurial education which focuses on developing enterprising students. The authors argue that entrepreneurial education should be based on three fundamental aspects namely; knowledge, skills and attitude.

The knowledge aspect refers to understanding how to identify opportunities; this includes processes of creativity and innovation. Wilson and Twaalhofen (2005) further explained the need for students to acquire skills to enable them to plan; organise; manage; lead and delegate various tasks. Other necessary skills included are learning how to analyse, communicate, evaluate business enterprises and negotiate dealings effectively. Furthermore, assessing and taking risks, working as individuals as well as in teams were deemed to be significant skills for entrepreneurial education. The other attribute Wilson and Twaalhofen (2005) looked at was attitude, this focuses mainly on initiative and innovation in all aspects of life. Students ought to be self-motivated; determined to meet set objectives and have a feeling of self-empowerment. Vesper (1997) clarified that to enhance entrepreneurial education in training institutions, the contents of a curriculum and pedagogical methods should correspondingly address aspects of identifying business opportunities, organising of finance for start-up enterprise and the making of business plans.

Based on the synopsis of research available about the obtainable connection of entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial activities, the fundamental topics studied by different academics relating to entrepreneurial education were addressed. This study adopted the model of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) that analysed the contents and pedagogical methods of entrepreneurial education. They structured entrepreneurial education coverage around the following objectives:

i. To offer functional literacy with income generating activities to students that will enable them to be self-employed;

ii. To provide the students with adequate knowledge and skills in entrepreneurship that will enable them to be creative and innovative in business development;

iii. To offer students adequate skills and knowledge in marketing, calculated risk and opportunity recognition.

The role of any agricultural training institutions in stimulating positive insight of entrepreneurial education is crucial in bringing about cultural change. There is need for ATIs to relate their curricula and content of their courses to the background of students and preparation which they might have received during primary and secondary periods (MOE, 1977).This would seem to be what an earlier study by Ronan (1996) as well as later research Fayolle and Gailly (2008) who postulated that in order for entrepreneurial education to be successful at an agricultural training institution; there should be a relationship between entrepreneurial education with the goals of that institution, the content of courses and pedagogy. Long and McMullan (1984) revealed that entrepreneurial education prepares students to be responsible graduates, to take risks, to manage enterprises and to learn from the results by immersing themselves in real life learning experiences. Entrepreneurial education is progressively understood as a means where learning is obtained on an uninterrupted basis and in a more empirical and integrated way. Entrepreneurial educators need to respond by putting together a comprehensive outline of entrepreneurial activities with appropriate entrepreneurial aptitudes and attributes besides intended learning outcomes based on practical teaching and learning techniques (Fairlie, 2009).

Entrepreneurial education in ATIs is not only about learning how to create business plans and starting new enterprises; it involves creativity, innovation and learning experiences (Venkataraman, 1997). This argument is likewise supported by Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) who elucidated the significance of successful learning experiences in generating and increasing interest in entrepreneurial education. Dana (2001) mentioned that in entrepreneurial education approach, preferences should be consistent with active participation and that increased opportunities to participate in the classroom could increase student awareness and augments the ability to learn from experience. This is a recipe for critical thinking. Dana further argues that the aim should be on cultivating entrepreneurial proficiency. Anho (2011) suggested that entrepreneurial education could be integrated more in the curricula of all tertiary institutions of learning as opposed to restricting it to specialised faculties. This can be used to inculcate and uphold entrepreneurial environment in a learning institution in order to channel out self-reliant graduates.

Agricultural Training Institutions can be seen as engines of agricultural innovation and technological development. Invention and technological development can be transformed into innovations. They are an important transmission device changing rational findings into new products and service innovations. ATIs play key roles in developing talents of students, graduates and training officers. ATIs can help create a more entrepreneurial outlook among students by imparting a clear approval of risks and rewards, teaching prospects and appreciation of skills as well as creating and building enterprises. They can also play a role in developing entrepreneurial attributes in students (Ajufo, 2013). It has been recognised and acknowledged that agricultural training institutions need to be equipping their students better for diverse skills essential to run enterprises (Ronan, 1995). The whole concept of entrepreneurial education is to have enterprises that help generate employment opportunities for graduates. It is the most effective method for bridging the space between knowledge and enterprise creation. It also empowers an individual to be

willing to explore opportunities and take advantage of utilising scarce resources to the maximum benefit (Fairlie, 2009).

Agricultural training institutions in Zambia need to be reviewed in order to provide knowledge and skills which are appropriate for today's economic realities. The Education Reforms of 1977 and Focus on Learning of 1996 proposed by the Ministry of Higher Education was to embark on a number of interventions to enhance and contribute to the goals of quality education for all which would assist students to be self-reliant (Kelly, 2010). The ATIs' structures should be able to give support to students for them to obtain knowledge and skills in running and setting up enterprises in order to create jobs. It is actually the purpose of education to prepare individuals to live in society, to build up the new nature of the person essential to meet the challenges of life in any society (Charney & Libecup, 2000).

Objective of the Study
Research has revealed that entrepreneurial education has about ninety per cent (90%) bearing on all enterprises in growing economies and entrepreneurs provide fifty per cent (50%) of jobs in such countries (Anho, 2011). It was from this background that this study was undertaken to fill the knowledge gap on the nature and quality of entrepreneurial education in ATIs. Little research seems to have been conducted on ATIs to ascertain the adequacy or level of entrepreneurial education obtaining in Zambia. This position is confirmed by existing records on status of ATIs in Zambia, which point to the absence of either systematic study reports or research on the status of the institutions to establish the relevance of training programmes offered as they respond to the job market (MAL, 2014). The objective of the study was to assess the adequacy of entrepreneurial education in ATIs curricula. The study sought to answer the research question on how adequate entrepreneurial education was addressed in ATIs curricula.

Methodology
Generally, the research design integrated both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The main methods of data collection were questionnaires and interview guides. The questionnaire had both closed and open ended questions. The essence of combining data collection methodologies was to capture as much information from the respondents as possible. A total sample size of 348 was used. For the interviews, 48 respondents were interviewed comprising 10 Principals or Vice Principals (Management), 10 Registrars or Assistant Registrars, 10 Librarians or Assistant Librarians, 10 Farm Managers or Assistant Farm Managers, 3 officials from Zambia National Farmers Union, 2 officials from Technical Education Vocational and Entreprenuership Training Authority, and 3 officials from the School of Agricultural Sciences, University of Zambia. 300 open ended questionnaires were administered to respondents consisting 240 final year students and 60 ATIs training officers. Purposive and simple random sampling procedures were used. The approach to data collection was designed to attract and gain participation from ATIs and other stakeholders samples (Roscoe & Lang, 1975). Secondary data were collected through reports, documents and available literature at the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAL). Web based information was accessed. Quantitative data were analysed using frequencies, percentages and tables while qualitative data were analysed thematically.

Findings and Discussions

In discussing the findings of this research regarding curricula, the central question addressed was how adequate entrepreneurial education was in ATIs curricula. The issues looked at were course contents, pedagogical methods in ATIs and classroom facilities. The model of Fayolle and Gailly (2008) was considered when determining the adequacy of the entrepreneurial education component of selected Agricultural Training Institutions' curricula in Zambia.

Status of entrepreneurial education in ATIs curriculum

The courses in ATIs are mostly production oriented and conventional; they are arranged in line with the original goals and objectives for which the institutions were established rest mainly on food security and food production (MAFF, 1994). This is portrayed in the manner these training institutions currently carry out their functions. For instance, Zambia College of Agriculture in Monze and Zambia College of Agriculture in Mpika focus mainly on animal and crop production, Cooperative College puts emphasis on cooperatives development, Zambia Institute of Animal Health mainly deals with animal health, Zambia Horticultural Training Centre in Kalulushi offers training in horticulture, Katete Agricultural Marketing looks at marketing, Kasaka Fisheries Institute focus on fish production, while Palabana Dairy Training Institute concentrates on dairy and animal draught power (MAL, 2014).

Formulation of curricula issues related to adequacy of entrepreneurial education in agricultural training institutions

Decisions concerning course contents were made at different levels. Government from time to time issued directives to make relevant changes to programmes offered in ATIs. The Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock, similarly, had an input on decisions about curriculum issues. The ATIs Coordination Unit under the Department of Human Resources and Administration supervised the execution and the decisions made by the government. ATIs' management and heads of departments made decisions on what was to be taught in the colleges including the co-curricular activities. At classroom level and farm level, training officers and practical instructors were minimally involved while the learner was not involved in the selection of contents. Other stakeholders in the country namely; the Zambia National Farmers' Union, the University of Zambia-School of Agriculture, the Copperbelt University School of Agroforestry, the Technical Education Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority likewise were involved in the decision-making process of curriculum design. Additionally, institutions or industries such as Ministry of Health (Food and Nutrition) and Ministry of Local Government (Water and Sewerage) relevant to the subject matters were also asked for their inputs which were incorporated in the curriculum making process (MAL, 2014). The appraisal of students and instructional materials was done through academic boards (Wanchinga & Msimuko, 1996).

The focus in terms of contents of these categories in the formulation of the curriculum was quality assurance. In terms of subject matter, the focus was on production and food security rather than entrepreneurship. The weakness of the strategy was that learners particularly, in-service students were excluded from participating in curriculum formulation. Overall student responses showed that they were more confident in production (Crops, animals, fish, nutrition,) and felt less confident in entrepreneurship. The objective of the training was to prepare individuals for their future careers and specific activities and thus the curriculum plan

should help to develop skills and knowledge that will enable students to successfully enter the job market or be self-employed (Kelly, 2010).

Course contents

For the purpose of triangulating the information, students were asked to state to what extent they felt confident about the knowledge, skills and attitude they had been taught. The respondents felt that they had insufficient knowledge and skills that would enable them to engage in running a business as reflected in Table 1.

Table 1 Subjective rating of respondents on knowledge and skills

Competency	The Extent					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Non Response	Total
Idea generation to realisation of enterprise	26 (13%)	53 (26.5%)	68 (34%)	45 (22.5%)	8 (4%)	
Preparation of business plan	37 (18.5%)	59 (29.5%)	57 (28.5%)	44 (22%)	3 (1.5%)	
Enough knowledge in risk taking	18 (9%)	32 (16%)	89 (44.5%)	54 (27%)	7	200 (100%)
Opportunity Recognition in Enterprise Undertaking	14 (7%)	27 (13.5%)	95 (47.5%)	60 (30%)	4 (2%)	
Communication Skills	36 (18%)	39 (19.5%)	88 (44%)	31 (15.5%)	6 (3%)	200(100%)
Networking with other business persons and customers would be easy	22 (11%)	28 (14%)	97 (48.5%)	47 (23.5%)	6 (3%)	200 (100%)
Organising finance for start-up enterprise would be easy for me	23 (11.5%)	31 (15.5%)	69 (34.5%)	72 (36%)	5 (2.5%)	200 (100)
Business innovation	29 (14.5%)	37 (18.5%)	77 (38.5%)	48 (24%)	9 (4.5%)	200 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

Knowledge

Respondents were asked to state to what extent they agreed with reference to their depth of knowledge in risk taking. Very few respondents felt that they had acquired sufficient knowledge in risk taking which is a good measure of business knowledge. Only 50 of the 200 respondents agreed with the assertion that they had acquired enough knowledge in risk-taking for enterprise development. Out of these 50, 18 9%) strongly agreed; while 32 (16%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, the majority of respondents; that is 143 (71.5%) disagreed with the assertion that they had acquired enough knowledge in risk-taking for enterprise development. Out of

these 143, 54 (27%) strongly disagreed while 89 (44.5%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 7 (3.5%). Students ought to be trained on how to evaluate an enterprise and how to do cost-benefit analyses using various techniques. This enables them to read the environment efficiently and make calculated risks (Cressy, 1996). It correspondingly promotes critical thinking which strengthens problem identification and solution solving mechanisms. The prospects of entrepreneurial education for students is to detect new market niches and figure out how to uphold markets efficiently and effectively in order to make a profit. Profit brings change in form of growth and development to business. Students should be able to make business plans with well-designed budgets and cash flows for them to know how feasible and viable their enterprise is. This minimises risks and business failure. It also promotes viable business recognition and enables entrepreneurs to find proper market niches. This will enable students to make calculated risks to venture into any business of their choice profitably (Long & McMullan, 1984).

A total of 66 (33%) respondents generally agreed with the assertion that they had acquired enough knowledge in business innovation. Out of these 66, 29 (14.5%) strongly agreed while 37 (18.5%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, 125 (62.5%) of these generally disagreed with the assertion that they had acquired enough knowledge in business innovation. Out of these 125, 48 (24%) strongly disagreed while 77 (38.5%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 9 (4.5%).It has been confirmed that economic growth has been significantly advanced by people who are creative and innovative, able and willing to take risks (Hisrich, 2005). If there are no constructive transformations in an enterprise, the motion does not meet the requirements for entrepreneurship. Transformation of an enterprise has a direct relationship to innovative approach of problem-solving (Gartner, 1988). There is a practical indication that applying innovations in agricultural training institutions improve entrepreneurial education. This was supported by Campbell (1985) who said innovation and creativity stimulate curriculum development in training institutions. Enterprise's achievement and its survival depend on one being able to make novelty ideas as they are generated.

Skill

Respondents were asked as to whether during their studies at ATI, learnt adequately the following competencies of entrepreneurial education. A total of 50 (25%) of the respondents generally agreed with the assertion that networking with other business persons and customers would be easy. Out of these 50, 22 (11%) strongly agreed while 28 (14%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, 144 (72%) of these generally disagreed with the assertion that networking with other business persons and customers would be easy. Out of these 144, 47(23.5%) strongly disagreed while 97 (48.5%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 6 (3%).Yergin and Stanislaw (2012) also observed that personal networks were exclusively auspicious for long-term entrepreneurship success. Entrepreneurs should find time to develop relationships with people who are essential to the successful exploitation of their perceived opportunity recognition (Dana, 2001).

Networking skills provide an opportunity for entrepreneurs to harness various aspects of information management including identifying high utility information, collecting, and processing it in order to have a competitive edge in enterprise development. It enables managers to position their business ventures strategically

and increases the chances of survival in this competitive global economy (Long & McMullan, 1984). McClelland (1986) in an attempt to improve teaching materials said many institutions will turn to network-based learning environments in order to make available a diversity of modified resources that enables strengthening, communication and collaboration. This provides a broader and more accessible environment for entrepreneurial education which is a precursor for starting and developing a new business entity. Anho (2011) in supporting the use of entrepreneurial education as a remedy for job creation noted that it is the main mechanism for economic improvement which contributes to cost-effective growth by eliminating unemployment through career training and wealth creation. Zambia needs to come up with suitable strategies for preparing individuals with skills, knowledge, positive attitudes, and innovation for self-reliance to handle the widespread underemployment and unemployment.

Respondents were asked to state to what extent they agreed with their assertion that organising finance for start-up enterprise would be easy. A total of 54 (27%) respondents generally agreed with the assertion that organising finance for start-up enterprise would be easy for them. Out of the 54, 23 (11.5%) strongly agreed; while 31 (15.5%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, 141 (70.5%) respondents generally disagreed with the assertion that organising finance for start-up enterprise would be easy for them. Of these, 69 (34.5%) strongly disagreed, while 72 (36%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 5 (2.5%).The importance of training students on how to seek financing of their enterprise cannot be overemphasised especially medium to long-term finance. Cressy (1996) reports that once an enterprise reaches its mature stage, it requires money to keep it going. This might be done through fundraising or revenue from the sale of a product or service. Organising financing for a start-up business is an important ingredient in the growth and development of any enterprise. Finance Management is a vital component for entrepreneurial education because no business can grow without finances. Therefore, it is important that students are exposed to issues of finances as early as possible during their training at ATIs (World Economic Forum, 2010).

Attitude

To find out the general attitude of the respondents, they were asked to indicate their perception as reflected in Table 2. A total of 57 (28.5%) respondents generally agreed with the assertion that if they had the opportunity and resources, they would like to start their own business. Out of these 57, 21 (10.5%) strongly agreed while 36(18%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, 138 (69%) respondents generally disagreed with the assertion that if they had the opportunity and resources, they would like to start their own business. Out of these 138, 44 (22%) strongly disagreed while 94 (47%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 5 (2.5%). Entrepreneurial education gives students appropriate knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to establish and run an enterprise (Swartland, 2008). It is capable of sustaining job creation by stimulating creativity in students. This enables them to identify opportunities for innovation and motivates them to transform the ideas into practical and targeted activities in all sectors of life.

Table 2: Subjective Rating of Respondents on Attitude

Competency	The Extent					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Dis-agree	Non Response	Total
Starting own business	21 (10.5%)	36 (18%)	94 (47%)	44 (22%)	5 (2.5%)	200 (100%)
Rather be employed than being an entrepreneur	92 (46%)	59 (29.5%)	15 (7.5%)	29 (14.5%)	5 (2.5%)	200 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

A total of 151 (77.5%) respondents generally agreed with the assertion that after training at ATI; they would rather be employed than being an entrepreneur. Out of these 151 respondents, 92 (46%) strongly agreed while 59 (29.5%) agreed with the assertion. On the contrary, 44 (22%) respondents generally disagreed with the assertion that after training at ATI, they would rather be employed than being an entrepreneur. Out of these 44, 29 (14.5%) strongly disagreed while 15 (7.5%) disagreed with the assertion. The non-response to this question amounted to 5 (2.5%).

Joblessness remains a major challenge in Zambia. The rates of unemployment are pretty high, particularly among the youth. Recent improvements in Zambia's economic growth have not translated adequately into employment creation. Policies in Zambia have not adequately supported the growth of entrepreneurship hence a decline in opportunities for productive employment in the informal sector. Consequently, the unemployment among the economically active population still remains high. Under-employment is also a major problem especially among the youths engaged in agriculture because of the uncertainty in the pricing of agricultural commodities which are inertly controlled by the government (Klapper, Laeven, & Rajan, 2006).

Pedagogical methods in ATIs
There is a wide range of teaching and learning strategies used in ATIs. These include class work, field work, demonstration and practicals. The review of the curriculum constitutes issues of national concern which are identified by technical committees and the development of syllabuses takes care of these concerns. Later, the syllabus is scrutinised through special curriculum committees. Teaching materials such as recommended books are prepared on the basis of a reviewed curriculum. Cross-cutting issues such as gender and HIV and AIDs are incorporated into the curriculum. The financial support for this activity came from the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAL, 2014).

Classroom and training facilities
Classroom space was not enough given the increased number of enrolment over time. Originally, colleges like the Natural Resources Development College (NRDC) would accommodate 350 students; now it was accommodating as many as 2000 students with the same infrastructure and training facilities. The scenario put pressure on the ATI's infrastructure and equipment meant for a limited number of students now catering for a larger group of students. ATIs' management had a

challenge of balancing the demand for training and capacity to register more students. Overtime, there has been a decline of government funding to ATIs which has led to the deteriorating state of the classrooms in terms of furniture and the bad state of training equipment. This has greatly compromised the quality of entrepreneurial education (MAL, 2014).

The focus of training officers in terms of teaching has been on animal and crop production. Little emphasis is placed on entrepreneurial skills and innovation for business development. Fayolle and Gailly (2008) have pointed out that having access to skills and knowledge in agricultural programmes present a starting point to identify entrepreneurial opportunities. ATIs are usually practical oriented. The more unique and exclusive the skills and knowledge in agricultural programmes a student had, the higher the probability that a viable and profitable opportunity could be identified. This was equally supported by Delmar and Davidsson (2000) who explained that adequate access to practical knowledge and skills was crucial for creating and extending new enterprise. The argument was further sustained by Cooper and Dunkelberg (1987) who elucidated that the whole notion of entrepreneurial education had a bearing on hands on activities which give more impetus to self-employment and generates employment opportunities. Delmar and Davidsson (2000) explained that entrepreneurial education mainstreamed in a school curriculum was the most effective way to enhance the creation of new enterprises and expanding existing ones.

Conclusion

The study concluded that the current ATI curricula did not adequately address entrepreneurial education in ATIs. It was observed that the present curricula were anchored on training students for employment in the public sector. The past investment, by the government, in the ATIs after independence was a strategic intervention towards human resource development and, therefore, contributing to the economic development of the country through agriculture and job creation in the public sector. However, it must be recognised that the public sector cannot absorb all the graduates from ATIs hence the need to foster entrepreneurial education for graduates to grow the informal sector.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were, therefore, made:

i.   ATIs should develop curricula which are premised on creativity and innovation;

ii.   ATIs should use blended interactive and reflective methodologies as a teaching tool. This might help the students to put into practice investigative decision-making skills necessary for the sustenance of entrepreneurial education. It will correspondingly help students to be self-reliant because they already have an advantage of being espoused to practical learning. Additionally, research and development which enhances innovative ideas and creative concepts ought to be encouraged in all ATIs;

iii. ATIs should use electronic learning platforms such as web CT and Moodle to supplement the limited available books on entrepreneurial education. This would also promote interaction among training officers and students on a daily basis and which would ultimately strengthen the skills and knowledge in all ATIs;

iv. ATIs should have a cross-cutting strategy to enhance entrepreneurial education with sufficiently skilled training officers in entrepreneurial capability, appropriate training materials and equipment;

v. Additionally, the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock should integrate or mainstream entrepreneurial education in the ATIs curricula. This has the potential of creating an entrepreneurialship culture that would equip graduates from ATIs with skills to start their own businesses; and,

vi. The Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock should increase funding to ATIs in order to sustain the delivery of the programmes. To ensure sustainability of entrepreneurial education, the teaching infrastructure in ATIs must be improved including machinery and equipment. In addition, ATIs should have access to internet facilities and e-libraries.

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Antecedents for quality assurance in Nigerian higher education curricula practices for sustainable development

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Abstract
In view of the global vision of a world where United Nations World Summit of 2002 and its conference of 2012 and the launching of Global Action Plan (GAP) of UNESCO in 2013 among other crucial plans advocate for higher education for sustainable development, this paper explores the antecedents for quality assurance in Nigerian higher education curricula practices for sustainable development. Attempt is made to review higher education in Nigeria with respect to curricula practices and output, a review of sustainable development, concept of quality, quality assurance in higher education in Nigerian curriculum along with key parameters like quality assurance measures, leadership styles, values, and varieties of educational methodologies as antecedents that promote experiential learning among others, which are fundamental and must be practically fostered in Nigerian higher education. With these, Nigeria as a developing nation as well as some other developing countries would not be left behind in the vision for a sustainable future. The paper concludes that the quality antecedents in education must meet set standards and reasonable learning outcomes through the products of the curriculum, all for sustainable leaving.

Keywords: Antecedents. Higher education. Quality assurance. Sustainable development

Introduction
In a knowledge and technologically-driven globalised world, there is a general demand for functional education. To be specific, higher education obviously lies at the heart of social, knowledge and economic transformation. It is thus an essential education for promoting economic growth and enhances sustainable development. In fact, the role of higher education in the growth of any economy has rightly been acknowledged in developing countries like Nigeria (Agbaire, 2015). Meanwhile, in Nigeria, the decline in higher education quality is such that graduates increasingly have trouble obtaining employment even when jobs are available (Hayward, 2006 & Agbaire, 2015). From historical records, it is crystal clear that the potential of Nigerian higher education system to fulfill its obligation of preparing youths for the eventual labour market has been frequently thwarted by long-standing problems of finance, equity and quality, to mention a few. The inevitable consequence of the problems bedeviling the curricula practices of higher education in Nigeria is grossly inhibiting its actualization of the global vision of education for sustainable development.

Among the long-standing problems of Nigerian higher education which is of much concern in this paper is the issue of quality in the curricular practices of higher institutions. Quality is a multi-dimensional concept in education which encompasses teaching, learning, academic programmes, resources and equipment measured on a scale of reference (Alade, 2016). Similarly, quality assurance is a determinant of the

acceptability of institutional output. Quality assurance is a process and practice primarily concerned with conformance to mission specifications and goal achievement within the publicly accepted standards of accountability and integrity (Oshionebo, 2011: 20).

Todays' education, particularly university education has attracted much criticism. For instance, Chenimuya (2012) lamented that higher education in Nigeria is in a sordid state. He added that between 1960 and 2010, the universities established are inadequate in funding, educational infrastructure, class rooms, teaching technologies, quality teachers, learning environment among others…and that we succeeded in chase of quantity against the backdrop of quality. The aftermath is mass production of ill-equipped intellectuals (p: 160).

However, with the emphasis of the United Nations (UN) World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002 to re-orientate education system as a key to sustainable development, much is expected from Nigerian higher education via its diverse curricula programmes. As a result, the identification, provision and utilization of effective key parameters which are antecedents for quality assurance and improvement are very paramount as explored in this paper. In order words, the antecedents discussed by the author of this paper, in respect of higher education, could help Nigeria to leapfrog all the efforts which in the long run would culminate into sustainable development.

Higher education in Nigeria and the matters arising in curriculum practices

Higher education is essentially the hub of socio-economic development of any nation as its products control the private and public sectors of the economy due to the services they render for social and economic transformations. Such education given after secondary education in universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education in Nigeria is termed higher education. The synonyms of higher education include: tertiary education; institutions of higher learning and post-secondary education. The composition of higher education also includes the following: non-Specialized Institutions; Universities/Polytechnics/Colleges of Education; specialized Institutions like Universities of Technology, Universities of Agriculture, Universities of Education, Colleges of Agriculture, Training Programmes, etc. Some of their coordinating agencies in Nigeria are the NUC – National University Commission, NBTE – National Board for Technical Education and the NCCE – National Commission for the Colleges of Education. Higher education institutions in Nigeria are owned by either the federal or state governments or voluntary agencies/private individuals/groups.

The explicit aim of higher education is for the promotion of manpower development in the globalised dynamic societies. Through its research, teaching, learning and community services, democracy is expected to be consolidated and prosperity promoted. In fact, institutions of higher learning are the power sources on which a new development process must rely. However, where quality is thwarted, the challenges are inimical to sustainable development. Higher education otherwise referred to as tertiary education contributes to national development through high level relevant manpower training, (Alade, 2013). It is desirable of higher education to produce graduates who have ability to think critically and have personal, social and communication skills to meet the requirements of modern labour market (Akomolafe & Adegun, 2009). However, where quantity and quality in the curricula instructional practices of higher education programmes are faulty, the output of the curricula of the products becomes very worrisome. That as it may, the Council on Higher Education (CHE, 2000) in South Africa puts it that the "African renaissance will not

be possible without higher education producing sensitive and committed intellectuals, scholars, writers, dramatists, artists, musicians and critics". Higher Education therefore is crucial to the resolution of the complex problems and the development challenges facing the African Continent (Amadi, 2011: 9).

The need for reality reforms in higher education enunciated by various stakeholders and governments had led to policy formulations and innovations in Nigerian higher education fostering acquisition, development and inculcation of proper value orientation for the survival of the individual and society. In his own contribution to education as a veritable tool for development in Nigeria, Alufohai (2011) asserted that Nigerian educational system has witnessed a catalogue of changes in policies and programmes. He however observed that while some of the changes have appeared desirable to a number of people, one continues to wonder why some of the other changes were never initiated. Notwithstanding, in order to make Nigerian graduates more resourceful and self-reliant, the Federal Ministry of Education introduced entrepreneurship education into the curricula of the universities, polytechnics and colleges of education through their regulatory/supervisory agencies which are National Universities Commission (NUC), National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) (ILO, 2011; Raimi & Adeleke, 2010). This form of education in Nigerian higher education has been found to precipitate employment generation, assist with the youth economic growth and development in a number of nations (Raimi & Towobola, 2011).

Further, the unrelenting efforts of Nigerian governments at improving the productivity of the human output from existing tertiary institutions have yielded series of reviews of curricula policies, educational contents, teaching and learning strategies (Alade, 2013). Still there is a high graduate unemployment in Nigeria (Phirheme, 2011). These are mostly young adults that have graduated from Universities and Polytechnics or other institutions of higher learning. The unemployment situation in the country has aggravated hunger, poverty, security, so much that the future of the country cannot be easily predicated as a developing one, Phirheme added. The reality is that Nigerian higher education via its diverse curricula must turn out students of high quality needed in the world of work, all for sustainable development.

An overview of sustainable development

The concept of sustainable development has been described by many scholars in various ways. Kundan (2010) in Abiola (2017) describes sustainable development as a construct, which envisions development as meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the needs of the future generation. Sustainable development means the all-round development of individuals (Mbata, 2009). It is believed that sustainable development is a holistic approach to improving the quality of life. This is what higher education should aim at always in the curriculum instructional delivery process. It is development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainable development implies constant and steady economic growth as a result of acquisition of knowledge and skills used for solving national problems that add value to lives and property (Nwazor, 2012). Sustainable development is geared towards meeting the needs of the world's poor (Olotuah, & Bobadoye, 2009). As a result, the real needs of the poor have to be defined and put into proper focus in curriculum and programmes designed for them through the school-going youths and prospective higher education candidates. It is expedient for higher education to

continuously aim at trainings that will build capacity for manpower that will in turn drive qualitative sustainable development. As a result, the quality and relevant capacity building in Nigeria and other African countries should be such that must help the countries put in place machineries for sustainable development. Higher education thus becomes a means to achieving this end result.

The culture of sustainable development could be traced back centuries ago in ancient civilizations as recorded in the existing literature. Also, it finds basis in feuded organizations, indigenous groups and also in agricultural societies, but it acquired strength in the 20th century and became more significant since the 70s. In the context of this paper, the concept of sustainable development emerged as a response to a growing concern about human society's impact on the natural environment. United Nations (UN) General Assembly with the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) designated as the lead agency for promoting development throughout the decades adopted the vision to promote Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) in September, 2015 (Alade, 2018). The decade pursues a global vision of a world where everyone has the opportunity to benefit from quality education and values essential for a sustainable future and societal transformation (United Nations, 2017).

From the decade of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) to the Global Action Programme (GAP), the pursuance of education for sustainable living remains unabated. In 2005, the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development launched was to enhance the role of education in promoting sustainable development. At the UN Conference on Sustainable Development in 2012, the international community agreed to promote education for sustainable development, and to integrate sustainable development more actively into education beyond the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development.

Further in 2013, the 37th Session of the General Conference of UNESCO came up with the Global Action Programme (GAP) on Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) as follow-up to the decade. The GAP launched at the UNESCO World Conference on Education for Sustainable Development held on 10-12 November, 2014 in Aichi-Nagoya, Japan where member states adopted the Aichi-Nagoya Declaration of Education for Sustainable Development is a further step towards implementing Global Action Programmes on Sustainable development. With the emphasis of the UN World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002 to re-orientate the current education system as a key to sustainable development, and some other crucial plans of 2005, 2012, 2013 and 2014 enumerated above, much is expected from higher education in developing countries in quality terms so as to blend with global trends and be up-to-date to meet global challenges (Alade, 2018).

Concept of quality and quality assurance in higher education curriculum

The development of human manpower, intellect, technical skills, character and effective citizenship are among the prominent target in the enterprise of education in world countries. Similarly, the products of education through the quality of its curriculum are expected to meet societal needs. As a result, it is not enough simply to ensure that children attend school, but the quality of education is also of paramount concern (Enamiroro, 2008). Quality is of vital importance in a country's aim at educating all. Quality is about getting it right first time and eliminating variation in terms of substandard performance. Quality is the extent to which the product of a curriculum meets the job requirements and standard of both the customers and

employers of labour. It is degree of excellence in Nigerian higher education. Quality is viewed by Osasona (2005: 411) as:

- the extent to which formulated goals and aims are reached;
- the extent to which the product meets the demand/satisfaction of both the customers and employers of labour;
- fitness of purpose in term of quality of provisions, quality of programmes;
- fitness of purpose in term of standards, competencies, academic/professional qualifications; and
- a race without finishing line.

In respect of Nigerian higher education, quality is measured by: the goals of higher education curricula that are achieved; the extent to which Nigerian graduates meets the needs of the employment market; the adequacy of the programmes provided by the curricula in terms of graduate competencies and utility demand in the world of work. Where quality education is targeted very strongly, there must be continuous improvement in its curricula review and commitment to the achievement of the education goals qualitatively.

Quality assurance is a process and practice primarily concerned with conformance to mission specification and goal achievement within the publicly accepted standards of accountability and integrity (Oshionebo, 2011). The realization of higher education goals in Nigeria as well as improvement in all aspects of the quality of curriculum practices and ensuring excellence is a function of quality assurance. Quality assurance in higher education curriculum is the practice of excellence in the way the subject matter of the curriculum is implemented with a view to producing human machines of a high standard. Consequently, higher institution(s) in Nigeria that would be top-rated would pay particular attention to quality assurance in curriculum content, instructional techniques and materials, and monitoring, supervision and assessment practices.

Challenges hindering quality assurance in Nigerian higher education curricula practices.

Despite progressive efforts and attempts at improving quality in Nigerian higher education, the challenges remain multi-faceted and relative from one higher institution to the other. On a general note, many a time, it is obvious that a good number of higher education curricula in Nigeria are ineffectively implemented. For instance, Dabadeen and Raimi (2012) identified ineffective styles of instruction, poor funding and insufficient instructional materials for practical-oriented training as part of the implementation problems. Chenimuya (2012) reported that universities are inadequate in funding, educational infrastructure, classrooms, teaching technologies, and learning environment, among others. The after effect is that contemporary students in our tertiary institutions are not adequately taught to be competitive in the world.

According to Hassan (2013), diverse economic, social and political problems at different magnitudes facing nations of the world exists, the third world countries are not excluded. In Nigeria to be specific, there is no gain say that these diverse economic, social, and political problems might have adversely affected higher education curricula implementation which in turn has implication for sustainable development of the country, including the high unemployment rate. On quality of control for institutional effectiveness, Ogunsagun (2009) declared that although educational plans, programmes and objectives are necessary ingredients for

effective management of educational institutions, they are not the only means of controlling qualities. He buttressed that there cannot be quality where there is laxity or careless attitude to work. All educationists therefore must be concerned with quality assurance. Thus, it becomes necessary for actions to be taken by all education stakeholders through various means in order to ensure quality in higher education in Nigeria as presented in the next discussion.

Antecedents as pathways for quality output and sustainable development in higher education curricula practices in Nigeria
Quality assurance in Nigerian higher education and its curriculum instructional practices in diverse disciplines or existing fields of knowledge available requires the pathways to follow for enhanced productivity. In fact, quality assurance is a process, not one time operation or once and for all activity by the stakeholders involved in policy formulation and curriculum delivery. At the broadest level, quality assurance in Nigerian higher education and its curricula practices should embrace the antecedents which are the pathways or bulk of identified parameters that constitute to the input, process, and output of the entire gamut of academic and managerial activities in the training institutions. The following antecedents based on the existing literatures and practical experiences are thus submitted by the author of this paper for Quality Assurance in Nigerian Higher Education (QAANE) and sustainable development.

a). Formulation of articulated strategic plan
This notion connotes the formulation of a clearly articulated strategic plan designed as the road map (pathway) for the implementation of the institution's quality management goals and objectives so as not to lose focus. Specifically, there is need for improvement in quality assurance measures. The concerned stakeholders should give adequate attention continuously in both quantitative and qualitative terms to:
   i. Institution's programmes notion and culture of quality, that is, a clear standard of quality;
   ii. Improved funding for quality assurance;
   iii. Framework for quality management, control and enhanced expected outcomes;
   iv. Framework for human and material resources generation and development for quality assurance;
   v. Qualitative periodic curriculum review so as to address the contemporary societal needs for sustainable future;
   vi. Determination of bench mark information standard for quality assurance;
   vii. Programme specification with well-defined target;
   viii. Adequate monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of the implementation of higher institutions strategic plan; and,
   ix. Strengthening quality assurance monitoring team.

b) Improvement in transactional and transformational academic/administrative leadership
There is the need for improved leadership for quality assurance in higher education for sustainable development. Transactional leadership implies that the academic and administrative bodies of tertiary institutions set goals in line with the vision and mission of their respective institutions, and adequately clarifies the sense of duty to be achieved by each section or unit of their institutions within a time range based on

a set standard. Transformational leadership in the educational context should also be followed by leaders who provide vision and inspiration to the students and other staff in their domain. Such leaders are to demonstrate idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. By idealised influence, the leader stresses the importance of purpose and commitment to responsibilities; inspirational leaders and leadership are optimistic about the future of the higher institution's achievements; motivating leadership stimulates the staff and students to work well for quality output. Altogether, the two leadership styles, if improved upon would lead to qualitative actualization of the institutional goals. This point suggests the need for improvement in the existing leadership of higher education in Nigeria which have implications for curriculum practices.

Improvement in Regional/International Consultation Meetings on Higher Education for Quality Assurance and Sustainable Vision – The role of higher education in promoting sustainable development in qualitative terms continuously call for more intergovernmental agreement beyond the present. This will provide more opportunities for cross-fertilization of ideas, policies, linkages on quality assurance and sharing the values and principles that underpin questionable development with a view to generating many more success stories in Nigeria.

Periodic Review of Nigerian Values for Quality Assurance and Sustainable Living – The goals and pursuits of higher education in Nigeria like other levels of education are driven by the values that the society chooses to prioritize. Periodic review of the value needs of the Nigerian society is essential. This would further prepare the youth in higher institutions for functional living in the society and for a sustainable future.

Employing a Variety of Interconnected and Interdependence Innovative Educational Methodologies in Higher Education Curricula Implementation – Higher education for quality assurance and sustainable development should focus on interdependence and interconnectedness among people on both global and local perspectives. There is the need to employ more innovative methodologies in curriculum implementation practices as part of antecedents for quality assurance in Nigerian higher education and sustainable development. Thus, the use of experiential learning, critical thinking, problem solving, role playing, guided interpretation, debate, participatory decision making, values education, enquiry learning, community problem solving approach, use of innovative Information and Communication Technologies-based (ICTs) strategies and group dynamics among myriads of other methodologies are more needful. It should be noted that teaching is a rhetorical activity. It is mediated learning which should allow students to acquire knowledge of someone's way of experiencing the world. As a flash back on old teaching method, the traditional method in higher education is not very successful, as it places too much emphasis on the lecturer yet failure is blamed on the response of the learners.

This takes us to progressive and innovative strategies for higher education in which the professional educator or whosoever is instructing is a mediator. The use of computer-based strategies is quite good. The simple philosophy here is that students in higher institutions should absorb computer culture. The pedagogy must involve presenting the learners with situations in which they themselves experiments. The use of computer in experiential learning does not always demand a particular teaching style but is unconstrained. Of course the use of a computer is an excellent tool for repetitive teaching and individualized learning which can be quickly constructed or organized and monitored by a mediating tutor or lecturer.

Group dynamics approaches in tertiary institutions curriculum instructional practices with appropriate teacher-facilitation will also promote quality assurance in what is learnt by students. The teacher with a good sense of group development will tend to divide students into visible phases and present both the subject matter of the curriculum and the learning goals. Within the group(s), students try out new methods of learning by themselves, become more cohesive, and help one another in order to reach the learning goals. In the group, students accept the norms and their roles in the learning process. The group does not get out of control as students eagerly exchange their roles and tutor mediates. Everybody contributes to task completion in group dynamics, problems are resolved, solutions to the subject matter are easily found, and members of the group concentrate on the interpersonal relations. A good teacher-facilitator and leader is expected to focus students' efforts towards common goals and encourage group members to work as a team for them to learn from one another and achieve qualitative education. He, the lecturer or whosoever is instructing in his pedagogical approaches should also promote autonomous learning among learners for successful teaching and learning.

On the whole, the antecedents for quality assurance in African higher education are many with diverse approaches. It is hoped that the ones concisely enumerated by the author in this paper which may be overlapping elsewhere are noteworthy. In following the trend of this paper, it becomes necessary for the stakeholders of higher education charged with the responsibility of ensuring quality to watch out for their institutional peculiarities. Also, they should provide immediate as well as progressive remedies based on facts, given attention to the antecedents enunciated, all for enhanced quality assurance in Nigerian higher education curricula practices for sustainable development.

Conclusion

The quest for quality assurance in Nigerian higher education for sustainable development hinges on the quality process. The quality process demands that the diversity of programmes offered in Nigerian higher education requires that the classroom instructions, programme instructions coupled with internship, industrial exposure and Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme among many instructional activities must meet the set standards. The stakeholders of higher education in Nigeria need to attend to the antecedents discussed in this paper more closely, share their practices and challenges, and learn from one another in practical terms in order to achieve sustainable development through the existing higher institutions.

In sum, for enhanced quality assurance in higher education, and its curricula implementation, the quality of the implementers, quality of materials input, enriched teaching process, effective classroom and institutional management and the quality of lecturers' and instructors' instructions among others have significant roles to play. Higher education institutions in Nigeria as well as other developing countries should therefore look beyond the present and work more assiduously towards a sustainable future given due attention to the thesis of this paper, and complement the subject matter treated with those of other academia clamouring for quality assurance and sustainable development in Nigerian higher education.

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Relationship between schooling and academic boredom among under-achieving secondary school students in Benin Metropolis, Edo State

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students. The study adopted the survey research design that utilized the correlational type. Random sampling technique was used to select a sample of 210 students (comprising 95 males, 115 females) that scored below forty (40) in more than half of the subjects they took from University Demonstration Secondary School in 2011/2012 session. Two instruments were used for the study, Boredom Proneness Scale (BPS), and Interest in Schooling Scale (IISS). These were modified by the researchers with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.85 and 0.79. Descriptive statistics and Multiple Regression analysis were used for data analysis. On the level of influence of the independent variable (interest in schooling), the results showed the no contribution of interest in schooling to students' academic boredom. It was recommended that students should be encouraged to prepare adequately before any test by developing effective study habits. Teachers should make teaching interesting by relating topics to real life situations. School counsellors should also watch out for students who are involved in truancy and absenteeism as they are part of the signs of academic boredom.

Keywords: Academic boredom. Interest in schooling. School counsellors. Secondary school. Underachievers.

Introduction

It is a popular saying that no nation rises above its level of education. To this effect, there has been great concern and efforts on how education in Nigeria could be improved. In achieving this task, the eradication of academic boredom among students for the purpose of sustaining their interest and thus enhance their performance becomes imperative (Egbochuku & Adeleke, 2018). In the Nigerian educational system, the main focus and goal is centred on students' performance. Schools are basically assessed, based on the qualitative and quantitative measures of student outcomes in terms of their performance in scores, graduation rates and adequate yearly progress. Although various goals and purposes are often articulated in the mission statements of schools, what matters is student achievement on a specific set of measures. Todman (2013) described academic boredom as a state of low arousal and dissatisfaction of a student due to the lack of external stimulation and the prolonged exposure to the monotonous stimulation. He further defined academic boredom as a negative mood or state of mind that reflects a mismatch between optimal experiences and the experiences that are perceived to be available to the individual learner. In addition, Academic boredom has its numerous negative, physical and psychological consequences on students (Beggs, 2007) Academic

boredom has been related to poor performances in academic tests. Within the school, academic boredom has been associated with diminished academic achievement and school dissatisfaction. Academic boredom is one of the most frequently identified reasons for students leaving school either temporarily or permanently (Todman, 2013). Several factors have been studied that can influence academic boredom, these factors include motivation, social, physical and psychological adjustment, anxiety, peer influence, academic goal orientation, interest in schooling, parental and family influence, environment and others (Adeleke, 2017).

However, this study's focus is on interest in schooling. Interest in schooling is a factor which has been studied over time (Obisanya, 2014). Interest is usually understood as a phenomenon that emerges from an individual's interaction with his or her environment (Hidi & Renninge, 2006; Spates, Pagoto & Kalata, 2006). Adeyemo (2005) explained that a student can approach a learning situation with or without interest. Situational interest refers to an interest that people acquired by participating in an environment or context while Individual interest has been described as relatively enduring predisposition to attend to certain objects and activities, it is associated with positive effect, persistence and learning. Student's academic interest is described as a state or an ongoing process during an actual interest-based activity (Pekrun, 2016). This is the case when we observe the learning behaviour of a student and characterize his or her motivational state as 'being interested' (Mitchell, 1993). The psychological state involves focused attention, increased cognitive functioning, persistence and affective involvement. According to Mitchell (1993) an interest that is primarily caused by external factors is called a situational interest. He further stated that it may be transitory or may provide the basis of a longer-lasting interest.

Mitchell (1993) in her study on interest in schooling identified two types of interest in the classroom environment which termed individual/personal interest and situational interest. Individual or personal interest is a relatively stable evaluative orientation towards certain domains. Situational interest is an emotional state aroused by specific features of an activity or a task with physiological, subjective, goal, and behavioral components. In the opinion of Krapp (2004), Interest in schooling is usually expressed as behaviours or actions and is a means by which learners attain their values and meet their needs in the academic settings. Interest in schooling is therefore the key that unlocks effort which in turn is closely related to students' attitude. Krapp (2004) reported identification of five types of interest which a child will attempt to take over from teachers, parents and other persons he may be privileged to associate with. These are:

i. Instrumental Interests: There are dispositions to attend to certain kinds of activities and to acquire particular kinds of educational and vocational skills as means to an end.
ii. Status Interests: These involve the dispositions to hold certain types of activities, events, objects, as particularly admirable or prestigious.
iii. Aesthetic Interests: These types of interests include the dispositions to seek particular kinds of activities, events and objects considered as beautiful and harmonious.

iv.   Transcendental Interests: These are dispositions to attend to certain kinds of ultimate, ethical and religious ends, or seek certain kinds of spiritual experiences.

v.   Recreational Interests: These include the dispositions to seek diversion and relief from tension through certain kinds of activities.

Interest in schooling includes affective and cognitive components which are part of students' engagement in activities in the classroom and the school generally. The affective component consists primarily of feelings that are associated with engagement in an activity, while the cognitive components have to do with the perceived engagement and thoughts about the activities (Adeleke, 2017). As a result highly interested students are characterized by a comparably differentiated knowledge structure in the corresponding area. The same is true of metacognitive knowledge. Those who are highly interested are well aware of what else there is to know and to explore in 'the zone of proximal development'. Interest driven activities are characterized by the experience of competence and personal control, feelings of autonomy and self-determination, positive emotional states under optimal circumstances, an experience of flow whereby the person and the object of interest coincide (Schiefele, 2009). In past researches, there has not been much investigation on academic boredom as contributing emotion to loose of interest in schooling. This study investigated the extent to which interest in schooling correlates with the dependent variable, academic boredom.

Statement of the problem

Academic boredom has its numerous negative, physical and psychological consequences on students. They include dissatisfaction and low arousal in school activities, depression, loneliness, truancy, examination malpractices, cultism, dropout, drug abuse, sexual abuse, and other juvenile delinquencies abusive behaviours. Academic boredom could also lead students to disengage academically, display disruptive behaviour, cut class, and drop out of school. Academic boredom is highly related with dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lack of interest to classroom activities, students temporarily or permanently leaving school. Todman (2013) affirmed that academic boredom causes increased aggression, anger sensation seeking and risk taking.

Similarly, studies from Todman (2013), Pekrun (2006) and Obisanya (2014) showed the negative influence of academic boredom on academic performance of secondary school students. Statistics evidence from general examinations like West Africa Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examination Council (NECO) showed that between 2007 and 2013, an average of 30% of the students who enrolled were able to attain five credits including Mathematics and English. This therefore infers that about 70 percent of the students have been failing. Could interest in schooling on academic boredom be responsible for this? There is a gap in literature on interest in schooling as it influences academic boredom of students. This study therefore seeks to investigate interest in schooling as it influences academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students in Benin metropolis, Edo State, Nigeria.

Purpose of Study

This study sought to investigate interest in schooling as correlates of academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students in Benin Metropolis. Specifically, the study sought to find out the level of influence of interest in schooling on academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students. The main research question that guided the study was: Is there any relationship in the level of influence of interest in schooling on academic boredom among secondary school students? The researchers also formulated one hypothesis for testing as follows:

There will be no significant relationship in the level of influence of interest in schooling on academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students.

Methodology

This study adopted a correlational survey research design. The target population for this study consists of junior secondary school underachieving students from JSS 1-3 including both males and females in Benin metropolis, Edo state, Nigeria. The simple random sampling technique was used to select the school through balloting without replacement (University Demonstration Secondary School). The sample students of 210 comprising 95 males, 115 females with a total that scored below forty (40) in more than half of the subjects they took. Seventy (70) underachieving students each were selected from JSS 1, JSS 2, JJS 3 making a total of 210, using the simple random sampling technique. The respondents for this study were limited to the arts class and under-achieving students (that scored below forty (40) in more than half of the subjects they took as at the time of the study.

The two instruments used are Boredom Proneness Scale (BPS) and Interest in Schooling Scale (IISS), divided into two main sections. Section A consists of items measuring some demographic data of the respondents and parent's socio economic status, while section B consists of two segments of Academic boredom and Interest in schooling. The two instruments were: i) Boredom Proneness Scale (BPS): This scale was developed by Farmer and Sunberg (1986) and was adapted from Obisanya (2014) and then modified by the researcher to measure academic boredom in respondents; ii) Interest in Schooling Scale (IISS): This was developed by Umoiyang (1998) and was adopted from Obisaya (2014) and was modified by the researcher. Items measured include students' personal interest, situational interest, meaningfulness of Schooling, Involvement in school work, assignment.

To ensure the validity of this instrument, three experts in Counselling psychology departments were consulted for evaluation. In establishing the reliability of the instruments, data collected were analysed using the Cronbach Alpha statistical procedure since it measures the internal consistency of the instrument. The instrument had an Alpha-value of 0.85 and 0.79 for academic boredom and Interest in Schooling Scale. The data collected through the questionnaire was analyzed using the computer statistical package for Social Science (SPSS) software to obtain the necessary statistics. In analyzing the research questions, the Pearson's Moment Correlation and Multiple regressions analysis was used. It was tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Results

Hypothesis one: There will be no significant relationship in the level of influence of interest in schooling on academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students.

Correlation relationship between Interest in Schooling and Academic Boredom among underachieving secondary school students.

Variables	N	R	p value (sig.2 tailed)
Interest in schooling	210	0.066	0.341
Academic boredom	210		

The Table showed that there is a low positive relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students. (r = 0.066). The Table also shows a p value of 0.341, testing at an alpha value of 0.05, the p value is greater than the alpha value, thus, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students is accepted. It is concluded there is no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students.

It also revealed a multiple regression square ® of 0.202 and multiple regression square (R adjusted) of 0.190. It means that about 20.2% of the variance in the student's academic boredom was attributed to interest in schooling. The results further showed a p value of 0.341, testing at an alpha value of 0.05, the p value is greater than the alpha value, thus, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students is accepted. Therefore, there is no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students.

Discussion

The hypothesis revealed that there was no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom. The reason for this is because the level of interest a student has in academic activities will determine to what extent the students will be committed to school activities. In addition, where the individual is not interested, he/she will easily feel bored about school activities. This finding is also supported by previous studies such as Jarvis and Scherer (2000) who found that students withdrew interest from school as a result of experiencing academic

boredom. Also, the National Household Survey on Keiler (2011) reported that adolescents aged 12-17 less likely to lose interest in schooling as a result of academic boredom.

However, another study by Adeyemo (2005) disagreed with the findings of this study. His study showed that interest in schooling had a relative influence on student's achievement in their academic endeavor. Adeyemo 's results indicated that all the independent variable (Test anxiety and interest in schooling) significantly influence and contribute to the dependent variable (academic boredom) but test anxiety is the most potent contributor.

Conclusion

It was therefore concluded that there is no significant relationship between interest in schooling and academic boredom among underachieving secondary school students. This implied that interest in schooling did not significantly contribute to students' academic boredom. It was therefore recommended that school counsellors should carefully watch out for students who are involved in truancy and absenteeism as they are part of the signs of lack of interest in school. Students should be encouraged to prepare adequately before any test/examination by developing effective study habits so that improved academic achievement will encourage positive interest in schooling. Teachers should also try as much as possible to make teaching attractive by relating topics to real life situation, carry the students along by using different teaching methods including brain storming method, putting into consideration individual differences and needs so as not to lose interest in school.

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Educators' age, gender, qualifications, year of experience and grade 11 students' academic achievement in economics

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Abstract

This study investigated educators' demographic variables on grade 11 students' academic achievement in economics. Four research hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. Adequate literatures were reviewed and a survey research design was adopted for the study. Simple random sampling technique was chosen to select 120 educators teaching Economics at grade 11 level and 200 Economics students from 10 schools in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. Two instruments were used to gather data namely: "Educators Demographic Variables Questionnaire" (EDVQ) and "Economics Achievement Test" (EAT). The reliability coefficient of EDVQ and EAT was established with test–retest method and the result obtained was 0.87 and 0.78 respectively. T-Test was used in the data analysis. The results revealed that educators' educational qualifications and gender do not have any significant influence on grade 11 students' academic achievement whereas educators' year of experience and age were found to be significant. Based on these findings, the researchers recommend that the educators' age and year of experience should be considered before engaging them in teaching students in order to ensure their activeness and better academic achievement for the students.

Keywords: Academic achievement. Demographic variables. Eastern Cape. Economics. Educators. Students.

Introduction

Education has been seen by Mushtaq and Khan (2012) as important weapon put into practice to achieve sustainable economic development in the society. Education is a tool that can propel the development of a nation in order to engage in new technology and assurance for growth and development through self – sustainability. It enhances the national development productivity. According to Todaro and Smith (2012), education can be defined as vital components of transformation. It is generally observed that an educated personnel working in a particular place always shows an evidence of literacy and analytical in dealings with complex tasks with the mindset of bringing about immediate solution. There is a cordial linkage between education and development towards economic growth of any nation. According to Gyimah-Brempong (2010), education is a product of the developmental process as well as vital agent in developmental process. Also, education is geared towards building individual traits and capabilities to align with economic growth of the nation through the knowledge of science and technology.

The school is a place for learning and acquisition of knowledge, wisdom, and cultural values that places the individual at an advantage of becoming useful in a society. Academic achievement of students is a yardstick for education itself. It is the indices for testing educational quality and thus a challenge to schools to aspire to

maintain a high level of performance in internal and mostly external examinations in all the subjects and most especially in the core subject like economics. Records have shown over the past decade that high school students' academic achievement in Economics has consistently deteriorated, (DoE, 2013). Teacher demographic variables are the personal attributes of teacher that make him or her distinct from another teacher to excel in his or her chosen career.

Educator's role in academic achievement is very crucial in educational system because it is generally believed that no student can rise above the quality of his/her teacher. The purpose for establishing schools, colleges and universities were mainly to offer the individual the opportunity for personal development of an individual to be self-efficient and contribute his/her quota to the national growth. According to Mushtaq and Khan (2012), identification of students' achievement claimed to be a challenging task. They further revealed in their study that variables like gender, age, academic qualification and year of experience of the teacher have effects on academic achievement of the students.

Moreover, the academic achievement of students in schools, colleges and universities is paramount to the educators, parents, managements and the government because of its effect that determine students' behaviour. This change in behaviour serves as a great benefit to the community and society at large once it's positive. Generally, student achievement is considered as the outcome of socio-economic, psychological and environmental factors among others. Ali, Haider, Munir, Han and Ahmed (2013) agreed that the variables that determine the academic achievement of students vary from one place to another across globe. According to McCarty, Padgham and Bennet (2006) in a study that they carried out in Spain, they observed some major factors affecting colleges' students in learning microeconomics and macroeconomics courses. The result of the study revealed that students' gender, matching instructor and students' grade point significantly affect academic performance in microeconomics and macroeconomics. However, the students achievement obtained through college entrance examination scores and size of the class were said to be insignificant.

Education attainment equips potential Job seekers with qualifications. Darling-Hammond and Berry (2006) observed that what is basic to successful performance on one's job is best taught with formal educational framework. Colfalter, Ladd and Vidgor (2006), revealed in a study conducted on the impact of teachers' qualification on students' performance in China found out that there exist a significant difference in the mean students' performance in schools staffed with qualified teachers and those schools staffed with unqualified teachers. Adeniji (2004) supported this finding to a great extent that teachers' qualification has potent relationship with students' achievement. Ukewe (2009) observed that many students draw inspiration from competent and good teachers who are essentially qualified. This means that educational training influences job performance and also acts as a reliable indicator of the type of work one should look for. Iheanacho (2002) argued that teachers with higher educational qualification are more effective than those with lower educational qualification and that qualified teachers with some additional skills are more productive than the unskilled.

In a causal model by Onuoha (2009) teachers' qualification is seen to influence students' academic achievement both directly and indirectly. It has a coefficient of 0.019 which accounts for 5.1 percent of the total effect of the predictor variables and also accounts for 3.24 percent of the variance in students' academic achievement. Its direct effect accounts for 5.3 percent of the total effect of all the predictor

variables while its indirect effect account for 10.4 percent also of the total effect of the tier predictor variables. Fetter (2001) investigated the relationship between measures of mathematics, teacher skills and students achievement in Californian High Schools. Scores were analyzed in relation to teachers' experience and students' demographics. The findings according to Fetter shows that teachers' skill affects the ability of students in mathematics, he therefore concludes that the skill of the teacher should be consider to improve students' academic achievement. Adeniji (2004) found out in a study using path-analytic approach of some secondary school teacher characteristics and teacher job performance in Ogun State that teaching experience was an effective variable that had direct causal influence on teachers' job performance. There are other studies which support the finding that the longer the years of experience of a worker, the higher the level of job performance. Among them are Adeniji (2004); Arubayi (2001); Onuoha (2009); Ukwayi (2001) and Seweje (2003).

Statement of the problem

The academic achievement of students is germane to economic development of any nation. The academic achievement of students is determined most times by the teachers' age, gender, qualifications and years of experience. Ali, Haider, Munir, Han and Ahmed (2013) agreed that the variables that determine the academic achievement of students appear to vary from one place to another across globe. Therefore, this study investigated the educators' age, gender, qualifications and years of experience and grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics.

Research objectives

This study investigated the influence of educator's age, gender, qualification and years of experience on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics in Eastern Cape. Therefore the purposes of the study were:
  i. To examine the influence of an educators' educational qualification on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics;
  ii. To investigate the influence of educators' year of experience on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics;
  iii. To assess the influence of educators' gender on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics; and,
  iv. To examine the influence of educators' age on academic achievement of grade 11 students in Economics.

Research questions
  i. What is the influence of educators' educational qualification on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics?
  ii. In what way do educators' years of experience affect grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics?
  iii. What is the effect of educators' gender on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics?
  iv. What influence does educators' age has on grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics?

Research hypotheses

In achieving the above purposes, the hypotheses formulated for this study were as follows:
  i. There is no significant difference between educators' educational qualification and students' academic achievement in Economics.
  ii. There is no significant difference between educators' years of experience and students' academic achievement in Economics.
  iii. There is no significant difference between educators' gender and students' academic achievement in Economics.
  iv. There is no significant difference between educators' age and students' academic achievement in Economics.

Methodology

This study adopted survey design. This design was considered appropriate because it centres on people, their beliefs, opinion, attitude and the vital parts of people. This method of survey design makes it possible for inference on the population to be represented with a reasonable selected sample. The population of this study is the entire grade 11 students and teachers teaching Economics in Eastern Cape Province. Simple random sampling technique was used to draw 120 educators teaching Economics and 200 students of Grade 11 being taught by the selected educators in 10 high schools. The necessary data required for the study was gathered by the researchers with the use of a self-designed research instruments tagged "Educators' Demographic Variable Questionnaire (EDVQ) and an achievement test instruments tagged "Economics Achievement Test" (EAT). The instruments were administered personally on the respondents. The method was adopted to ensure 100% return rate and to offer explanation where necessary. The content validity of the instruments was considered by a group of senior lecturers in the department of Economics of one Eastern Cape-based university while reliability of EDVQ and EAT was calculated using the test –retest method and obtained the value of 0.87 and 0.79 respectively. Some items were replaced based on the suggestion of expert to ensure content validity of the instrument before it was finally administered on the chosen respondents. The EDVQ was used mainly for classification of different levels of educators' demographic variables such as: age, gender, educational qualification and years of experience while EAT consisted of twenty five (25) multiple choice questions with two distractors and one correct option Lettered A-C. The scoring of the data was done immediately after its administration. Each answer was allotted with two (2) marks. The total maximum mark for all the twenty five questions was fifty marks. T-test was used to analyse the obtained data while the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was employed to facilitate the organisation of analysis.

Ethical consideration

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) explained that ethical considerations and ethical behaviour are as important in research as they are in any other field of human activity. As such, ethical considerations were included in the cover letter to inform the participants that participation was voluntary. Secondly, they had the right to withdraw at any time. Thirdly, they were also informed that there was no harm or risk in participating in the study, as it would not result in any physical or mental

discomfort or any form of injury. They were also informed that their anonymity would be guaranteed, as their names would not be divulged in the analysis or reporting of the result.

Results

Hypothesis 1
There is no significant difference between educators' educational qualification and grade 11 students' academic achievement of in Economics.

Table 1: T-test Analysis of the Grade 11 Students' Economics Achievement Test Scores and Educators' Educational Qualification

Qualification	Mean	SD	N	P	tcal-value	Tcritical Value
Master Degree	38.5	16.3	43	0.05	0.291	1.615
Bachelor Degree/Bachelor Honours Degree	34.8	8.5	77			

The analysis in table 1 shows that the mean achievement score of the students taught by educators with master's degree is 38.5 while educators with bachelor/honours degree indicated a means of achievement score of 34.8. The t-analysis also shows that the calculated t -value of 0.291 is less than the critical t -value of 1.615 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant difference between the academic achievements of Economics students taught based on educators' qualification is accepted.

Hypothesis 2
There is no significant difference between educators' years of experience and grade 11 students' academic achievement of in Economics.

The analysis in table 2 shows that the mean achievement score of the students taught by educators with lower years of experience (1-10yrs) is 53.6 while educators with higher years of experience (11-20yrs) revealed a means achievement score of 30.8. The t-test analysis also revealed that calculated t-value of 2.67 is greater than the critical t-value of 1.615 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant difference between the academic achievements of Economics students taught based on educators' years of experience is rejected. This means that Economics students' academic achievement is influenced by the year of experience of the educators.

Table 2: T-test Analysis of the Grade 11 Students' Economics Achievement Test Scores and Educators' Year of Experience

Year of Experience	Mean	SD	N	P	tcal-value	Tcrit –val
Higher years of Experience	30.8	11.3	81			
				0.05	2.67	1.615
Lower years of experience	53.6	13.4	39			

Hypothesis 3
There is no significant difference between educators' gender and grade 11 students' academic achievement of in Economics.

Table 3: T-test Analysis of the Grade 11 Students' Economics Achievement Test Scores and Educators' Gender

Gender	Mean	SD	N	P	tcal-value	Tcrit –val
Male	38.4	17.1	47			
				0.05	1.371	1.615
Female	34.7	9.3	73			

The analysis in table 3 shows that the mean achievement score of the students taught by male educators is 38.4 while students taught by female educators have mean achievement score of 34.7. The t-test analysis also revealed that calculated t value of 1.371 is less than the critical t value of 1.615 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant difference between the academic achievements of Economics students taught based on educators' gender is accepted. This means that Economics students' academic achievement is not influence by the gender of the educators.

Hypothesis 4
There is no significant difference between educators' age and grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics.

Table 4: T-test Analysis of the Grade 11 Students' Economics Achievement Test Scores and Educators' Age

Year of Experience	Mean	SD	N	P	tcal-value	Tcrit –val
Young Educators	38.2	11.6	86			
				0.05	2. 109	1.615

Old Educators	29.5	10.2	34			

The analysis in table 4 shows that the mean achievement score of the students taught by young educators (20-40years old) is 38.2 while students taught by old educators (41- 60 years old) have mean achievement score of 29.5. The t-test analysis also revealed that calculated t value of 2.109 is greater than the critical t value of 1.615 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant difference between the academic achievements of grade 11 Economics students taught based on educators' age is rejected. This means that Economics students' academic achievement is influenced by the age of the educators.

Discussion

The results of the study as shown in table 1 indicated that a significant difference does not exist in the academic achievement of grade 11 Economics students taught by master's degree holder educators and those taught by bachelor Degree/bachelor honours degree holder educators. The result showed that Economics students taught by both categories of academic qualifications holder educators have similar academic achievements. This result is contrary to the findings of Colfalter, Ladd and Vigdor (2006) who found significant difference in the academic achievement of students in schools based on the qualification of the teachers. The result is also in contrary with the findings of Adeniyi (2004), who stated that teachers' qualification has potent relationship with students' academic achievement. Earlier, Seweje (2002) in a related study carried out in Nigeria also discovered that there is a significant difference that exists in the achievement of students that were taught by Higher National Diploma (HND) and bachelor's degree certificate holders in education in polytechnics and college of education. Those taught by degree holders in Education were consistently better in their performance than the HND certificate holders.

The result of the study that focuses on educator's year of experience as shown in table 2 indicated that a significant difference was found to exist in the academic achievement of grade 11 Economics students taught by educators with higher year of experience and those taught by educators with lower year of experience. The result revealed in the study was that there is an existence of a significant difference in the students' academic achievement as regards grade 11 Economics based on the years of experience of the educators. This result is in support of the findings of Fetter (2001), which noted that after controlling for poverty, teachers' experience and preparations significantly predicted test scores. Also, Olele (2005) posited that as a teacher passes through many years of service, there is likelihood to have assumed different positions which will make him to be more effective in teaching and thus influence students' academic achievement positively. The results also agree with the findings of Seweje (2002) and Adeniji (2004) that teaching experience predicts students' academic achievement in various subjects.

Furthermore, the findings that educators' gender does not influence the academic achievement of grade 11 Economics students significantly is in agreement with those of Bradley (2002) who stated that there was no significant gender-related difference in leadership behaviour as a result of age in terms of teaching. Also, Oluwadamilare (2012) carried out a study in line with demographic and motivational

variables as correlates of teacher productivity in secondary schools in Oyo State, Nigeria and discovered that there was no significant relationship between teacher's gender and teacher's productivity.

Conclusion

The study concludes that academics qualifications in terms of master's degree and bachelor degree have no effect on the academic achievement of the students. It seems that most educators mostly depend on the acquisition of experience and skills after the award of degree to equip themselves for the purpose of transmitting knowledge appropriately. Also, gender of the educators was discovered not to have significant difference, this shows that both male and female educators perform equally when it comes to their effect on the students' academic achievement in Economics, whereas, years of teaching experience and age agreed to have significant difference. It is therefore imperative to note that the age and years of experience of educators were paramount to the grade 11 students' academic achievement in Economics.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made,

i.   The age of the educators should be considered before engaging them in teaching students in order to ensure their activeness and better academic achievement of the students.

ii.   Moreover, the experience of the educators should be considered in the students' academic achievement rather than the qualification.

iii.   There should not be any form of gender bias in the employment or assigning of educators for the teaching of students since gender has no influence on students' academic achievement.

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Exploring first-year university students' assessment preferences and performance in communication skills

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Abstract

This study is descriptive and examines the question formats preferred by first-year university students and whether preference affects performance. Two research questions were being explored. The data was gathered using an end-of-term test for sampled classes of first-year students taking communication skills at a public university in Zambia. A total of 570 students from four class groupings completed the test. The test comprised three sections and required answering the compulsory Section A (reading comprehension) and choosing either B (essay) or C (short-answer). The findings showed that most students had difficulty making notes or writing an outline, which led to a preference for non-essay question formats. For two sample groups, an independent sample t-test showed there was a significant difference between the number of students who completed essay questions and short-answer questions. In addition, a one-way ANOVA analysis was significant, showing a marked relationship between preference and performance. A post hoc analysis further showed that students who chose short-answer questions had significantly higher scores than those who chose essay questions. The study concludes that first-year students are grounded in rote learning and are not well prepared for an open-ended style of questioning. It is recommended that university preparedness start early at secondary school and that communication skills instruction continues beyond the first year.

Key Words: Essay. Short answer. Assessment preferences. Performance. Communication skills

Introduction

The exploration of students' assessment preferences in communication skills seeks not only to improve content delivery and address different learning styles, but it points to a more pressing challenge in science, technology and engineering institutions, whose aim is to ensure that not only is content taught but that it is shared and disseminated. Because communication skills are important in the workplace (Markes, 2006; Nair, Patil & Mertova, 2009; Rajendran, Kannan, Sathish & Durgadev, 2016), knowing students' preferences is important for both the teacher and student. According to Palomba and Banta (1999: 4), "assessment is the systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving learning and development".

Although some scholars have criticized studies on the interpretation of students' perceptions of assessment (Joughin, 2010), the body of literature seems to be growing. One of the central concerns in assessment studies focuses on how assessment format preference affects learning (Boud & Falchikov, 2007; Gielen, Dochy & Dierick, 2003). Harlen and Crick (2003) in Iannone and Simpson (2015) concluded that students will align their learning style based on their perception of what the assessment examines. Others have argued that changing the form of

assessment is not enough to impact students' learning approaches (Marton & Säljö, 1997). A comparison of different assessment tools has provided more insight into the nature of assessment, preferences and learning styles. Al-Hamly and Coombe (2015) investigated Gulf Arab students' assessment preferences. They assessed university students to determine the degree to which gender and degree of test anxiety had an impact on preferences. Their results showed that students preferred multiple-choice questions because they were seen to be easier and produce higher scores.

Simonova (2016) used a sample group of 287 respondents participating in English for Specific Purposes program in the Czech Republic. Assessment formats included a written Czech-English translation format; an oral student-teacher dialogue on selected topics; and, a presentation on any professional IT topic. Their data showed that oral/written presentation was the most preferred assessment format. The Czech-English translation was the least preferred format. Simonova and Poulova (2016) examined 473 students' assessment preferences using a questionnaire, responding to 18 assessment formats, oral and written, individual and group ones, on a six-level Likert scale. This research was conducted in 2014 and 2016 but the results showed only slight differences in students' assessment preferences. In their study of *Gender preferences in assessment: Do men prefer a 'one-off' whilst women prefer to 'keep at it'?* Ballard & Sinclair (2006) concluded that "gender differences were minimal but age of students and stage of study were significant factors. Generally, students showed a clear preference for coursework on all criteria.

Pinar, Bal and Ayten (2013) studied undergraduate students' assessment preferences and learning strategies in a mathematics course. Using the correlation survey method, they studied 291 students in the primary education department at Cukurova University. Their results showed that while the students prefer the assessment tools that bring to light their cognitive processes in mathematics classes, they mostly use organizational, exploratory and metacognitive learning strategies. It was also figured out in the study that there is a middle-level meaningful relationship between students' assessment preferences sub factor scores and learning strategies sub factor scores". Using a mixed-method study to explore students' preferences in undergraduate mathematics assessment, Iannone and Simpson (2015) found that "mathematics students differentially prefer traditional assessment methods such as closed book examination; they perceive them to be fairer than innovative methods and they perceive traditional methods to be the best discriminators of mathematical ability." They further noted that there is a current push towards new and 'innovative' forms of assessment in mathematics: projects (Berry & Houston, 1995); poster presentations (Houston, 2001); multiple choice questions (Haines & Crouch, 2005; Ramesh, 2009); oral assessment (Levesley, 2011); or a combination of projects, posters and presentations (Povey & Angier, 2006).

Vanthournout, Coertjens, Gijbels, Donche and Van Petegem (2013) carried out pre-test–post-test research using the Assessment Preferences Inventory (API). They followed how students' assessment preferences evolved over a period of time. The results indicated that the students' experience with an assessment and development centre can result in the development of students' assessment preferences towards assessment formats testing more 'higher order skills. Janssens, Boes and Wante (2002) looked at perceptions of student teachers towards portfolios as a tool for professional development, assessment and evaluation. Students felt engaged and stimulated in the process of creating the portfolios and viewed the portfolio as

significant for professional development. García-Ros and Pérez-González (2011) examined assessment preferences of pre-service teachers by focusing on academic level and relationship with learning styles and motivation orientation. Using the MANOVA, their results showed a significant difference in first-year and third-year students' preferences for formal and informal assessment procedures but not their preferences for informal assessments. Conventional assessments were rated significantly lower in the third year than in the first year while the non-conventional procedures were rated very similarly by both academic levels.

In the area of sport science, Arslan (2013) examined 304 Turkish sport science students' assessment preferences in undergraduate courses using an adapted version of the Assessment Preferences Inventory (API). Their findings showed that "self-assessment, observation and peer assessment were the most preferred assessment tools. Multiple choice and performance-based tasks were the most preferred item format and task types, respectively. Physical Education and Sport course students reported a greater preference for Alternative Assessment and Simple/Multiple Choice; Recreation Education course students preferred Classical Assessment and Complex/Constructivist. Bailey, Hendricks, and Applewhite (2016) surveyed students' assessment strategies in two online courses. Using three criteria (enjoyment, engagement with the material and transferability of knowledge gained to practice), the strategies were grouped from lowest to highest in preference. The least preferred were quizzes, traditional papers, and group projects. With middle preference were audio recordings, open discussion and paired discussion. The most preferred strategies were video, Twitter summaries, screen casts, field experiences, interviews and work samples.

Gijbels and Dochy (2006) studied students' assessment preferences and approaches to learning. Using the revised two-factor study process questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) and the Assessment Preferences Inventory (API), 108 university students in criminology participated in the study. The results indicated "that differences in assessment preferences are correlated with differences in approach to learning. Students' preferences for assessment methods with higher-order thinking tasks are significantly lower after actual experience with a formative assessment. Moreover, students also changed their approaches to learning after hands-on experience with a formative mode of assessment". Kwan (2016) also employed the revised two-factor study process questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) to identify students' approaches to learning, and the adapted Assessment Preference Inventory (API) to examine students' preferences to different assessment types/tasks. The sample comprised 101 students (55 MBA and 36 MPA) from various age groups. The two motivational factors that led students to postgraduate study were: educational goals relating to career advancement/enhancement, and improved knowledge and skills. Respondents showed a huge preference for individual assignment and ranked exam preference very low. Baeten, Dochy and Struyven's (2008) study focused on the relationships between experiences with portfolio assessments, students' approaches to learning and their assessment preferences. They used a pre-test–post-test design with 138 first-year students completing a degree program in office management. Using the Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire and the Assessment Preferences Inventory, the students' preferences for student participation in examination and for permanent evaluation decreased significantly. It was observed that surface learning increased significantly while deep approaches were not enhanced.

In assessing students' progress in an extensive reading program, Weatherford and Campbell's (2015) results showed that the majority of students prefer M-Reader. Students who used M-Reader took more quizzes than those who chose book reports. In addition, such students had a positive view of reading. Holmes (2014) discovered that low-stakes continuous weekly summative assessment had a positive impact on student engagement; and, that students improved their learning, particularly their understanding. Rowe and Wood's (2008) results showed that demographic factors are poor indicators of student feedback preferences. Perceptions of feedback provided by both international and domestic students showed no significant difference. The year of enrolment was found to significantly affect student perceptions of the type of feedback. Gender emerged as the factor most likely to affect perceptions and preferences. Although the researchers noted that the differences were small, they were worth noting. The results obtained by Seymour (2010) on students' preferences and perceptions showed that students preferred a one-on-one form of evaluation.

Studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between students' test format preferences and performance in the preferred areas (Birenbaum, 2008; van de Watering, Gijbels, Dochy & Van der Rijt, 2008; Nasser, 2001; Teemant, 2010; Amin, Kaliyadan & Al-Muhaidib, 2011). In their study, van de Watering *et al.* (2008) observed that there is no relationship between students' preferences and their assessment scores in the pre-test. In the post-test, their results indicated that there was no relationship between students' perceptions of assessment and their assessment scores. The findings of Nasser (2001) showed that students scored lowest on the test format that they liked most. The literature further shows that high school and university students prefer multiple-choice question formats over open-ended or essay questions (Birenbaum, 2008; Amin *et al.*, 2011). Even ESL (English as a Second Language) students prefer multiple-choice questions and they "were the most negative about essay format tests" (Teemant, 2012). Further research results show that females have a "higher preference for essay questions" while males prefer multiple-choice test formats (Amin *et al.*, 2011). Language proficiency, test anxiety and test format have been identified as factors that contribute significantly to test performance (Graham, 1987 in Teemant, 2010; Alpert & Haber, 1960 in Teemant, 2010; Lemke, 1990 in Teemant, 2010).

This study highlights preferred areas of assessment in communication skills by first-year students at a university in Zambia. The study sought to answer the following research questions: i) What question format do first-year university students prefer; ii) Does preference of question format affect performance?

Methodology

Population and Sample

Four classes of 570 students took part in the study. These were first-year full-time students consisting of three degree classes and one diploma class. The classes/groups are presented in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Distribution of students in the four classes

Class	No. of Students	Program Level
Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Group 1)	139	Degree

Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Group 2)	213	Degree
Built Environment Group (Group3)	147	Degree
School of Engineering [Mining, Metallurgy, Ventilation, Survey, Chemical, Environmental Technology] (Group 4)	71	Diploma
TOTAL	**570**	

Data Collection Procedure
The type of inquiry adopted was cross-sectional and the tool used for data collection was an end of term test. A total of 570 students took the test.

The Test
The test was administered during class time for each group. Because the classes were scheduled at different times, the tests were written at different times. The content of each test was different but the format was the same for all classes. The format of the test(s) was as follows:

Section A: Reading Skills
Section B: Writing Skills (Essay)
Section C: Short-Answer Questions (Subject Content)

Students were required to answer a total of two sections where Section A was compulsory and they could choose either Section B or C. Upon completion of the test, students were requested to leave their answer sheets on the desks. Three students from a different program were asked to assist in collecting the papers. Prior to the test, a model of an outline format for making notes was presented in class using a passage. The model was distributed as a hand-out to the class. Further, three additional passages for practice using the model were distributed to the class. During instruction in class, the writing process was introduced. Each step of the writing process was examined using an example. Whole-class participation of the writing process was required. After the introduction of the writing process, the five-paragraph essay structure was presented with examples. Then, a whole class composition of a five-paragraph essay was done, using the writing process discussed earlier.

Results
Question Preferences
A summary of preference results is presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Types of questions preferred by students

Class	Total No. of Students per Group	Essay Questions	Short-Answer Questions

Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Group 1)	139	18	121
Mathematics and Natural Sciences (Group 2)	213	68	145
Built Environment Group (Group 3)	147	36	111
School of Engineering [Mining, Metallurgy, Ventilation, Survey, Chemical, Environmental Technology] (Group 4)	71	3	68
TOTAL	**570**	**125**	**445**

Pass Rate in preferred questions (Relationship between preference and performance)

Table 3 below shows the pass rate for groups 2 and 3 on essay and short-answer questions. Group 2 was composed of students from the School of Mathematics and Natural Sciences while Group 3 had students from the School of Built Environment (all first-years).

Table 3: Student pass rate per question type

Group 2	**Essay Questions n= 68**		**Short-Answer Questions N= 145**	
	Pass	Fail	Pass	Fail
	11	57	64	81

Group 3	**Essay Questions n = 36**		**Short-Answer Questions n = 111**	
	Pass	Fail	Pass	Fail
	9	27	19	92

Measures of Central Tendency for Groups 2 and 3

Measures of central tendency were computed for Groups 2 and Group 3 as shown in table 4 and table 5.

Group 2

Table 4: The mean, mode and standard deviation of Group 2

	ESSAY	**SHORT-ANSWER**	**BOTH ESSAY & SHORT-ANSWER**

Med.	16	19	18
Mode	14	19	19
Mean	15.44	19.58	18.27
STD.DEV	4.00	17.24	14.54

Group 3
Table 5: The mean, mode and standard deviation of Group 3

	ESSAY	SHORT-ANSWER	BOTH ESSAY & SHORT-ANSWER
Med.	18	15.5	16
Mode	14	16.5	15
Mean	17.8	15.95	16.39
STD.DEV	7.16	5.64	6.06

T-test Results
Research question1: What question format do first-year university students prefer?
Hypothesis:
H_o: There is no significant difference between the number of students who completed essay questions and short-answer questions.
H_1: There is a significant difference between the number of students who completed essay questions and short-answer questions.

An independent sample t-test showed there was a significant difference between the number of students who completed essay questions and short-answer questions, [$t_{(357)} = -4.14$, $p < .001$].

One way ANOVA analysis
Research question 2: Does preference of question format affect performance?

The overall effect of preference on performance was analysed using a one-way ANOVA, which tested whether choice of question had an effect on performance in groups 2 and 3. The test was significant, [$F_{(3, 355)} = 11.742$, $p<.001$], therefore, preference had an effect on performance.

To test the specific effect within each group, *Post-hoc* means comparison (Bonferroni) showed group 2 students who chose short-answer questions had significantly higher scores than those who chose the essay question ($p = .002$). Same for group 3 ($p = .023$). All analyses were at the .05 significance level.

Discussion

The T-test results do not support the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis is accepted as there is a significant difference between students who completed essay questions and students who completed short-answer questions. Contrary to de Watering *et al*. (2008) and Nasser (2001), a strong relationship between preference and performance could be established. The results support research on preference for short closed-ended questions and are consistent with previous findings (Birenbaum, 2008; Amin *et al*., 2011; Teemant, 2012).

In Section A (Reading Comprehension), the majority of students struggled with identifying main ideas in a passage. The students had further problems with planning and composing an essay. Section A assessed the students' skill of reading and the ability to make notes in outline format. The majority of students failed to follow the model presented for writing an outline. This pointed to the crucial assertion that the relationship between reading skills (comprehension) and writing skills cannot be ignored.

The pass/failure rate could have been due to a number of factors such as those identified in the literature: test anxiety, attitude, test format, and English language proficiency, as well as the teaching method. It could also be attributed to the fact that this was their first test in communication skills and that their workload from other courses may have led to inadequate preparation. In Section B (Writing), the preference for short-answer questions is justified by the pass rate. The one-way ANOVA result [F (3, 355) = 11.742, $p<.001$], showed that choice of question (preference) has an effect on performance. The p-value is less than the alpha value. The post-hoc means comparison further demonstrates this effect on performance. The test scores for students who chose short-answer questions in both groups 2 and 3 were significantly higher, group 2 ($p = .002$) and group 3 ($p = .023$) respectively. Because of the rigorous instruction given to students in class, the researcher approached the problem with the assumption that students would prefer essay questions and that they would perform better in this area. However, this was not the case.

Although there are different schools of thought concerning the five-paragraph structure, the method was used because the skills are transferable. The number of students who attempted the essay questions even after instruction suggested a pattern in regards to the following issues:

i.   Lack of rigorous composition writing tasks in their prior learning(secondary level);
ii. Method of teaching writing at secondary and/or lower levels; and,
iii. Attitude of students toward writing

As a result, most students were unable to reason deductively on paper. The factors that hindered the successful acquisition of these communication skills taught and tested (reading, comprehension, outlining and writing) could include the following: the infrequent issuing of written assignments due to large classes; lack of robust reading and writing programs to supplement classroom content instruction; and unbalanced student-teacher ratio. From the results, it is clear that these students may continue to experience the same reading (comprehension) and writing problems throughout their studies at college or university if no action is taken. The same trend will repeat itself and the same results will be obtained in communication skills

Conclusion

The following conclusions can be drawn from the study: first-year students are not prepared for a university-level open-ended style of questioning. Students are grounded in rote learning for examination purposes and are not prepared for college or university reading and writing tasks. Science and technical institutions inadvertently encourage a preference for short-answer questions aimed at acquiring content. In addition, poor comprehension skills lead to poor writing skills.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in terms of time. If the results for each question or section were computed and compared with the results of other communication skills classes taught by other lecturers, a more comprehensive result would have been obtained. The methodology used here is simplified in terms of data collection tools, variables, and analysis procedures. A longitudinal study would better indicate student preference and performance development over time compared to a once-off test. The field of study as a factor was initially considered but was found to be insignificant because the results obtained are consistent across all disciplines represented. However, gender, which has been a factor in previous studies, and student background were not considered. Further, no API questionnaire was administered to measure other variables or to determine why students had specific preferences.

Recommendations

i. Students need continued support in developing their reading and writing skills in year 2, 3 and 4 to avoid the same problems;
ii. The issue of college/university preparedness needs attention as it predicts the success rate of students.; and,
iii. The focus on content without much focus on skills that enable the acquisition of this content needs further attention by science and technical institutions.

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Pre-service English language teachers' use of social network sites: implication for higher education

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Abstract

The study examined pre-service English language teachers' SNSs usage habits and perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes. The study utilised a descriptive survey design. One hundred and four (104) students drawn from two departments which run English language education programme in the faculty: Adult and Non-formal Education (ADE) and the Department of Educational Foundation (DEF) took part in the survey and responded to a questionnaire on their SNSs usage habits and their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes. The reliability of the instrument was 0.81. Both descriptive and inferential statistics, namely, percentage, mean, standard deviation, Independent Samples t-test, and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used for the data analysis. The findings revealed that pre-service English language teachers have a positive perception of the use of SNSs for academic purposes. The finding also revealed that there were no significant differences in pre-service English language teachers' perception of the use of SNSs for education purposes based on gender, academic level and related SNSs usage habits. The study recommended, among others, that English language teacher educators who develop English language education programmes should consider the integration of SNSs and other related media in instruction in programme curriculum.

Keywords

English language teachers. Pre-service. Social network site. Usage habits, Perception. Higher education.

Introduction

Web-based communication technologies have transformed human discourse. Web 2.0 technologies such as wikis, blogs, podcasting and social networking are becoming an integral part of our daily life. Social network sites (SNSs) are technological interfaces that enable users to communicate with other users on areas of mutual interest, whether from a personal, business or academic perspective. These social networks allow people to share their personal experience with others through videos, music and other media. The majority of the undergraduates come into the university as experienced 'multitaskers', accustomed to using text messaging, instant messaging, e-mail and surfing the Internet (Roberts, 2005). Buckingham (2007) argues that because technology has become a significant dimension of most young people's lives, educators need to key into it and make the best use of integrating Web 2.0 technologies into the teaching/learning process. In light of the rapid expansion of Web 2.0 technologies in the everyday lives of students, such preferences are likely to become even more pronounced in newer generations of learners wanting more technology use by lecturers (Kvavik & Caruso,

2005; Roberts, 2005). Will university administration and lecturers react against these students, or will they respond thoughtfully to a new student body that is accustomed to the Web 2.0 environment?

Despite the advantages associated with the use of web 2.0 technologies, there are also some disadvantages of its use, especially among students who form the majority of users interacting through the use of SNSs. Popular media accounts tend to portray young people's media practices as deficient or damaging to academic learning, often linking them to an ''overriding sense of moral panic about declining standards of literacy'' (Thurlow, 2006: 23). Studies have shown that most students use SNSs such as Facebook and Twitter for fun, to while away time, to meet existing friends or to make new ones (Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007). Studies have also reported that many students do not see social networking sites as useful tools for study (Ogbonnaya & Mji, 2014) and that only a few students are aware of the academic and professional opportunities these sites offer.

Equally also, despite the growing SNSs literature worldwide (Bicen & Cavus 2010; Carter, Ewbank, & Fougler, 2008; Roblyer, McDaniel, Webb, Herman & Witty 2010; Shambare & Mvula, 2011; William, 2009), very few studies (Ahmad, 2011; Folorunso, Vincent, Adekoya & Adewale, 2010; Danner & Pessu, 2012) on SNSs usage and experience in Nigeria have been reported in the literature. There is, therefore, the need to examine pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs in higher education in the Nigerian context, since findings from such study could enhance the understanding of students' perceptions of the use of SNSs in higher education and, ultimately, its use for academic purposes. Specifically, the study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. examine the SNSs usage habits of pre-service English language teachers;
2. examine students' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes;
3. determine whether students' perceptions of the use of SNS for academic purposes differ according to gender and academic level; and
4. determine whether there are differences in students' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes when grouped by related SNSs usage habits.

Literature review

Web-based social network sites

The early inception of social networking originated from the development of Web 2.0 technologies (O' Reily, 2007). Social networking sites are Web-based services that enable individuals to construct a semi-profile within a bounded system, articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, views and go through their list of connections and those made by others within the system. In its purest form, social networking sites are computer applications that support the complex arrangement of connected nodes (people) with tools for storing and presenting information as well as communicating, connecting, and interacting with others (Buzzetto-More, 2012). A social networking site (SNSs) allows its users to:

- create a profile — writing themselves into being online;
- link their profile to others through friend connections; and
- experience the site differently, depending on the connections they have made (i.e. getting content shared by friends or joining online groups).

Social networks are increasingly available on devices other than internet connected computers, and this includes mobile phones and games consoles. Many social networks are also becoming 'woven into the web' through tools like 'Facebook

Connect' and 'Google Friend Connect'. These tools allow their users to log into third-party websites with their social network username and password — and for their activities on third-party websites to be shared with their friends on their social network account.

Theoretical framework
The theoretical framework for the study is based on social learning theory. According to social learning theory (Brown & Duguid, 2002), learning occurs in social contexts and is influenced by symbolic interactions. Brown (2008) explains that learning communities are groups of people who share an interest in the learning process, learn both with as well as from each other, and develop a supportive atmosphere to encourage success among members. Social networks provide the platform where students are supported and participate in, learning communities influenced by social discourse and symbolic interactions. SNSs fulfil various social learning functions through collaboration among students to like-mind.

The digital natives
The term 'Digital Natives' was coined by Prensky in the year, 2001. According to Prensky (2001), digital natives were distinct from previous generations, who he described as Digital Immigrants, and they have new attitudes, aptitudes, and approaches to learning. Today's generation of youths are immersed in a world dominated by networked and digital technologies. They behave differently from previous generations. It is claimed that they think differently; they learn differently; they exhibit different social characteristics and have different expectations about life and learning (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005; Palfrey & Gasser, 2008; Prensky, 2009, 2010; Tapscott, 2009). Digital natives, who have been interacting with digital technologies from an early age, generally appreciate the value of technology and are quick to adopt new technologies, seek out opportunities for implementing technological change, and are comfortable with social media and other Web 2.0 technologies (Fogg, Phillips, Baird & Fogg, 2011).

The growth of SNSs usage in Nigeria
The growth of social media in Nigeria in the last decade has been exponential. Statistics have shown that Nigeria is one of the fastest growing internet users in sub-Saharan Africa with over 44 million users (Angaye, 2012 cited in Danner & Pessu, 2012). Similarly, the World Internet status report, ranked Nigeria 3rd in Africa and 37th in the world among countries whose citizens have Facebook accounts (Facebook, 2011). In another study carried out by Portland (a communication company) in association with tweet-minster, Nigeria was ranked 3rd on the number of tweets originating from Africa (Internet World Statistics 2011). The Portland study also revealed that 60% of Africa's most active Twitter users are aged 21 – 29 years. This age range accounts for a large number of undergraduate students' population in Nigerian universities.

Use of SNSs for academic purposes
Most SNSs provide unique environments where users can publish media, share content and interact with friends and others with whom they have made a connection on the site. Some of such features are instant messaging, a form of real-time communication between two or more people based on the typed text (chatting) transmitted over the Internet (Dorn, 2010), example, Google Talk, Google Mail and

Yahoo Messenger (Maged, Boulus & Wheeler, 2007). Social bookmarking used to collect and annotate (tag) users favourite web links online (Maged et al., 2007; Dorn, 2009). Podcasting, which is a part of the field of video-audio-on-demand, used for the production and provision of media files (audio or video) through the internet (Assaad & Gómez, 2011) and RSS Feeds (Really Simple Syndication or Rich Site Summary) used to exchange web content (Lin, 2001). These can be handy tools for academic purposes.

SNS supports learning activities which enable learners to take control of the learning process. It gives learners initiative, promotes self-reflective learning, and encourages peer teaching (Greenhow & Robelia, 2009). Several studies have revealed that most students admitted that using SNS was useful for discussing topics they have learnt and sharing of ideas. Engaging in these activities has been confirmed to be helpful for achieving learning objectives (Yue, De Silva, Kim, Aktepe, Nagle, Boerger *et al.*, 2009; Alloway, Horton, Alloway, & Dawson, 2013). There are two main reasons for using SNSs for educational purposes in school environments. First, SNS can be used for improving class quality in the teaching and learning context. Students can engage in activities such as posting their opinions about projects, assignments or discussion topics to their SNSs' walls or sharing photos taken during field study with other classmates. Second, SNSs applications can also be used as a communication tool among members of the school community such as teachers, students, and parents. This exchange of opinions is considered as part of the educational activity in a broad sense.

Benefits of Social Networking Sites in Learning
Social networking sites have become very popular globally and have attracted a significant part of the online community (Bortoli, Bouquet, & Palpanas, 2009). Users with interests and common subject areas can find each other and can stay connected in communities and networks (Richter & Koch, 2008). Social networking has a vital influence on our lives, it plays a prominent and influential role in decision making in the global world, particularly in economics, politics, social and educational issues (Zaidieh, 2012). Social networking technologies allow learning to be available on demand, authentic, media-rich, social, supportive of digital literacy, student-centred, and appealing to digital natives (Buckingham, 2007; Cheal, Coughlin, & Moore, 2012; Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear & Leu, 2008; Fogg *et al.*, 2011; Greenhow & Robelia, 2009; United States Department of Education, 2010).

With well-developed learning activities and sound pedagogy, social networking can be used to create learning activities that are highly constructivist. There are several studies on the benefits of Web 2.0 technologies in higher education for learners in the literature. Ellison and Wu's (2008) study on the use of blog reported that the tool encourages students to read and provide peer feedback and also enhances reflection and higher order learning skills. Studies by Luce-Kapler (2007) and Parker and Chao (2007) revealed that the use of Wikis improved students' writing skills and also facilitated collaborative learning in various disciplines. Podcasting has similarly been used successfully in such disciplines as language, chemistry or psychology in higher education (Duke, 2006).

Eid and Al-Jabri's (2016) study investigated the impact of various categories of SNSs use including chatting and online discussion, creating knowledge and information content, file sharing, and enjoyment and entertainment by graduate and undergraduate students at a University in Saudi Arabia. Their findings showed that there were significant positive relationships between both chatting and online

discussion and file sharing and knowledge sharing, and entertainment and enjoyment with student learning. They concluded that increasing knowledge sharing in SNSs leads to increased student learning. Forkosh-Baruch and Hershkovitz (2012) examined students' utilisation of Social Networking Sites (SNSs) for scholarly purposes in higher-education institutes in Israel. The research addressed the questions of content patterns, activity patterns, and interactivity within Facebook and Twitter accounts of these institutes. Their findings suggested that SNSs promotes knowledge sharing, thereby facilitating informal learning within the academic community and the larger community altogether.

Perceptions of the Use of SNSs for Academic Purposes
Several studies have been carried out in recent times on perceptions on the use of social networking sites for academic purposes in tertiary institutions globally. Lim and Richardson's (2016) study at a large public university revealed that students use SNSs frequently and actively for various reasons in their daily life and they showed positive perceptions of using SNSs for educational purposes. In another study conducted by Hamid, Waycott, Kurnia and Chang (2016) among Malaysian and Australian universities students, their findings also revealed students' positive perceptions of the use of online social networking (OSN), particularly as a means of interacting with each other and with their lecturers. Sobaih, Moustafa, Ghandforoush and Khan's (2016) study of the use of social media in developing countries (Egypt) showed that social media have a great value for academic-related purposes, particularly as a teaching and learning tool. Although the actual use by lecturers was at a minimal level, lecturers were of the opinion that if the barriers to their use of SNSs were overcome, SNSs could be an innovative and effective tool for teaching and learning. In another study by Smith (2016), which investigated undergraduate perceptions of the use of social media technologies (SMTs) in their learning, their findings shed new insights into students' perspectives on the use of social media. Students' perceptions formed an overarching theme of social media as a double-edged sword that both informs and distracts, having the potential to both help and hinder learning.

Research Questions
 The following research questions and hypotheses were raised and formed the basis for data collection, analysis and interpretation of results:
1. What are pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes?
2. Is there any gender difference in pre-service English language teacher's perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes?
3. Is there any difference in pre-service English language teacher's perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes based on student's academic level?
4. Are there any differences in pre-service English language teacher's perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes when grouped by related SNSs usage habits?

Hypotheses

H_{O1}: There is no significant gender difference in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

H_{02}: There is no significant difference in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes based on academic level.

H_{03}: There are no significant differences in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes when grouped by related SNSs related usage habits.

Methodology

This section presents the research design, population and sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures utilised for the study.

Research Design

This study utilised a descriptive survey design focused on undergraduate students' perceptions about the use of SNSs for academic purposes. Relevant data were gathered using a well-designed questionnaire which was personally administered to a randomly selected sample of undergraduate students at the University of Benin.

Participants

The population for this study consisted of all 300 and 400 level undergraduate students enrolled for the B.A (Ed) English and Literature Education programme in the Faculty of Education of the University of Benin during the 2015/2016 academic session. A total of 418 students made up the population. A purposive sampling technique was adopted as only students who had SNSs account(s) were sampled. One hundred and four (104) students drawn from the two departments which run English language education programme in the faculty: Adult and Non-formal Education (ADE) and the Department of Educational Foundation (DEF) made up the sample of the study. The demographic profile of survey respondents is summarised in Table 1 including their gender, academic level, type of SNSs account, size of friends, mode of access to SNSs and daily SNSs log on. The results (Table 1) show that thirty-four percent (34%) of the sample are male while sixty-six percent (66%) are female. Forty-six percent (46%) of the respondents are in 300 level, and fifty-four percent (54%) are in 400 level. Most of the participants, fifty-three percent (53%), have Facebook accounts, they have a large network size, above 200 friends (47%). Most survey respondents use smartphones to access their SNSs accounts (52%) and log on several times per day (44%).

Table 1: Demographic Profile of Respondents (N = 104)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	35	34%
Female	69	66%
Academic Level		
300 Level	48	46%
400 Level	56	54%

SNSs Account

Facebook	55	53%
Twitter	17	16%
WhatsApp	32	31%

Size of Friends

Below 100	37	36%
101 – 200	18	17%
Above 200	49	47%

Mode of Access

Smartphones	54	52%
Desktop/Laptop Computers	19	18%
Smartphones + Desktop/Laptop Computers	31	30%

Daily SNSs log on

Several times per day	46	44%
Thrice (morning, afternoon & evening)	22	21%
Twice (morning & evening)	19	18%
Once	17	16%

Instrument

A survey instrument was developed to identify pre-service English teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes in higher education. The instrument consisted of three sections: A) the first section of the questionnaire was designed to collect demographic information of the respondents such as; gender, and academic level, B) the second section, was to investigate students' SNSs usage habits, and C) the third section was to elicit students' perceptions of use of SNSs for academic purposes in higher education. Section C of the questionnaire contained ten narrative statements about the benefits of the use of SNSs. Relevant studies, books and related articles from the literature were examined to identify the benefits of SNSs. To enhance validity and increase refinement of the survey, the initial survey was pilot tested with fifteen (15) undergraduate English language Education students who were not involved in the main study. Cronbach alpha was computed to determine internal consistency, and the value of .81 was realised. In this section, a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 was selected for use in this study: 1 value indicating strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for agree, 4 for strongly agree was adopted.

Data Collection

The researchers sought permission from the Dean of the Faculty of Education and the Heads of Departments of Adult and Non-formal Education (ADE) and the Department of Educational Foundation (DEF) to carry out the survey. Participants' consent was also obtained. They were made to understand that the survey was mainly for research purpose and that their identity would not be disclosed. The researchers personally administered one hundred and twenty (120) questionnaires.

Analysis
The Analysis of data began by discarding all questionnaires that were less than 85% completed. One hundred and four (104) questionnaires met this criterion representing (87%) usable questionnaires. The questionnaires were then scored, coded and entered into a data file, which was processed using SPSS version 20.0. Descriptive statistics, namely, frequencies, percentage, mean and standard deviation were used to identify pre-service English teachers' SNSs usage habits and their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes. Inferential statistics, namely, Independent sample t-test was employed to determine the differences in students' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes when compared by gender and academic level. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to test the significant differences in students' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes utilizing the variables: type of SNSs account, size of friends, device used for access and number of times logged on to SNSs daily.

Results
This section presents the results obtained from the statistical analysis of the data. The results are presented in sub-sections corresponding to the research questions and hypotheses outlined at the beginning of the article.

Research Question One: What are pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes?
Section C of the questionnaire was analysed to answer research question one. Table 2 reveals that all the mean values are above 2.00. Generally, means of responses on the positive impact of SNSs for educational purposes were above average, with the highest being 3.41 – enhance communication with peers and course mates outside of the classroom setting. The lowest on the positive impact is 2.67 – allow for more frequent and unhindered collaboration with peers, course mates and lecturers. This reveals that students' perceptions of the use or benefits of SNSs are positive. On the other hand responses on the negative impact of SNSs for educational purposes have a lower means which range from 2.56 – too expensive due to the cost of internet connection to 2.16 – only give students an avenue for relaxation. This is in line with previous findings as reported in the literature; students see SNSs as a form of relaxation (Danner & Pessu, 2013).

However, the general positive perceptions of pre-service teachers on the use of SNSs for academic purposes is encouraging and suggests that pre-service teachers will readily welcome the integration of SNSs in their learning processes. The overall perception supports the use or benefits of SNSs as identified in the literature (Danner & Pessu, 2012; Lim & Richardson, 2016; Smith, 2016).

Table 2: Means and Standard Deviations of Responses on Pre-service English Language Teachers' Perceptions of the Use of SNSs for Educational Purposes

s/n	Use or Benefits (Positive Impact) The use of social networking sites will:	Mean	SD
1	enhance communication with peers and course mates outside of the classroom setting.	3.41	.663
2	encourage a more detailed, in-depth discussion among peers and course mates.	3.21	.733
3	be more convenient for sharing and discussing ideas between students and their lecturers (relate freely, ask	2.86	.743

	questions, clear doubts etc.).		
4	make it more comfortable sharing and discussing topics covered or addressed in the class with friends/course mates in an informal setting.	3.33	.614
5	allow for more frequent and unhindered collaboration with peers, course mates and lecturers	2.67	.781
6	make students learn on their own by gathering additional information from other Web resources	3.16	.765
	Use or Benefits (Negative Impact)		
	The use of social networking sites will:		
7	cause more distractions as students will spend all their time chatting or playing games online.	2.28	.830
8	be too expensive to use for educational purposes due to the cost of an internet connection	2.56	.890
9	inhibit students' ability to freely express their thoughts and opinions in face to face interactions.	2.20	.629
10	only give students avenues for relaxation.	2.16	.802

Hypothesis One: There is no significant gender difference in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNS in higher education.
An Independent sample t-test was computed to test hypothesis one. Table 3 shows the results of the Independent sample t-test. The t statistics, t(102) = -.188 is not significant (.851) at the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that the difference between male pre-service teachers (M = 2.90, SD = .428) and female pre-service teachers (M = 2.87, SD = .428) is not significant. Therefore, hypothesis one is retained. This indicates that both male and female pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes are similar.

Table 3: Summary of Independent Sample t-test of Gender Difference of the Perceptions of Pre-service English Language Teachers' on the Use of SNSs for Academic Purposes

Perception	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig (2-tailed)
	Male	35	2.87	.428	-.188	102	.851
	Female	69	2.90	.383			

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNS in higher education based on academic level.
To test hypothesis two, an Independent sample t-test was computed. Table 4 shows the results of the Independent sample t-test. The t statistics, t(102) = -.376 is not significant (.708) at the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that the difference between the means of 300 Level pre-service teachers (M = 2.87, SD = .405) and 400 Level pre-service teachers (M = 2.89, SD = .392) is not significant. Therefore, hypothesis two is retained. This indicates that both 300 and 400Levels pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes are similar.

Table 4: Summary of Independent Sample t-test of Pre-service English Language Teachers' Perceptions of the Use of SNSs for Academic Purposes based on Academic Level.

Perception	Academic Level	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig (2-tailed)
	300 Level	48	2.87	.405	-.376	102	.708
	400 Level	56	2.89	.392			

Hypothesis Three: There are no significant differences in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes when grouped by related SNSs usage habits.

A series of one-way analysis of variance was run to test hypothesis three. The results are presented in Tables 5 – 8. Table 5 reveals that the analysis of variance indicated no significant differences among the respondents when grouped by type of SNSs account. Therefore, it could be concluded that respondents' type of SNSs account had little influence on their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

Table 5: Summary of ANOVA of Students' Perceptions of the use of SNSs for Academic Purposes when Grouped According to Type of SNSs Account (n = 104)

Type of SNSs Account	n	Mean	SD	F-ratio	Sig
Facebook	55	2.85	.385	.464	.630
Twitter	17	2.92	.393		
WhatsApp	32	2.93	.424		

Table 6 reveals that the analysis of variance indicated no significant differences among the respondents when grouped by size of friends. Therefore, it could be concluded that respondents' size of friends had little influence on their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

Table 6: Summary of ANOVA of Students' Perceptions of the use of SNSs for Academic Purposes when Grouped According to Size of Friends (n = 104)

Size of Friends	n	Mean	SD	F-ratio	Sig
Below 100	37	2.85	.401	.426	.654
101 – 200	18	2.86	.385		
Above 200	49	2.92	.402		

Table 7 reveals that the analysis of variance indicated no significant differences among the respondents when grouped by type of access to SNSs. Therefore, it could be concluded that respondents' type of access to SNSs had little influence on their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

Table 7: Summary of ANOVA of Students' Perceptions of the use of SNSs for Academic Purposes when Grouped According to Type of Access to SNSs (n = 104)

Type of Access to SNSs	n	Mean	SD	F-ratio	Sig
Smartphone	54	2.85	.421	1.164	.316
Desktop/Laptop Computers	19	2.83	.343		
Smartphone + Desktop/laptop	31	2.97	.379		

Computers

Table 8 reveals that the analysis of variance indicated no significant differences among the respondents when grouped by the number of times logged on to SNSs. Therefore, it could be concluded that respondents' number of times logged on to SNSs had little influence on their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

Table 8: Summary of ANOVA of Pre-service English Language Teachers' Perceptions of the use of SNSs for Academic Purposes when Grouped According Daily SNSs Log on. (n = 104)

Daily SNSs Log on	n	Mean	SD	F-ratio	Sig
Several times a day	46	2.91	.355	1.758	.160
Thrice a day (morning, afternoon & evening)	22	2.94	.475		
Twice a day (morning & evening)	19	2.95	.401		
Once a day	17	2.88	.362		

With the results presented in Tables 5 to 8, it could be concluded that there were no significant differences among pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purpose when grouped according to related SNSs usage habits. Hypothesis three was, therefore, retained.

Discussions

For the efficient integration of any new technology in educational practices, it is important to focus on issues such as the educational training related to the use of such technology at initial training and in-service training, teachers' knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, school resources, school head's endorsement and government support. In this study, the focus is on pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes. Pre-service teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes form the basis for in-service teachers' willingness to integrate SNSs for academic purposes and can affect the training they receive during their studies at the university. In fact, if pre-service teachers have a negative perception of the use of SNSs for academic purposes, they can refuse to use it, or can even refuse to receive teacher training related to that topic. Apart from examining pre-service English language teachers' perceptions about the use of SNSs for academic purposes, the study also examined whether their perceptions differ based on some demographic variables such as; gender, academic level and SNSs usage habits. Four research questions were raised, and three of these were hypothesised.

This study found out that the University of Benin's 300 and 400 levels pre-service English language teachers have a positive perception of the use of SNSs for academic purposes (mean = 2.88, which is above the midpoint of 2.00 of the scale). They are very likely to welcome the integration of SNSs into instruction and learning in higher institutions. This is in line with previous studies, (Danner & Pessu, 2012; Lim & Richardson, 2016) which found that pre-service teachers have positive perceptions of the use of SNSs for educational purposes. Although, pre-service English language teachers in this study acknowledge that there are adverse effects of the use of SNSs, just like Smith (2016) observed that the use of SNSs is a

"double-edged sword" that can both help and hinder learning, they do not see those negative effects as overwhelming or unmanageable.

The findings also revealed that there were no significant differences in pre-service English language teachers' perceptions of the use of SNSs for education purposes based on gender, academic level and related SNSs usage habits. This is a pointer to the fact that both male and female, 300 and 400 levels pre-service English language teachers perceive the benefits of the use of SNSs for educational purposes the same way. Equally, their SNSs usage habits did not influence their perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes differently. Those with different type of SNSs account, size of friends, device used for access and number of times logged on to SNSs daily all have positive perceptions of the use of SNSs for academic purposes.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the researchers are of the opinion that the study is valuable for English language teacher educators who develop English language education programmes to gain insight into how pre-service teachers perceive social media as strategic tools for educational purposes and the need to consider the integration of SNSs and other related media in instruction. This is consistent with the urgent call for expanding integration of technology in education in the country. Given the widespread adoption of SNSs by students, English language teachers' educators can tap into pre-service teachers' enthusiasm and creativity to shape and carry out their education agenda while preparing pre-service English language teachers for teaching students in the 21st century with all its challenges of new literacies.

Despite the endless possibilities offered by SNSs to enhance the learning experience, it should be noted that it can only be an effective tool when lecturers can integrate SNSs efficiently in classroom instruction. Lecturers face a significant challenge in this direction, as revealed by Moustafa, Ghandfroush and Khan's (2016), who acknowledged the fact that lecturers are faced by various barriers in developing countries resulting in a minimal level use of SNSs by them. Lecturers need to find an appropriate way to take advantage of the social dimension of SNSs to enhance the learning experience of pre-service teachers without making them feel uncomfortable with their ignorance of the use of SNSs for educational purposes.

Recommendations for Further Research

Future research could consider the following:
  i. Investigating other dimensions of SNSs usage such as the relationship between students' SNSs usage and academic performance.
  ii. A replication of the study with other students in other academic levels, (100 and 200 levels) or post-graduate students.
  iii. This study employed the use of descriptive survey research which might not produce all of the related findings due to respondents' biases. It is, therefore, recommended that similar studies be conducted with a variety of research methodology to identify the students' use of SNSs for academic purposes.

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Underage and Disadvantaged: Impact of malnutrition on the holistic development of ECD B children in Zimbabwe.

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Abstract

This study examined the impact of malnutrition on the holistic development of ECD B learners in Mucheke high density suburb of Masvingo, Zimbabwe. The aim was to identify the mitigation policies and measures designed to reduce negative effects of poor nutrition on children's development. This study was guided by Abraham Maslow's theory of needs and Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological perspective. A qualitative phenomenological case study design was used with in-depth interviews and observations as data collection instruments from twelve ECD B teachers, two headmasters and eight ECD B learners, purposively sampled in Masvingo Province. The teachers also assisted with observations. An inductive approach was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge from collected data. Findings revealed that malnutrition deepens poverty, affected physical, social, emotional and cognitive development, academic performance and learner's health. On the way forward, there is need to introduce nutritional gardens at community, school and at family levels. There is also the need to address the root causes of malnutrition.

Key words: ECD B. Malnutrition. Poverty. Holistic development, Zimbabwe.

Background to the study

The effect of malnutrition on young children aged between five and eight can be devastating and enduring, affecting all areas of a child's growth and development and also delaying behavioural, physical, emotional, social and cognitive development and affecting academic performance (Chinyoka, 2014). This research examined the impact of malnutrition on the holistic development of ECD B learners. It focused only on learners doing grade one in Mucheke high density suburb of Masvingo, Zimbabwe. Its main objective was to identify mitigation policies and measures designed to reduce negative effects of poor nutrition on children's holistic development. United Nations Children's Education Fund (UNICEF, 2015) estimates that there are nearly 845 million children suffering from malnutrition across the globe. It is believed that one in every four of the world's children is chronically malnourished or stunted. These children have not received the essential nutrients they require thus causing their bodies and brains not to develop properly (Bethsda, 2014). Onis (2013) is of the opinion that more than 70 percent of malnourished children live in Asia. Studies have established that in the USA and United Kingdom, one out of every six children is at risk of hunger (Pandey, 2013). On the other hand, Lappe (2013) suggests that poverty is the principal cause of hunger while Lezama (2012) a

nutritionist with UNICEF also blames the high levels of malnutrition on poverty, ignorance, political neglect and epidemics.

The number of hungry people in Africa has grown from 175 million to 239 million (Lappe, 2013). More than one million children suffer from malnutrition in Sahel, Nigeria in 2012 (Anako, 2013). Besa and Mubanga in Sakala (2013) claim that about 45 percent of children aged five and below are malnourished and stunted in Zambia. The Zimbabwean government is also worried by the high malnutrition-related death rates which currently account for 25 percent of deaths among children under the age of five (Mugabe, 2013). According to Gumbo and Rusere (2011), one in three children in present-day Zimbabwe suffers from chronic malnutrition or stunting. Furthermore, the 2010/2011 demographic health survey indicates that over a third of Zimbabwean children under the age of five are chronically malnourished and consequently stunted. The same survey indicated that an estimated 15000 of them were at the risk of dying from the condition (UNICEF, 2012).

Malnutrition is generally defined as a chronic condition which is a consequence of over- or under-consumption of any or several essential macro- or micronutrients relative to the individual's physiological and pathological requirements (Ecker & Nene, 2012). Malnutrition is also a dangerous condition that develops when your body does not get enough nutrients to function properly. Poor nutrition can be caused by a lack of food or an unbalanced diet that's missing or insufficient in one or more nutrients (Chinyoka & Naidu, 2013). Children who do not consume adequate amounts of key nutrients, including calcium, potassium and vitamin C may be unable to work to their full potential at school (Nabarro *et al*., 2012). A study by Connell (2010: 127) revealed that 34 percent of low birth weight children were either repeating grades or placed in special education classrooms while only 14 percent of normal birth-weight children experienced the same outcomes. Another research also reports elevated levels of grade repetition as a result of low birth weight due to poor nutrition (Bray *et al*., 2010, Duncan *et al*., 2008).

Malnourished children experience developmental delays, weight-loss and illness as a result of inadequate intake of protein, calories and other nutrients (Chinyoka, 2013). Knowing more about what nutritional deficiencies can lead to, in terms of holistic development, will help families to feed their children adequately to succeed in class. This shows that nutrition is of paramount importance in the academic performance of ECD B children. Some of the developmental problems experienced by malnourished children are caused by direct physiological crippling, such as retarded brain growth and low birth weight; whereas other conditions are the result of limited and abnormal interaction and stimulation vital to healthy development. Good nutrition and good health are very closely linked throughout a person's lifespan, but the connection is even more striking during infancy as espoused by Sigmund Freud. He emphasised that the first five years of ones' development determines her/his future outcomes.

Research has revealed that poor diet during early development (0-8yrs) leads to learning and memory deficits, lower IQ and school achievement, and behavioural problems in childhood and adolescence (Bethsda, 2014; Onis, 2013). There has also been links between food deficiencies and mental health problems in young people. Conditions such as ADHD, Bipolar Disorder and Schizophrenia, seem to involve functional deficiencies of certain highly unsaturated fatty acids, such as Omega-3

(Richardson et al., 2005 in Chinyoka, 2013). Furthermore, researchers have found that antisocial behaviour in prisons, including violence, can be reduced by supplementing diets with vitamins, minerals and essential fatty acids (Gesch, 2002 in Chinyoka, 2013). Shrestha and Pathak (2012) as well as Brauw *et al.* (2012) concur that underfeeding during childhood was thought to hinder mental development solely by producing permanent structural damage to the brain. A child's brain during the first three years of life is rapidly developing through generation of neurons, synaptogenesis, axonal and dendric growth, and synaptic pruning each of which build upon each other (Orazem *et al.*, 2007: 25). Any interruption in this process, such as trauma, stress, under nutrition, or lack of nutrients can have long-term effects on the brain's structure and on the child's socio-emotional development and academic performance. Whether or not children are well-nourished during their first years of life can have a profound effect on their health status, as well as their ability to learn, communicate, think analytically, socialize effectively and adapt to new environments and people (Ecker & Nene, 2012). Good nutrition is the first line of defense against numerous childhood diseases, which can leave their mark on a child for life. In the area of cognitive development, when there isn't enough food, the body has to make a decision about how to invest the limited foodstuffs available. Survival comes first. Growth comes second. In this nutritional triage, the body seems obliged to rank learning last. However, it is better to be stupid and alive than smart and dead (Shrestha & Pathak, 2012).

A number of studies in Latin America, Africa, United Kingdom and the United States of America reported that on intelligence tests, children with a history of malnutrition attained lower scores than children of similar social and economic status who were properly nourished (Fanzo, 2012; Benson 2012; Stevens *et al.*, 2012; Nabarro *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, protein energy malnutrition, iron deficiency, anaemia, Vitamin A deficiency, and other poverty related conditions decrease resistance to disease in general. Malnutrition therefore causes illness, brain damage, delayed physical growth, delayed development of motor skills and delayed intellectual development.

Despite high-levels of commitment in the context of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and other initiatives, most developing countries are likely to fail in achieving their nutrition-related goals, although there are large differences in nutritional achievements across countries. The lack of political commitment and action of central governments may be a critical factor (or even the main reason) for failure in reducing malnutrition, whereas in other developing countries a functional nutrition policy in place may be the driver of success (Nabarro et al., 2012).

Theoretical framework
This study is hinged on Abraham Maslow's theory of needs and Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological perspective. Maslow proposed a theory of needs based on a hierarchical model of the basic needs at the bottom and higher needs at the top (physiological, safety, love, esteem, cognitive, aesthetic, self-actualisation and transcendence needs). The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called deficiency needs or d-needs, the individual does not feel anything if they are met, but feels anxious if they are not met (Snowman & Biehler, 2011 in Chinyoka, 2013). Needs beyond the D-needs are called growth needs, being needs or B-needs. When fulfilled, they do not go away, rather they motivate

further. Mwamwenda (2010) posited a hierarchy of needs based on two groupings, physiological needs and psychological needs. The central point in Maslow's theory is that people tend to satisfy their needs systematically starting with the basic physiological needs and moving up the hierarchy. He believed that the higher level needs can only be achieved if the lower order needs have been satisfied first. For example, a hungry child is not likely to be motivated to self-actualise until her hunger is satisfied.

This study is also informed by Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, which suggests that a person's surroundings including their home, school, work, church, neighbourhood, culture and government have an influence on the way a child develops (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2010). The ecological model states that child development occurs within an interactive system of nested influences between the child and the environment. The ecological environment consists of the following five nested structures: microsystems, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem (Rathus 2006; Donald et al, 2010; Chinyoka, 2013). Children's microsystems will include any immediate relationships or organisations they interact with, such as their immediate family, school, peers, neighbours and caregivers. Bronfenbrenner's next level, the mesosystem describes how the different aspects of a child's microsystem work together for the sake of the child (Donald *et al*, 2010). The exosystem level includes the other people and places that the child may not interact with often but still have a large effect on her/him, such as parents' work places, extended family members and the neighbourhood. Bronfenbrenner describes the macrosystem as the one that involves dominant social and economic structures as well as values, beliefs and practices that influence all other social systems. Finally, the chronosystem involves development over time that affects the interactions between these systems as well as their influences on the academic and intellectual development of learners (Donald *et al.*, 2010).

Purpose of the Study
This study seeks to examine the impact of poor nutrition on the holistic development of the 5-8 year olds (ECD B/grade one learners) in Zimbabwe, with the aim of suggesting sound actions and solutions thus lessening consequences caused by poor nutrition on the holistic development of children. The study was guided by two major research questions namely: i) What are the effects of malnutrition on the holistic development of ECD B learners; and, ii) What recommendations can be made to attenuate the negative impact of poor nutrition on children?

Methodology
The study adopted a qualitative phenomenological case study design in order to explore and present the effects of poor nutrition on the holistic development of ECD B learners in Mucheke suburb in Masvingo, Zimbabwe. Qualitative phenomenological case study approach is used to highlight the specifics and to identify phenomena through how they are perceived by the actors in the situation. A case study design was developed in order to gain insights into not only what was happening to children's holistic development, but also why events might be happening in that way (Yin, 2012; White, 2012). One of the advantages of this approach is that it allows the researcher to gain an understanding of social phenomena from participants' perspectives in their natural settings (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2010). The study was carried out in two primary schools in Masvingo urban, Zimbabwe. The selection of the two primary schools centres and ECD B teachers was purposefully done to ensure that the findings were authentic. Twelve (12) teachers, two headmasters and eight ECD B learners took part in the study. Teachers assisted with the observations since they interacted with the ECD B learners more often.

Data was collected through face-to-face interviews and observations. Creswell (2013) argues that capturing what people say in their own words is the most important contribution of qualitative research to understanding human behaviour and perception. The advantages of using interviews in this study was to allow the researcher to adapt the questions as necessary, clarifying doubts and ensure that the responses were properly understood by repeating or rephrasing the questions (Patton, 2012). Another advantage of using face-to-face interviews in this study lies in the quality of the data obtained. This implies that the participants were in a position to seek further clarification on some of the responses through probing. Observations were used because the method produced a true social reality and first-hand information about ECD B children was recorded by the teachers. The interviews were audio-taped and the researchers made observations and copious notes during the interviews. This strategy helped to eliminate the problem of inaccuracy or incompleteness of the data which, according to Maxwell (2006) is the main threat to the valid description of what the researchers saw or heard. An inductive approach to analysing the responses was undertaken to allow patterns, themes, and categories to emerge from the obtained data (Patton 2012). This identification of themes provided depth to the insights about understanding the individual views of the ECD B learners and their teachers on the impact of poor nutrition on their holistic development in Mucheke, Masvingo, Zimbabwe.

Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct the study was secured from Head Office Harare, through the Masvingo Provincial Education Office and Masvingo district office, Zimbabwe. The researchers also secured permission from the selected ECD B teachers, headmasters and selected ECD B learners. The participants were informed that their involvement in the study was voluntary and that they were free to withdraw at any stage of the interviews if they were not comfortable. Participants were also assured of anonymity in the research report.

Findings and discussion

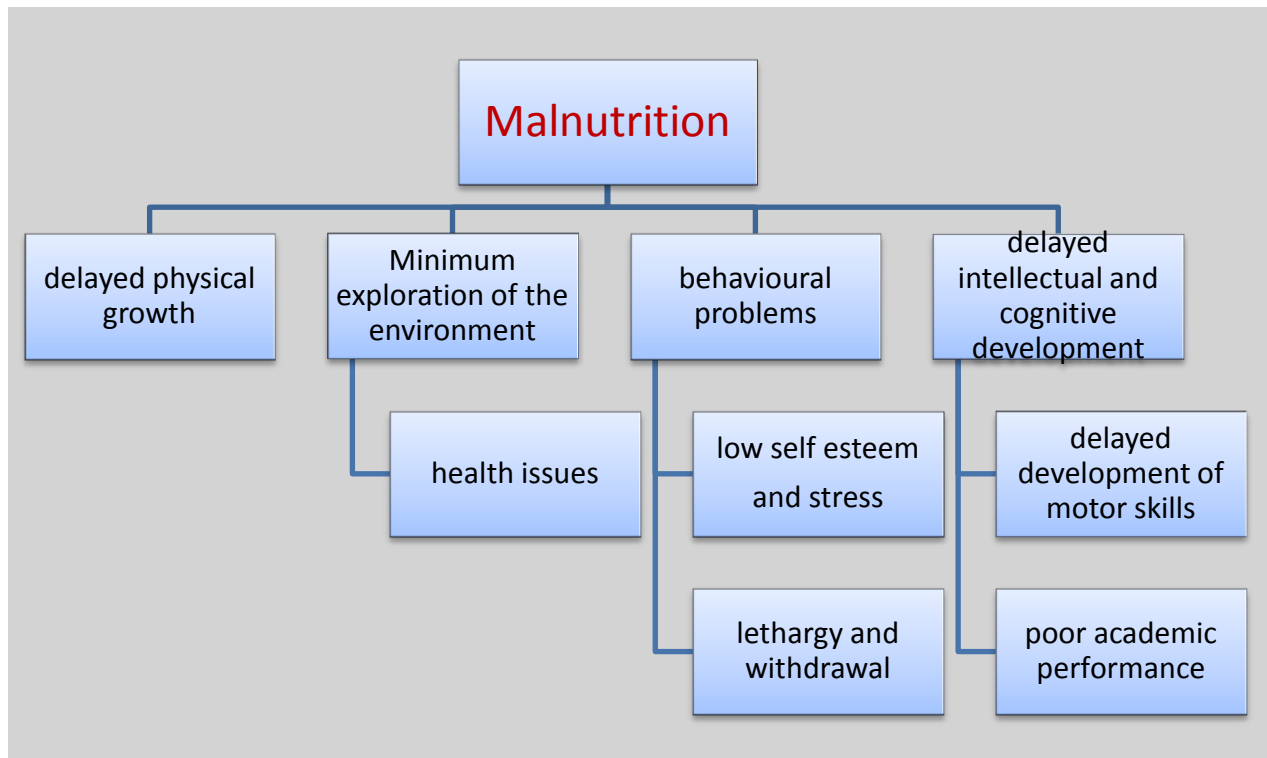The analysis of the empirical data yielded the following themes and sub themes as displayed in figure 1:

Figure 1: showing major themes and sub themes derived from the study.

As shown by figure 1, malnutrition causes an array of psychosocial problems like illness, stress, low self-esteem behavioural problems, delayed cognitive, physical growth, development of motor skills and intellectual development. Malnutrition also alters intellectual development by interfering with overall health as well as the child's energy level, rate of motor development and rate of growth. From figure 1 above, three major themes can be derived namely: effect on physical growth and health challenges, behavioural problems, and the effect on schooling/cognitive development caused by poor nutrition.

Theme 1: Effects on schooling/cognitive development

The ECD B teachers who participated in this study revealed that malnutrition negatively affects schooling causing delays in motor and cognitive development, such as: attention deficit disorder, impaired school performance, decreased test scores, memory deficiency, learning disabilities, reduced social skills, reduced language development and reduced problem-solving abilities. Majority of the ECD B children interviewed highlighted that they came to school without having any breakfast. They narrated that sometimes they go to school without a meal and sometimes only have one meal a day and occasionally sleep without taking in any food. Another child, pseudo named Tiwi, said they only had one meal a day while the teachers who were interviewed lamented that they only had supper and breakfast. In most cases, based on the interviews with the ECDB learners, over 60 percent of these learners reported that they had a very small meal the previous night. Less than fifty percent (50%) of the pupils were estimated to be taking food with them to school. From these figures, one can conclude that the majority of children at the two schools ate virtually nothing at all when they woke up in the morning and all the time when they were at school. Those who said they had all the three meals a day

highlighted that the amount of food they received per meal was not always enough. It also appears that the frequency of the meals was a problem considering these statements. This was observed to have a bearing on the academic performance of children. Poor nutrition does not have to be severe in order to negatively affect child development (Benson, 2012; Stevens *et al.,* 2012; Nabarro *et al.*, 2012). The FAO and WHO research also demonstrate that even the slightest forms of food insecurity can affect a young child's development and learning potential (United Nations, 2012).

Teachers who were interviewed assert that the majority of their ECD B students from poor backgrounds came to school without food and fail to concentrate as a result. Instead of paying attention to the teacher as she/he presents concepts to the class, the hungry learner would be busy pondering on what to do so as to get the basic needs. According to Stevens *et al.* (2012) a lack of a fuel-filled and healthy breakfast can cause children to have difficulties in staying awake all morning. A healthy breakfast has also been linked to fewer absences and less tardiness at school. Research findings by Gumbo and Rusere (2011) concur that underfeeding during childhood was thought to hinder mental development solely by producing permanent, structural damage to the brain. Maslow concluded that before people are intrinsically motivated, they should first satisfy some basic needs (Lahey & Rosen, 2014). In other words, children who are malnourished may not self-actualise since they will keep fighting for the gratification of the deficiency needs such as food, instead of concentrating on the educational instructions. Given such an argument, poor and under-nutrition tended to limit long term intellectual development of learners. During the interview, one teacher, pseudo named, *Chihera* echoed the following statements:

...Hungry ECD B children are often weak, drowsy in lessons and sick because of starvation. Their mental, cognitive and emotional states are altered, which can negatively affect their intellectual development. Hungry *children also fail to concentrate in school work thus negatively affecting their academic performance.*

In support with the above, an ECD B teacher, *Mushavi* (pseudo name) also highlighted that poor nutrition among ECD B learners causes them to be reserved in class. Lethargy and withdrawal, a low self-concept and esteem, illness, brain damage, delayed development of motor skills and intellectual development are also common traits. This also confirms the views raised by the two headmasters, H1 and H2 during interviews. An argument that may be easier to substantiate is that a hungry child is more likely to have lower concentration levels, a poor listening span and problems in retrieving and accessing information than her and his classmates who receive enough to eat (one of the teachers interviewed quipped) and this may, amongst other factors, have an impact on a child's ability to perform in class. Therefore, receiving a regular breakfast, lunch and dinner leads to positive effects on a child's learning achievements (two teachers interviewed). Given the above, better nutrition and food security are therefore positively associated with improvements in schooling in all the two schools studied. It is argued that better fed children are more likely to enrol in school overall and also do so earlier than peers who do not have access to sufficient food or who are not food secure (Maslow in Mwamwenda 2010).

It is therefore plausible to conclude that food is a priceless teaching aid and learner motivator. Children who are well-nourished are more likely to enter school

earlier, stay in school and have the ability to concentrate on lessons rather than hungry ones. Children with food security tend to participate more in class and in sporting activities. Conversely, a child whose education is threatened at an early age due to hunger is likely to have worse prospects for his/her future as an adult (Freud cited in Mwamwenda, 2010). Maslow believed that the higher level needs can only be achieved if the lower order needs have been satisfied first, thus a hungry person is not likely to be motivated to consider safety and affection until his or her hunger is satisfied. Rathus (2006) elaborates that, "All the needs in the hierarchy are innate to humans, but those higher in the hierarchy are weaker. They only direct action when all earlier needs have been satisfied". The implication is that only when ECD B learners have enough to eat, and their physical safety is assured can they be motivated by a need to belong or a need for esteem. It can be argued that the lack of physiological needs demoralise learners' innate need to excel in school work and hinders their full development.

Given the above, good nutrition is fundamental for individuals to realise both their physical, cognitive, and economic potential. It is the basis for individual and family well-being and human capital formation and, as such, key to economic and social development in the current generation and, even more so, for future generations (Benson, 2012). Thus, the School Feeding Programme (SFP) is a good initiative and can be used to boost academic performance of ECD B learners.

Theme 2: Behavioural problems
Observations made by the ECD B teachers and this researcher confirmed that children who have poor nutrition end up cheating, lying and stealing, especially food and other basic school commodities like pencils and exercise books from the peers or money to buy food so as to meet the basic needs. Since this behaviour is regarded by society as socially unacceptable they end up being isolated by significant others and they may develop a low self-esteem. In another research, this researcher also found out that pupils with low self-esteem are inactive, suffer from headaches and insomnia, have very high/low levels of anxiety, stress, low I.Q, mental instability, psychosocial distress and are academic underachievers (Chinyoka, 2014). It was also observed in this study that the children who were affected by poor nutrition for a long time were more psychologically unstable than those who experienced poor nutrition within a short period of time.

Malnutrition also gives children little interactions with peers and teachers at school and this, according to Bronfenbrenner, is the most destructive force in children's cognitive development (Bronfenbrenner, 2008). Malnourished ECD B children were observed to watch others playing and when given the opportunity to play would not last long. Through interviews, the researcher discovered that the child would be feeling tired because of hunger. The study findings from the observations revealed that, the malnourished children have a tendency of excluding themselves from group activities. When they were interviewed the children revealed that they have no energy to play. It should be noted that play is an integral part of learning especially for the infant classes. When children are deprived of play they lose a lot of knowledge gained through play. For instance, through play children learn language concepts, Mathematical skills such as judging distance when playing ball games. Play also helps children learn to coordinate their body parts. Due to social isolation caused by fatigue which resulted from hunger, children lose out on essential

concepts. ECD B teachers who participated in this study all said that the malnourished learners looked stressed most of the times in and outside the classroom. This stress made it difficult for them to concentrate on their tasks. One seven year old child said:

> *Zvinobhowa kuuya kuchikoro nenzara (literally translated, it means: it's boring to come to school when you are hungry) ini zvinondirwadza uye zvinoita kuti ndivenge chikoro (literally translated, it means: This pains me and I hate schooling as a result) pamwe vabereki vedu vanotosara vachidya zvavo kumba (maybe our parents eat food whilst we are at school).*

Other children interviewed also said that they felt too tired to do school tasks and could not concentrate hence could hardly hear what the teacher said.

These researchers noted that some NGOs, that is, God's Garden, Vision Trust, Christian Care and Care international were sometimes giving food hand-outs to orphans, girls and vulnerable children at the rural schools. Only an insignificant number of children in urban areas however benefited. The researcher observed a lot of bias when food was distributed to both boys and girls at the rural school (Chinyoka, 2014). Boys by virtue of being boys were given a big share of food. Girls were made to serve boys first and eat later. This was noted to be the trend even among families. The food hand outs were not sustainable hence the poor children continued to suffer from problems of malnutrition. Given the above, one can safely conclude that the girls are at more risk of malnutrition than boys. This however is debatable as some researchers believe that the boys suffer the most. The researcher proposes that this issue requires further research.

The same above mentioned organisations have conducted workshops on nutritional gardens and conservation farming in order to boost crop yields in the areas where the two schools are located. They went on to provide fencing for gardens, treadle pumps or pumping water as well as inputs. However, not all families have benefitted as it was a once off arrangement where beneficiaries were expected to maintain their projects. Most of the projects do not exist anymore because of a lack of inputs and maintenance for the pumps. Implicit to the above, the cycle of poverty is not easy to break. This will eventually translate to more poverty at family, community and national level thus perpetuating a cycle of poverty and failure among learners hence an ecological approach becomes the panacea when solving problems of malnutrition.

Theme 3: Effects on Physical growth and Health challenges
The IRIN (2011) report in Chinyoka and Naidu (2013) states that malnutrition and poor health is a large contributor to low retention and poor performance in school. Research participants in this study posit that food insecurity and significant malnutrition levels can have direct effects on a child's performance and achievement in school and hence on their future prospects. Malnutrition increases the risk of disability, morbidity, and mortality, and thus contributes to the intergenerational transmission of poverty and illness (a teacher interviewed). Results from interviews with ECD B teachers established that there is a higher incidence of such conditions as asthma, respiratory infections, headaches, stomach pains, stress related ailments, poor vision, marasmus, rickets, kwashiorkor, coughs, diarrhoea, ear infections and hearing loss among children who are malnourished. During interviews,

one teacher stressed that the lack of nutritious food triggers an array of health problems in children, many of which can become chronic. This researcher observed that a myriad of these diseases affect the ability of children to benefit from education and to function intellectually, socially and economically later in their lives thus it can cripple a society for a generation or more. Malnourishment can greatly compromise a child's immune system, making them more susceptible to infectious diseases (Lappe, 2013). Particularly in institutions where there are poor sanitary practices, children are vulnerable to infections from other children or caregivers. In particular, zinc, iron and vitamin A are commonly associated with weakened immune function (Shrestha & Pathak, 2012).

It was also observed in this research that children who were poorly fed had a very low height for their age. The question we ask as researchers is, "…is it always that children who have a stunted growth are underfed'? Results from interviews with ECD B teachers and headmasters revealed that children experienced stunted growth because they were underfed. This confirmed findings made by Ignowski (2012); Donald et al. (2010: 156); Lacour and Tissington (2011: 552) who posit that children who are under fed are much more prone to the health risks and safety risks associated with malnutrition, disease, infection, and injury than are children who are not under fed. Many of these health and safety risks cause physical, cognitive, neurological or sensory problems that are likely to cause disabilities and learning difficulties (Donald *et al.*, 2010: 276), hence the children's level of attention and ability to do complex intellectual work increase with the development of the sense organs as well as the brain.

In agreement, health problems and nutrition deficits are important ways through which poverty affect children's cognitive and school related outcomes (Chinyoka, 2013). ECD B teachers interviewed posit that the greater incidence of health issues among malnourished students lead to increased grade repetition, school absences, school dropout, tardiness rates, incidence of illness during class and high rates of undiagnosed and or untreated health problems or disabilities. Donald et al. (2010) concur with the above sentiments purporting that children who are poorly fed tend to miss school more often because of illness, a teacher, Mrs Chuma said that:

> ...*health problems among learners lead to psychosocial distress and anxiety, headaches, insomnia, a low self-esteem, low test scores, mental instability, as well as underachieving in their academic work*.

This study observed that such learners are usually stigmatised, labelled and looked down upon. They also develop an inferiority complex as a result. To worsen the plight of ECD B learners, this researcher observed that most parents could not afford to buy medicines and pay for medical bills for their children. All teachers interviewed emphasised that a healthy student is a productive student. This has turned into a mere lip service as most of them are failing to maintain a healthy state due, among other factors, poverty and poor diet. In Zimbabwe, health is fast becoming a luxury which only those who afford to pay the doctors, medical bills and drugs can get.

Conclusion
From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that malnutrition causes an array of psychosocial problems like illness, stress, low self-esteem behavioural problems, delayed cognitive, physical growth, development of motor skills and intellectual

development. Malnutrition also alters intellectual development by interfering with overall health as well as the child's energy level, rate of motor development and rate of growth. The study also concluded that malnutrition deepens poverty, affected physical, social, emotional and cognitive development, academic performance and learner's health.

Recommendations
On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations were given:

- That all people and stakeholders should work hard to minimise the root causes of poor nutrition (socio-economic instability, political unrest, land problem and the issue of international sanctions in Zimbabwe).
- Nutrition support programs, such as food support programmes for pregnant women, children in schools, introduction of Nutrition gardens and giving food hand-outs to the children comprising, soya beans, soya blend porridge, cooking oil, mealie-meal and sometimes peanut butter.
- ECD B teachers need to be warm, supportive and nurturing towards ECD B learners who are psychologically unstable due to poor nutrition so as to raise their self-confidence, self-direction, self-esteem and self-image. The sense of belonging as advocated by Maslow motivates the learners to work and co-operate with peers as they engage in co-operative learning. In support, Snowman and Biehler (2011) assert that teachers should approach their students with love, acceptance and respect and empathise with their fears, expectations and disappointments as this boosts a positive self-concept.
- Last but not least, some teachers suggested the need for parents to pool grain together at the chief's homestead during bumper harvests for later use (zunde ramambo/isiphala senkosi) and they emphasised the need to feed children breakfast before sending them to school.

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Problematising the credibility of logo-centric data in the era of post-humanism research

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Abstract
This paper focuses on the epistemological concerns that are raised whenever human beings attempt to generate social science research data. This paper is of the view that speech data cannot furnish the foundation for eternal, context-independent, supra-cultural, and historical knowledge-claim such as the type made by quantitative social researchers. We base our conviction on rich theoretical articulations including the belief that since nobody, in any time and place, is free from ideological contamination, the eternal existence of such ideological impurities deny epistemic credibility to data generation comments. To enhance our argument, we drew on queer methodology to enable us present arguments that demonstrate why the habit of uncritically using human speech as data (logo-centric data) in social science research cannot furnish the premise of incontestable and reliable social science knowledge. In any case, the place of expertise and sound professional judgement on technical matters cannot be replaced by number (quantity), no matter how representative the survey data generation methods may be. In such instances, an expert's detailed view gotten from an in-depth interview would always add pragmatic value to a social science research than two thousand random views of people who have limited knowledge of the same subject, thus enhancing our argument that a mixed methods approach to social science research could definitely increase the credibility of social science data and research outcomes.

Keywords: Credibility. Logo-centric data. Post-Humanism. Data generation. Qualitative research.

Introduction
The construct of an essentialist conventional human being of humanism and that of the human being of post-humanism era hold epistemological insights that social science research can no longer continue to ignore. The human being of post-humanism is construed as not "endowed with permanent identity and substantiality" (Finke, 1993: 15). In post-humanism, a human being is "organised and reorganised as historical moments change" (St. Pierre, 2015: 107-108). The constant change that defines the human being of post-humanism is constructed as "subversive repetition" and celebrated as freedom (Butler, 1995: 42).

Keenan (1997: 66) takes the view that the freedom which subversive repetition confers on human beings of post-humanism is possible because their non-permanent identity shields them from *a priori* subjugation and being taken for granted. Unlike the human beings of essentialist conventional humanism, the human beings of post-humanism do not "pre-exist their interactions" (Barad, 2007: ix). What this means is that the essence of the human being of post-humanism is constituted at "junctures where every day's discourses (read: every day's interactions) are

renewed" (Butler, 1995: 135). What this means is that the words of research respondents/participants in post-humanism" do not exist before the interview but are products and artefacts of the interview" (St. Pierre, 2015: 114).

In essentialist conventional humanism, on the other hand, human beings (individuals and persons) are seen as "epistemologically knowing, rational, and conscious *a priori* subjects with stable identities" (St. Pierre, 2015: 103). An *a priori* individual's identity in conventional humanism is "secured in advance, his/her words, likes and dislikes are believed to be reliable, valid, true and immutable" (Butler, 1995: 131-132). The immutable identity of human beings of conventional humanism is theorised as "denial of freedom, as being stuck, as being buried and shut down" (St. Pierre, 2015: 111). This lack of freedom is the reason why the meaning in the language, in the spoken and written words of individuals of conventional humanism is seen as given and adjudged as capable of "transporting ideas from one individual to another" (St. Pierre, 2015: 114). For their lack of freedom, Spivak (1988, 1999) characterises the individuals of conventional humanism as neither authentic nor natural but are rather seen as the product of the very ideological, cultural, historical and hegemonic conditions that oppress them.

Spivak also writes that as a result of the oppression, the identity and voices of individuals of conventional humanism are not self-evident. These lacks mean that the speech of individuals of conventional humanism lacks originality, therefore, making the experience which their speech describes as "normalized and regulated product of their positioning and subjugation" (Spivak, 1988, 1999) as cited by (St. Pierre, 2015: 106). This paper explores how the tenets of both the essentialist conventional individual of humanism and those of the individuals of post-humanism, as explained, impact social science research practices. For the avoidance of doubts, we see post-humanism as arising from post-human, a condition in which humans and technology close ranks and are becoming increasingly linked together. We also see the term as thinking beyond humanism and the idea that technological advances could eliminate humanity and in some instances, complement it.

Among the things that could be said about social science research is that researchers in this field are guided by conventional research methods. Another observation is that the data generation technique for survey research approach is similar to the data generation technique pollsters use when they seek data for opinion polls. In the survey research design, a representative sample is statistically drawn from the research population. Respondents in the sample are made to score close-ended items in a questionnaire in a way that enhances "statistical analysis" by the researcher (Lindloff & Taylor, 2002: 18).

For many reasons, this approach to data generation has been characterised as less than an exact science. Lang & Lang (1991: 202), for instance, raise the question of "dissimulation" – a construct used to describe a research issue that arises when respondents fail to give their real thought in a research situation where the research phenomenon is a sensitive one. McQuail (2010: 360) also raises the issue of "subject reactivity." Subject reactivity occurs when the presence of the researcher influences how respondents score the items in the data-collection instrument. Researchers who deploy other data generation techniques, such as the focus group discussion, have not hidden their criticism of the data generation techniques used by survey researchers. Researchers who use the focus group discussion to generate social research data flaunt many advantages of their technique. As they do so, they also condemn the survey design data generation technique for conniving at a technique where all questionnaire items come from only the researcher without any

input from the researched. High points of what draws applause for the focus group data generation technique (which the survey data generation technique is accused of incapability), is the concept of "collective or group testimonies" (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013: 324, 329 & 346).

Collective group testimony frees the social research process from the "atomized voice" of only the researcher as seen in the survey data generation technique (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013: 329). For upending the scourge of atomised voice in the social research process, the focus group is applauded for activating and bringing to the social research process voices that may have been muted in mainstream signification practices. These qualities, including the belief that it is only the focus group procedure that makes it possible to generate the kind and amount of "data that are difficult, if not impossible, to generate through interviews and observation" (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013: 331), is among the reasons global consensus on best practices in social science research uphold the unique contribution that the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) procedure brings into data generation in social science research.

Some of the most influential global commissions and workshops which have considered the best way to conduct social science research are the Gulbenkian Commission (Wallerstein, 1996) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Workshop on Re-inventing the Social Sciences (2001). The Gulbenkian Commission and the OECD Workshop uphold a social science data collection procedure that guarantees "cooperation of the researcher(s) and those who play a role in the phenomenon being researched" (OECD Workshop, 2001: 67). It is only the Focus Group data collection procedure that guarantees such researcher and researched cooperation as demanded by the OECD Workshop and the Gulbenkian Commissions.

Incidents of pollster errors that vindicate global commissions' disdain for pollster and survey research data generation techniques are open knowledge. One example of the errors during the Brexit referendum is the mistake pollsters made when they projected a win for those who wanted the United Kingdom to stay with the European Union. Another error was during the famed 2016 Presidential Election in the United States where major polls and pollsters projected a Hilary Clinton victory at the polls.

We know that many reasons have been adduced for the so-called errors in the above examples, some of which include voters' lack of sincerity in admitting they will vote for Trump notwithstanding the peculiar elements he represents and his unconventional positions to some traditional American positions. The same also was adduced for the shocking Brexit votes. People were not comfortable admitting that they wanted the United Kingdom to leave the EU. This is apart from the current suggestions that many voters were deceived into voting "Leave", hence the call for a new round of voting. Brexit votes in the United Kingdom and Trump's victory in the 2016 US Presidential Elections appear to be clear indications that opinion polls and survey research approaches are not an exact science, and do not offer any fool proof as credible data gathering methods.

We need to restate here that the familiar belief that the art of opinion polling is not an exact science should not cause much concern in the art of opinion polling as it should in survey research practice. The errors that crop up in opinion polls might not be of much consequence since the art of opinion polling does not make pretences at discovering context-independent knowledge. However, the same cannot be said about the art of survey research. The claims that practitioners of survey research

make about their research design is the same as the claims that natural scientists make about the natural sciences which are generally believed to be exact sciences.

As the staple methodology of the quantitative research method, the survey research approach is not only touted by its practitioners as an exact science; it is also referenced as the foundation of context-independent knowledge (Lindloff & Taylor, 2002; Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013). This is problematic because all the flaws that distort public opinion polls are also foundational to and distortive of the survey research approach as a technique that is similar to the one pollsters use for public opinion polls. Thus, we should question the credibility of survey research in instances where it is the sole method of data generation, especially, in post-humanism research or investigations.

The Public Opinion Euphemism and the Problem of Data Credibility

Today, the construct of public opinion evokes a positive connotation in ways that might confuse many and make them forget that public opinion is an euphemism for what conservative philosophers had correctly termed "mass opinion" that is occasioned by the "formless reaction of the masses" (Habermas, 2001: 240). Before the replacement of mass opinion with public opinion, 19th and early 20th century conservative thinkers predicted that public opinion, also referred to as "the reign of many and the mediocre" (Habermas, 2001: 133) would contaminate the pure rationality that was used to refine social reality prior to the time that "mood-dependent preferences" of the masses were unleashed to dilute constructive rationality (Habermas, 2001: 237). Davis (2009: 809) cites Ferdinand Tönnies, Gustave Le Bon and early 20th century thinkers of the Frankfurt School as among the thinkers who articulated the danger of permitting "disorganised, undifferentiated and ignorant masses" who cannot "recognise their interest" let alone "make reasoned political choices" to express opinion on public issues. Livid as Ferdinand Tönnies and others are in their condemnation of the mistake of allowing the "intellectually lazy masses" (Habermas, 2001: 138) to comment on social issues, the views of Bluntschli cited in Habermas (2001: 276) is more instructive as to the reason the masses and their opinion on social issues should be treated with utmost disdain.

Grounding his convictions on many reasons, Bluntschli had proclaimed that pronouncements on social issues should be the exclusive preserve of "a relatively small number of persons specially educated for the task of bringing all social issues to purification with the insight of those who possess profound conception of things" (Habermas, 2001: 136). Alarmed at the possibility that "public opinion can come under manipulation through the momentary passions of the crowd", Bluntschli informs that "the men who possess a deeper insight into political life and its needs are never numerous in any age" (Habermas, 2001: 276). Bluntschli's aversion to the mistake of delivering issues of social importance to the court of the multitude compelled him to insist that "the large classes preoccupied with the material cultivation of the soil, with crafts, small trade and factory work are thoroughly lacking in education and leisure needed to dedicate themselves to the affairs of the state" (Habermas, 2001: 276). Of much relief to qualitative social researchers and of great concern to those who conduct survey research on subjects that centre on human beings and human behaviour, is Bluntschli's declaration that "a single remarkable individual may see things correctly while the entire world about him has wrong views" (Habermas, 2001: 276).

The reason why Bluntschli's declaration above should be a relief to qualitative researchers is premised on the sampling techniques of the qualitative method. The

"theoretical construct, unique, critical, snow ball and much of the maximum variation sampling techniques" (Tracy, 2013: 134-138) of the qualitative research method thrive on seeking out a small number of participants adjudged by the researcher as possessing nuanced insight on the social issues that social researchers investigate. Unlike the qualitative social researchers, the sampling techniques of the quantitative researchers, especially the technique they use to gather data in survey research design, is based on probability sampling technique.

The purpose of sample-selection in quantitative method is not geared to access participants with profound insight on social issues that are being investigated by social scientists but is geared towards capturing a multitude of cases with characteristics and criteria that mirror the target population from which the sample is drawn. Worrisome as this misplaced emphasis should be, practitioners of the survey research design appear to be unaware that the strive towards a representative sample by means of probability randomisation usually casts their technique in a light that privileges the views of multitude over the views of few who may possess nuanced insight on the research phenomena or subject of investigation. Worsening the worry over the survey sampling technique is the misrecognition by the practitioners that the data generated when a chosen sample responds to questionnaire items are just but mere "mood-dependent opinions" whose "judgment lacks certainty, and whose truth still have to be proven" (Habermas, 2001: 89).

In any case, the place of expertise and sound professional judgement on technical matters or subjects cannot be replaced by number (quantity), no matter how representative the so-called survey data generation methods applied may be. In such an instance, one expert's detailed view gotten from a one-on-one in-depth interview would always add pragmatic value to a social science or humanities investigation than a thousand random views of people who have limited knowledge of the same subject. This is the strength of qualitative research and its argument that survey instruments cannot alone generate data that credibly address human behaviour and peculiarities without any form of triangulation of the research data gathering instruments.

Subversion of Logo-centric Data

To be sure, "logo-centricism" (Kuby, 2017: 880) or "phono-centricism" (St. Pierre, 2017: 4) is the tendency of prioritizing speech, talk, language and texts as sources of data in social science research. St. Pierre (2015) cites the sources that are behind the emerging criticism of phono-centric data. In criticising the error of building social science knowledge on phono-centric data, the critics accuse researchers who use phono-centric data of misrecognising the belief that there are distortions in the data that human speech affords. The identification of the distortions that are inherent in spoken data is informed by, among others, articulations against conventional humanism, contamination with ideological impurities of language-conveyed meaning as well as the impossibility of exhaustive signification.

The contamination of language-conveyed meaning is explained within the construct of "history of ideological existence" (Grossberg, 1991: 139 & 147). Birkhead (1991: 228) refers to this history as *surplus code* or *culture capital*. The concept of *culture capital* is developed to account for what reporters, research participants, research respondents, news-makers and humans as a whole draw on when they comment on social issues. When people make sense of social reality and go ahead to make comments based on the interpretations that are informed by the wealth of their culture capital, such process of sense-making and comments

concomitant to it is known as the "interpretation of interpretations" (Fairclough, 2001: 67; Steiner, 1991: 331).

Interpretation of interpretations means that happenings around any of us are texts the interpretation and meaning of which are shaped by our social positions, values, power experience and so forth (Grossberg, 1991: 134; Sillars & Gronbeck, 2001: 8-9). The point is that the comments people and research participants/respondents make change in relation to the changes in their culture capital. What the concept of culture capital in this context calls into question is the convention of not problematising the use of human speech as data in the social sciences.

The erroneous convention of grounding social science knowledge on unquestioned human speech-data has been traced to "conventional humanists" (St. Pierre, 2015: 108) whose uncritical faith in the data-value of human speech betrays ignorance of the ephemerality of the human identity. Ephemerality of human identity promotes the view that we, Amadi, Ekeanyanwu and Onwubere, human beings writing this sentence on early Monday morning of 16th April 2018 were not the same Amadi, Ekeanyanwu and Onwubere of 16th April 2017 and that Amadi, Ekeanyanwu and Onwubere will not, for instance, be the same Amadi, Ekeanyanwu and Onwubere come 16th of April 2023.

Similarly, the construct of the ephemerality of human identity also means that you, the reader of this paper, is not what you were a year before this time you are reading this paper, neither will you remain who you are ten years after this date you are reading this article. The construct of ephemerality of human identity is an emerging effort by post-humanists to wean the conventional humanists off their intellectual blinkers. The weaning effort is to enable the conventional humanists realize that credible social science research will be nourished only when all practitioners agree to "problematise the individual, the self, the human being of humanism" and to "cultivate an attention to the conditions under which things (data) become evident and therefore seemingly fixed, necessary and unchangeable" (St. Pierre, 2015: 108; Robinow, 1997: xix).

To allay the confusion which might make it look as if post-humanists' stance is a proclamation of the end of humans, the post-humanists have offered clarification to emphasise that what they seek is not more of an effort to affirm the end of humanism but to rally social science researchers towards a consensus that will enable them to jettison the I, me, we, the individual and so forth of conventional humanism. Post-humanists seek such effort because of their conviction that upholding a priori stable human identity instead of seeing humans as mere subjects that are "constructed, constituted" in the ebb and flow of everyday living (Butler, 1990: 42; 1995: 125), is a cognitive flaw that threatens credibility of the social science research enterprise.

The Implication of Rethinking Human Beings in the Social Sciences

Some Post-humanism thinkers now cite the flaws of phono-centric data when they advocate a blanket repudiation of both the quantitative and the qualitative social science research methods. Before drawing on eight citations used as "transgressive data" (St. Pierre, 2013: 470) for analysis, it is necessary to further review some other literature which the Post-humanists use to justify the call to abandon the quantitative and qualitative research practices. Barad (2007: ix) believes that a human being, an individual does not "pre-exist their interaction" but that an "individual emerges through and as a part of their entangled inter-relating." A view has also been expressed to affirm that participants and respondents who talk to researchers during

interviews or who respond to questionnaire items in research contexts are not "self-contained, self-aware individuals who have real selves that step outside such selves to reflect on such selves during an interview encounter" (St. Pierre, 2015: 14). There is also a call to accept the belief that "meaning is always deferred and that language, spoken or written, cannot be trusted to transport meaning from one individual to another" (St. Pierre, 2015: 114). Other views lending weight to this line of thought include "it is impossible to fully say everything one means explicitly or to mean absolutely, everything that is implied by what one says explicitly" (Verschueren, 1999: 249).

The point in citing the foregoing is to affirm our rejection of the view that the arguments the citations promote constitute enough ground to discredit on equal measure, the quantitative and the qualitative research methods. To strengthen our rejection, we shall present a selection of eight articulations. The eight articulations, considered as "transgressive data" (St. Pierre, 2013: 470) are selected because we consider them the strongest justification in the psyche of the post-humanists when they started advocating for post-qualitative research.

Based on the entailments of the eight transgressive articulations, we shall present reasons why the distortions that are inherent in phono-centric data do not undermine qualitative studies as they do quantitative ones. The eight post-humanism articulations used as transgressive data for the analysis that follows are drawn from where (St. Pierre, 2015: 106-107 & 114) cites Spivak (1988, 1999); Scot (1991); Derrida (1966, 1970); and Geertz (1988).

We, by using these citations as data, subscribe to the view that there's no reason why comments drawn from literature (textbooks) should be considered less credible data in social research than field comments made by research participants who may not even be as knowledgeable in the phenomenon we are writing about as the authors from whose books we have drawn the transgressive data (St. Pierre & Jackson, 2014: 716). The transgressive data are presented as follows:

1. An individual, the subaltern cannot speak for themselves – they are not authentic, not natural but rather the product of the very ideological, cultural, historical and hegemonic conditions that oppress them.
2. Neither their identity nor their voice is self-evidence.
3. Their speech is not original, true… but only speech, the experience it describes is the normalised and regulated product of their positioning and subjection.
4. Meaning cannot serve as incontestable, reliable evidence; it cannot serve as the origin or ground of our knowing.
5. Data cannot speak for themselves.
6. We can interview all we like, but all we can ever get from a participant is today's story and tomorrow's will, no doubt, be different.
7. It is dangerous to believe in what we hear and see without theorising what enables us to sense as we do.
8. The truth and the real we see in data are chimeras, fictions and neither can ever be outside human being but can only ever be human being – the contingent, chaotic, impoverished limit of our imagination and practices.

To be certain, the entailments of the eight (8) cited transgressive data promote a call for post qualitative research. A post qualitative research promotes the idea of a qualitative research practice where human beings will not be involved in data generation. The call for post-qualitative research premises the belief, as entailed in the transgressive data that conventional human beings do not exist a priori except at

the "juncture where discourse is renewed" (Butler, 1995: 135). And as a result, speeches emanating from such positioned, regulated and normalised humans should not be the foundation for knowledge.

Our stance is that the merit in the call for a post methodology social research occasioned by the arguments in transgressive data should advocate post-quantitative and not post-qualitative research practices. Our reasons for saying that the entailments justify advocacy for post-quantitative more than the post-qualitative method are strong. As can be gleaned from the transgressive data number five (5), one of the reasons that anchor the post-qualitative thinking is the practice of not questioning spoken data based on the belief that such data speak for themselves. The belief that data speak for themselves is more pervasive in the quantitative research practices than in the qualitative ones. The quantitative practice of assuming that knowledge is context-independent, supra-cultural and supra-historical which transgressive data numbers 1, 4 and 8 refute is premised on the same specious belief. More so, such other quantitative practices as repeatability, objectivity and generalisability derive from the assumption that data speak for themselves.

Many conventional qualitative research practices can be explained as free from the shackles of the aforementioned quantitative blinkers. Explanations to prove that conventional qualitative research practices are not shackled by the quantitative blinkers can draw from many sources. Bogden and Bilken (1982: 59) notes, for instance, that as part of their effort to generate data, qualitative researchers look beyond human beings to draw on what (Kuby, 2017: 883) refers to as "social materials." The qualitative practice of using naturally-occurring social materials as data in place of phono-centric data is an affirmation of what transgressive data numbers one to three calls for.

In the contemporary world where the social science research enterprise is centred on "the discursive and material conditions that constrain what can be said and lived" (St. Pierre, 2015: 107), and where the discourse that engage the effort of qualitative "discourse" analysts is not the discourse of "what is said" but the discourse of what "constrains and enables what can be said" (Barad, 2008: 137), the "naturally-occurred textual data" (Perakyla & Ruusuvouri, 2013: 277-307) which analysts use theories and "writing with theories" (Mazzei, 2013: 732-740) to analyse are not part of the data that speak for themselves.

The fact that qualitative researchers do not, unlike the quantitative practitioners, focus on the production of universals and causal generalisations but rather focus on "construction of interpretation about certain ways of understanding the world in historical moments and in specific context" (Ang, 2001: 187; Smith, 1996: 194), furnishes further reason why Post-humanists should not consign qualitative social research practices into the same trashcan with the quantitative research practices. Apposite, along this line of reasoning, is qualitative practitioners' stance on the concept of conclusion in research as Markham (2015: 245) noted by citing Bochner and Ellis (2003: 507) who write that "the conclusion of our research is not really a conclusion but a turn in conversation, not closed statements but an open question, not a way of declaring this is how it is but a means of inviting others to consider what it (or they) could become."

Hesmondhalgh (2006: 146) underscores all by citing (Taylor (2001: 319) who notes that "knowledge is situated; claims which are made can refer only to the specific circumstances of place, time and participants in which the research was conducted." All conventional qualitative research practitioners subscribe to both Markham and Taylor's views in ways no quantitative practitioner does. So if there is

any social research method that is guilty of the assumptions that warrant the call for jettisoning a social research method whose data is compromised by human centred-data, that method is the quantitative and not the qualitative social research method.

Conclusion

Instructive arguments and perspectives have been reviewed in ways that underscore the end of introverted conventionalism in social research practices, thus enhancing our argument that a mixed methods approach to social science research could definitely increase the credibility of social science data and research outcomes in the era of post-humanism research. This argument, we believe, furnishes heuristic resources to all progressive qualitative researchers. Should there be any group that the ascendency of methodological pluralism in social research will upset, it must be those who are opposed to a change in the way social research is executed. Since a continuous opposition to the march of "queer methodologies" (Holliday, 2007, p.260) cited in (Prosser, 2013: 189), in social research will only attract embarrassing censure, it will be advisable for the reactionaries to start embracing what they cannot reverse.

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