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FROM THE EDITORIAL DESK

You are welcome to volume 3 No 1 of the UNESWA Journal of Education (UJOE). The journal is the official publication of the faculty of Education, University of Eswatini, Eswatini. I seize this opportunity to express my profound gratitude to the Board of Editors, Advisory Board and assessors without whose services, it would have been impossible to produce this 3rd edition. The journal upholds the promotion of multi - and inter – disciplinary approach to research and development. I should state here that conditions are not perfect yet for authors to demonstrate their best. Perfectionists never get anything done. That is why we are bold to present to you what research efforts authors have made in their various fields. The Editorial Board does not necessarily share views expressed in any of the articles published. Readers' constructive comments and views are welcome.

Professor O. I. Oloyede
Editor – in - Chief

AWARENESS, ACCEPTANCE, AND APPLICATION OF STRATEGIC PLANNING AMONG MINISTRY OF EDUCATION OFFICIALS IN SOUTH WEST NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Nigeria embraced the use of State Education Strategic Plan (SESP) and State Education Sector Operational Plan (SESOP) spanning between 2010 and 2020. This was based on the belief that strategic planning is capable of boosting education performance and also improves strategic planning awareness, acceptance and application. Yet, scientific evidence established that only few organizations follow strategic planning practices beyond the first year, owing to low level of strategic planning knowledge and negative attitude of top officials. To this end, the study examined strategic planning awareness, acceptance, and application among the ministry of education officials in South West Nigeria. The study adopted an expo-facto design to survey views of Ministry of Education officials. The population comprised of all the ministry of education's senior and operational officers including Directors and Deputy Directors in the five States that participated in SESP-SESOP (Phase II). Using simple random sampling technique, twelve officials per each of the five States were selected resulting in 60 respondents out of which four failed to return their questionnaires. A validated questionnaire, titled "Perception of Ministry of Education Officials on Strategic Planning" subdivided into Awareness, Adoption, and Application, with a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of $\alpha=.74$, was developed and used for data collection. Data were analysed using percentages and mean averages while multiple regression was used to know the contributions of strategic planning awareness and acceptance to its application by ministry officials. The findings revealed that although the levels of strategic planning awareness, acceptance, and application vary from State to State in South West Nigeria, on the average, the strategic planning awareness (average mean=3.20), acceptance (average mean=3.02) and application (average mean=3.17) were high respectively (high ≥ 2.5). The findings further revealed that only strategic planning acceptance made a singular significant contribution to its application ($\beta=0.556$, $p>0.05$) while the joint contribution of awareness and acceptance to strategic planning application was also significant ($F=13.527$, $p=0.00$). The paper concluded that contrary to expectation, the acceptance level was comparatively low despite its significant contribution to strategic planning application. The paper therefore, recommended a deliberate nurture of values of change to boost levels of strategic planning acceptance without reverting to their traditional practices.

KEYWORDS: Acceptance, application, awareness, ministry of education officials, South-West Nigeria, strategic planning

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INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning aids the management to improve organizational performance by ensuring that everyone in the organization works towards the same objectives as the direction is continuously adjusted in line with the changing context and based on results obtained (UNESCO, 2010a). In the education sector, strategic planning is used to identify practical ways to achieve the desired vision at an individual, institutional, organizational, and societal levels (Kaufman & Herman, 1991, Richardson, 2004). Thus, as a groundwork to win the persistent war against ignorance, illiteracy, lack of skills and trainings, calculated efforts are made at various levels of education to assess education sector's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, identify winning routes, and then select the best of the winning strategies for the next few years. Miec (1995) rightly described strategic planning as making short- medium- and long-range decisions that cover both immediate and distant actions to accomplish institutional mission, goals, and objectives.

Chang (2006, 2008) divided the strategic planning process into the education sector study, formulation of policies and strategies as well as activity scheduling. To him, policy and strategy formulation involves the must-do to address the key issues, challenges, and opportunities identified under the analysis of the education system. The criticism by Martin (2014) that organizations characteristically follow the strategic plan only in the year one of a five-year strategic plan can be an aftermath of the non-participatory nature of the military model inherited, first, by the business world and later transferred to the education sector. Strategic planning, having proved to be a means of achieving cost-effectiveness and results in the private sector, became transferred from the business world to the public sector (although with some technical difficulties). Nigeria eventually reformed her public sector by initiating the 1988 Civil Service Reforms that disaggregated the administrative functions of Ministries into three professional components of Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM), Directorate of Finance and Supply (DFS) and Planning, Research and Statistics (Lawal, 2014). Despite these reforms, the Directorate of Planning Research and Statistics (DPRS) remained highly technical, resource-oriented, and traditionally carried out by experts resulting in disappointment between the 1960s and the 1980s (Wheeler, 1968; Babalola, 2020).

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In the 1990s, continuous efforts were made to ameliorate the weaknesses of long-term planning at the ministry of education level. As from mid-1990, preparation of a strategic education sector plan became a condition for a developing country like Nigeria to benefit from donor support in education (Chang, 2006; UNESCO, 2010a; Fehnel, 2000; Chang, 2006; UNESCO, 2020a, 2010b; Babalola, 2020). In response to the aforementioned global best practices, and to achieve the long-term strategic plan known as National Vision (NV) 20:2020, Nigeria initiated several national and sectoral medium-term implementation plans (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2010, Lawal, 2014). To this end, UNESCO (2010a) highlighted four organizational arrangements to guide sector planning in education. The first arrangement concerns mobilizing technical expertise with competencies in statistical analysis, use of computerized simulation models, programme design and monitoring as well as costing, budgeting, and financing. The second arrangement deals with involving the whole ministry and departments to carry out the situation analysis, make proposals concerning

the objectives, targets, and priorities; and to design priority programmes. The third arrangement is concerning the participation of stakeholders while the last arrangement concerns ensuring proper coordination and monitoring. As a capacity development tool, the strategic plan preparation is expected to be used by consultants working closely with the national officers to transfer techniques and competencies effectively (UNESCO, 2015; Valentine, 1988). This capacity development approach was expected to be replicated at the State and possibly at school level (Valentine, 1988). Consequently, in 2010, UNICEF provided both technical and financial supports to Bauchi, Jigawa and Niger States to develop education strategic plans (SESP-SESOP I) and build institutional capacity of the ministry of education officials regarding the art and science of strategic planning. In 2011, the project was extended to fifteen more States including all the States in South West Nigeria (Lagos State was excluded because it had earlier developed State education sector strategic and operational plans). The Terms of Reference (Obanya, 2011, p.1) issued out by UNICEF to the consultant (EDSI) of the SESP-SESOP II (including the author) included building institutional capacity for rigorous education sector work in the process through institutionalization and internalization of strategic thinking and strategic planning behaviour (classified into strategic planning awareness, acceptance, and application in this study).

Figure 1 is the conceptual framework that was used to manage SESP-SESOP II in the sampled states. UNICEF appointed the Education Strategies International (EDSI) to execute the SESP-SESOP in Nigeria. The EDSI worked in close collaboration with the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) to draw lessons from the earlier development of the national education sector strategic plan and to ensure strategic alignment between the national and state educational development; thus, ensuring even socio-economic progress in the country. EDSI also appointed a consultant per State to form the technical support team (TST) playing a guidance-support role for the ministry of education officials; otherwise known as the State technical team (STT) who were the real actors for empowerment (by increasing strategic planning awareness, acceptance, and application). Nevertheless, there was the need to appoint an Economist as well as a Statistician to serve as the Core Technical Team (CTT) especially, to strengthen the Education Management Information System (EMIS) of each State ministry of education to enhance the predictive power of the planning exercise. The Enlarged Technical Team (ETT) comprising EDSI, FME, TST, STT, and CTT periodically assembled under the sentry of UNICEF for review and finalization purposes. Subsequently, a Ten-year (2011-2020) State Education Sector Strategic Plan [SESP] was developed for each of the States with UNICEF's technical and financial supports and through the involvement of all stakeholders with whom the various challenges were identified and solutions proffered without losing focus of the State vision and mission for education. This also informed the State Education Sector Operational Plan [SESOP] which outlines the work programme for the first three years of SESP.

(Figure 1).

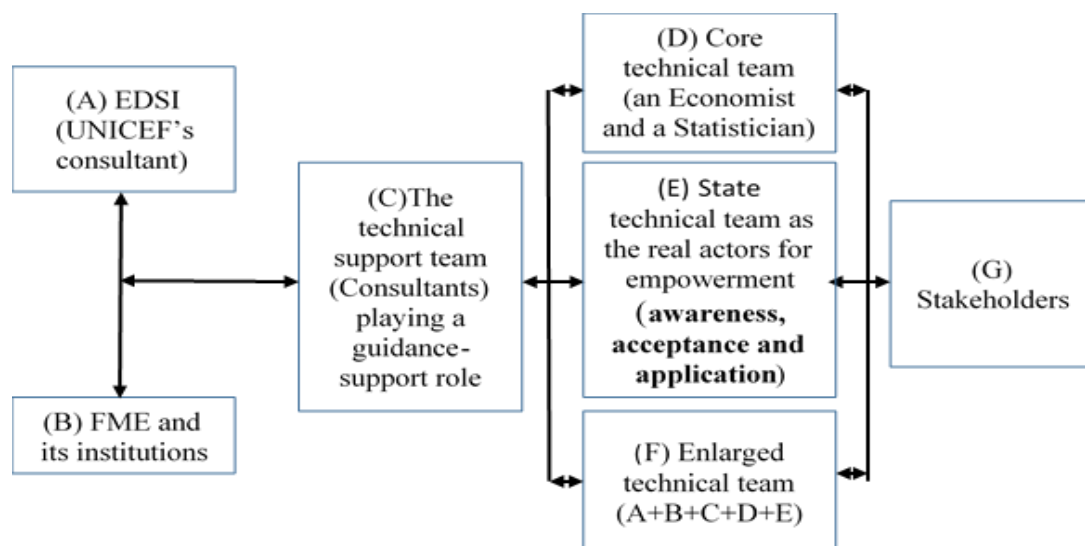


Figure 1: The management structure for SESP-SESOP II in South West Nigeria

Research objectives

Based on the above background, the study generally set out to assess the levels of strategic planning awareness, acceptance and application of ministry officials at the close of the first strategic planning experience in Southwest Nigeria. Furthermore, it aimed at examining the influence of strategic planning awareness and acceptance on strategic planning application. Specifically, the study set out to:

1. assess the level of strategic planning awareness of ministry of education officials
2. evaluate the level of strategic planning acceptance of ministry of education officials
3. examine the level of strategic planning application among ministry of education officials
4. measure interstate variations in strategic awareness, acceptance and application among sampled states
5. examine the amount of influence exerted on strategic planning application by strategic planning awareness and acceptance

Research questions

Based on the research objectives, five specific research questions were raised to guide this study as follows:

1. How aware are the State ministry of education officials about strategic planning?
2. How acceptable is the strategic planning among the ministry of education officials?
3. How applicable is strategic planning among the ministry of education DPRS officials?
4. What are the interstate variations in strategic planning awareness, acceptance and application among the sampled States?
5. How much influence do strategic planning awareness and acceptance exert on its application?

Research hypothesis

Question 5 has been transformed to the following research hypothesis:

H₀1: There is no significant influence of strategic planning awareness and acceptance on its application

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted an expo-facto research design to survey views of the Ministry of Education officials, especially, those who are responsible for planning, research, statistics, and monitoring of education policies, projects, and programmes regarding strategic planning awareness, acceptance, and application. The study covered Directors, Deputy Directors, and other Officers in the Ministry of Education in each of the States in the Southwest geopolitical zone that is considered to be the most educationally advanced of the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria. Five states were purposefully selected (Ekiti, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo). Lagos State was excluded because it was not among the states that participated in SESP-SESOP II. From each of the five states, 12 top policymakers and technical planners in the Ministry of Education were randomly selected for the study. Since 4 (6.67%) of the participants failed to return their questionnaires, the study utilized 56 instead of 60 respondents.

The research instrument (a questionnaire) used for data collection activities was developed and titled "Perception of Ministry of Education officials on Strategic Planning". The instrument was sub-scaled into four sections; namely: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents, Strategic Planning Awareness, Strategic Planning Acceptance, and Strategic Planning Application. The instrument was validated and yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of $\alpha=0.74$. The validated questionnaire was administered among the sampled respondents and data were analysed using descriptive statistics while multiple regression (inferential statistics) was used to know the contributions of awareness and acceptance of strategic planning to its application by the ministry officials.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study assessed the levels of awareness, acceptance, and applicability of strategic planning among the ministry of education officials. Also, it examined the joint and combined influence of awareness and acceptance on the strategic planning application among sampled officials.

Demographic profile of respondents

This section focused on the profile of the ministry of education officials who responded to the questionnaire. The male to female percentage distribution of respondents was 58.9% to 41.1% respectively. Furthermore, a majority (81.1%) of the respondents were DPRS' Directors (8.9%), Deputy Directors (26.8%) and other officials (64.3%) who were not only highly experienced having spent more than 10 years in the service but were also highly educated with 96.4%, of them possessing first and second degrees. Experience aside, the majority (67.9%) of them were 41 years and above.

**Descriptive analysis**

1. How aware are the state ministry of education officials about strategic planning?

Table 1: Strategic planning awareness among the ministry of education officials

S/N		SA	A	D	SD	\bar{X}
1	Strategic planning is different from traditional planning	32 57.1%	22 39.3%	1 1.8%	1 1.8%	3.52
2	Strategic planning is result-oriented rather than being resource-oriented	36 64.3%	20 35.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3.64
3	Strategic planning involves establishing a direction by assessing both where education is now and where it is going to be in the next five to ten years.	7 12.5%	10 17.9%	31 55.4%	8 14.3%	2.29
4	Strategic planning involves the technocrats, other public servants who are not technocrats and politicians in the education sector	18 32.1%	27 48.3%	6 10.7%	5 8.9%	3.04
5	A well-written strategic plan that tells how best to respond to environmental changes can play a key role in the development of the state's education.	31 55.3%	20 35.7%	3 5.4%	2 3.6%	3.43
6	The education strategic plan contains education purpose, vision and ideals, long-standing goals and the operational plans	12 21.4%	27 48.2%	14 25.0%	3 5.4%	2.86
7	Strategic planners mobilize and involve all other stakeholders outside the education sector in arriving at the desired activities to be implemented in the next three to five years.	25 44.6%	29 51.8%	1 1.8%	1 1.8%	3.39
8	Educational planners are strategic planners	27 48.2%	26 46.4%	3 5.4%	0 0.0%	3.43
Average Mean Response		3.20				

Notes: (a) SA = Strongly Agree (4), A = Agree (3), D =Disagree (2), SD = Strongly Disagree (1), \bar{X} = Mean. (b) Figures inside parentheses are weights assigned to each response

Table 1 showed that 96.4% of the respondents agreed that strategic planning is different from traditional planning while 2.8% disagreed (Mean=3.52). Again, entire sampled respondents (100.0%) agreed that strategic planning is result-oriented rather than being resource-oriented (Mean=3.64). Also, 30.4% of the respondents believe that Strategic planning involves establishing a direction by assessing both where education is, now, and where it is going to be in the next five to ten years while 69.6% disagreed (Mean=2.29). Moreover, 80.4% of the respondents agreed that strategic planning involves the technocrats, other public servants who are not technocrats and politicians in the education sector, while 19.6% disagreed (Mean=3.04). Furthermore, 91.0% of the respondents agreed that a well-written strategic plan that tells how best to respond to changes enhances the State's education development, while 9.0% disagreed



(Mean=3.43). Moreover, 69.6% of the respondents agreed that an education strategic plan contains education mission, vision, ideals, goals, and plans of action while 96.4% of the respondents agreed that strategic planners in their States mobilize and involve all others stakeholders outside the education sector in arriving at the desired activities to be implemented. Generally, it could be deduced that majority of the respondents were highly aware in South West Nigeria (mean = 3.20 > 2.50). Strategic planning awareness is used to capture the level of strategic learning embodied in ministry officials following the introduction of the education sector strategic planning process in South West Nigeria. This study found that the level of strategic planning awareness (learning) was moderately high (or medium) in South West Nigeria. Siren & Kohtamaki (2016) analysed the potential performance benefits of the interface between strategic planning and strategic learning and found that strategic learning positively moderates the relationship between strategic planning and performance. Moreover, the study revealed that the moderating effect of strategic learning is an inverted U-shape indicating that low to medium levels of learning enhances performance benefits; while, higher levels of learning diminishes performance benefits, suggesting possible negative effect of knowledge overload. Thus, given the medium level of knowledge reported in this study, it is expected that benefits of strategic planning would be high in South West Nigeria. This study further found a striking similarity in the level of strategic awareness displayed across the five States involved in the study. As earlier said, the level of strategic planning awareness varied from 3.10 to 3.35 across the five States involved in the study.

2. How acceptable is the strategic planning model among the ministry of education officials?

Table 2: Strategic planning acceptance among the ministry of education officials

S/N	Acceptance	SA	A	D	SD	\bar{X}
9	The education planners believe in introducing flexibility into educational plans to absorb future eventuality	17 30.4%	31 55.3%	8 14.3%	0 0.0%	3.16
10	The education planners are interested in being flexible in the process of plan implementation.	12 21.4%	30 53.6%	12 21.4%	2 3.6%	2.93
11	The education planners are unfavorable to the use of compliance monitoring in the education sector	9 16.1%	32 57.1%	12 21.4%	3 5.4%	2.84
12	The education planners are in favor of performance monitoring of planned activities	25 44.6%	27 48.2%	0 0.0%	4 7.2%	3.30
13	The education planners encourage team efforts among the DPRS staff, teachers, students, publishers, and the entire public during the state education plan formulation.	13 23.2%	20 35.7%	20 35.7%	3 5.4%	2.77
14	The education planners believe the more we engage implementers who are not skillful in planning in the education planning process, the better they will understand the strategy for education	20 35.7%	31 55.4%	5 8.9%	0 0.0%	3.27
15	The education planners believe flexibility may	8	14	27	7	2.41



	lengthen the time to achieve a goal, yet a flexible plan puts the sector in a better position to succeed in this rapidly changing world.	14.3%	25.0%	48.2%	12.5%	
16	The education planners in this state believe more in result-oriented educational planning than resource-oriented planning since more resources might not translate to more results while more activities might not translate to more achievements.	30 53.5%	23 41.1%	2 3.6%	1 1.8%	3.46
Average Mean response		3.02				

Notes: (a) SA = Strongly Agree (4), A = Agree (3), D =Disagree (2), SD = Strongly Disagree (1), \bar{X} = Mean. (b) Figures inside parentheses are weights assigned to each response

Table 2 revealed that 85.7% agreed that the education planners believe in introducing flexibility into educational plans to absorb future eventuality while 14.3% disagreed (Mean=3.16). Also, 75.0% of the respondents agreed that the education planners are interested in being flexible in the process of plan implementation, while 25.0% disagreed (Mean=2.93). Again, 73.2% of the respondents agreed that the education planners are unfavorable to the use of compliance monitoring while 25.8% disagreed (Mean=2.84). On the other hand, 92.8% of the respondents believe that education planners are in favor of performance monitoring, while 7.2% disagreed (Mean=3.30). It could also be observed that the education planners encourage team efforts among the DPRS staff, teachers, students, publishers, and the entire public during the formulation of the State education plan (Mean=2.77); believe the more we engage implementers who are not skillful in planning in the education planning process, the better they will understand the strategy for education (Mean=3.27), believe a flexible plan puts the sector in a better position to succeed in this rapidly changing world (Mean=2.41), believe more in result-oriented educational planning than resource-oriented planning since more resources might not translate to more results while more activities might not translate to more achievements. (Mean=3.46). From the result, it is observed that strategic planning is generally accepted in the Southwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria (Mean =3.02 > 2.50).

Strategic planning acceptance has been used in this study as synonymous with strategic planning attitude. Baloglu, Karadag and Karaman (2008), confirmed resistance to strategic planning (as opposed to strategic planning acceptance) as one of five valid and reliable measures of strategic planning attitude. This study found that the level of strategic planning acceptance was high in the South West Nigeria. This implies a high positive attitude to strategic planning process and techniques by the officials. Kalkan and Buzkurt (2013) similarly found a positive attitude towards strategic planning by managers of Turkish SMEs. They also reported other research reports that established similar positive attitudes to (or acceptance of) strategic planning by the managers of United Kingdom and New Zealand. Ali, Crump and Sudin (2014) compared Malaysia and New Zealand and discovered that respondents from both countries agreed that top management commitment to or acceptance of strategic planning at their organizations was equally high. Thompson (2017) examined the strategic planning attitudes measured by level of strategic planning



meaningfulness to members of faculty and similarly found that 66% of members perceived strategic planning process either as very highly or highly meaningful or acceptable.

3. How applicable is strategic planning among the ministry of education DPRS officials?

Table 3: Strategic planning application among DPRS officials

S/N	Application	SA	A	D	SD	\bar{X}
17	The DPRS engages technical planners, researchers, statisticians, and other members of staff in the Ministry of Education in planning education	16 28.5%	37 66.1%	2 3.6%	1 1.8%	3.52
18	The DPRS engages other stakeholders in education	31 55.3%	21 37.5%	3 5.4%	1 1.8%	3.64
19	The DPRS staff have easy access to the State Education Strategic Plan document (SESP for 2011 - 2020).	12 21.4%	29 51.8%	12 21.4%	3 5.4%	2.29
20	The DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic Operational Plan (SESOP for 1 to 3 years).	28 49.9%	23 41.1%	2 3.6%	3 5.4%	3.04
21	The DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic and Operation Plan (SESP-SESOP)	15 26.8%	26 46.4%	13 23.2%	2 3.6%	3.43
22	The DPRS uses the performance monitoring plan (PMP) to assess the continuous progress towards achieving the state strategic education objectives of SESP-SESOP	24 42.9%	31 55.4%	1 1.8%	0 0.0%	2.86
23	The DPRS periodically holds review meetings to appraise the progress made in education over time (between 2011 and 2020), and if need be, review education strategies.	10 17.9%	31 55.4%	10 17.9%	5 8.9%	3.39
Average Mean Response						3.17

Notes: (a) SA = Strongly Agree (4), A = Agree (3), D =Disagree (2), SD = Strongly Disagree (1), \bar{X} = Mean. (b) Figures inside parentheses are weights assigned to each response

Table 3 showed that 94.6% of the respondents agreed that the DPRS engages technical planners, researchers, statisticians, and other members of staff in the Ministry of Education in planning education while 5.4% disagreed (Mean= 3.52). More so, 92.8% of the respondents agreed that the DPRS engages other stakeholders outside the Ministry of Education in planning education while 7.2% disagreed (Mean=3.64).



Furthermore, 73.2% of DPRS staff have the State Education Strategic Plan document (Mean=2.29). Moreover, 91.0% also agreed that The DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic Operational (Action) Plan (SESOP for 1 to 3 years), while 9.0% disagreed (Mean=3.04). DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic Operational (Action) Plan (Mean=3.43), uses the performance monitoring plan (PMP) to assess the continuous progress towards achieving the state strategic education objectives (Mean=2.86) and also periodically holds review meetings to appraise the progress made in education over time, and if need be, review education strategies. (Mean=3.39).

It is generally documented that the application of strategic planning tools is critical in private and public organizations to enhance corporate performance by providing a sense of direction, guiding day-to-day decisions, evaluating progress and changing lines of attack when it becomes necessary (Aldehayyat & Anchor, 2008). Yet, research has established that only few organizations use strategic planning methods in practice due to different reasons (Lisinski. & Saruckij, 2010). To this end, George (2016) used theories of contingency and new institutional management to unravel determinants of strategic planning adoption and application. These include external and internal determinants such as unforeseen events, uncertainties or volatilities. They also include institutional pressures such as coercive, mimetic and normative forces in favour of strategic planning adoption and application. Robertson (2011) drew inspiration from contingency theory, new institutional theory and resource theory to identify resource limitation, uncertainty, lack of general communication, lack of morale or confidence as barriers to strategic planning adoption and application.

4. What are the interstate variations in strategic planning awareness, acceptance and application among the sampled states?

Tables 4-6 provide answers to question 4:

Table 4: Interstate variation in strategic planning awareness among officials

S/N	Awareness	State				
		Ekiti	Ogun	Ondo	Osun	Oyo
1	Strategic planning is different from traditional planning	3.50	3.56	3.50	3.46	3.60
2	Strategic planning is result-oriented rather than being resource-oriented	3.70	3.50	3.67	3.77	3.60
3	Strategic planning involves establishing a direction by assessing both where education is now and where it is going to be in the next five to ten years.	1.90	2.25	2.08	2.54	3.00
4	Strategic planning involves the technocrats, other public servants who are not technocrats and politicians in the education sector	3.70	2.88	2.75	2.92	3.20
5	A well-written strategic plan that tells how best to respond to environmental changes can play a key role in the development of the state's education.	3.60	3.00	3.75	3.46	3.60



6	The education strategic plan contains education purpose, vision and ideals, long-standing goals and the operational plans	3.00	2.81	2.75	2.77	3.20
7	Strategic planners mobilize and involve all other stakeholders outside the education sector in arriving at the desired activities to be implemented in the next three to five years.	3.70	3.38	3.42	3.15	3.40
8	Educational planners in our state are strategic planners	3.30	3.44	3.50	3.54	3.20
Average Mean Response		3.30	3.10	3.18	3.20	3.35

Table 4 revealed a slight interstate variation in strategic planning awareness across South West Nigeria. The level of strategic planning awareness varied from 3.35 in Oyo state to 3.30 in Ekiti state, 3.20 in Osun state, 3.18 in Ondo state and 3.10 in Ogun State. Evidence from Turkey and United Kingdom indicates that significant difference between the strategic planning practices in the two countries emanates from the interaction between strategic knowledge and strategic attitude. Glaister, Dincer, Tatoglu & Demirbag (2009) found that Turkish firms rather than UK firms were more favourably disposed to strategic planning (it appears that Turkey was higher than UK in strategic acceptance) despite the adoption and use of a range of methods by UK firms than by Turkish firms (UK was probably higher in strategic awareness than Turkey).

Table 5: Interstate variation in strategic planning acceptance among officials

S/N	Acceptance	State				
		Ekiti	Ogun	Ondo	Osun	Oyo
9	The education planners in my state believe in introducing flexibility into educational plans to absorb future eventuality	3.20	3.56	3.17	3.23	3.00
10	The education planners in my state are interested in being flexible in the process of plan implementation.	2.20	3.50	2.75	3.38	3.40
11	The education planners are unfavorable to the use of compliance monitoring in the education sector	3.30	2.25	2.58	2.69	3.40
12	The education planners are in favor of performance monitoring of planned activities	3.60	2.88	3.25	3.69	3.20
13	The education planners encourage team efforts among the DPRS staff, teachers, students, publishers, and the entire public during the state education plan formulation.	3.20	3.00	2.50	2.77	3.20
14	The education planners believe the more we engage implementers who are not skillful in planning in the education planning process, the better they will	3.60	2.81	3.25	3.38	3.60



	understand the strategy for education					
15	The education planners believe flexibility may lengthen the time to achieve a goal, yet a flexible plan puts the sector in a better position to succeed in this rapidly changing world.	2.30	3.38	1.83	2.38	3.00
16	The education planners in this state believe more in result-oriented educational planning than resource-oriented planning since more resources might not translate to more results while more activities might not translate to more achievements.	3.70	3.44	3.58	3.38	3.20
Average Mean response		3.14	3.10	2.86	3.11	3.25

Table 5 shows a slight interstate variation in strategic planning acceptance (or positive attitude) by ministry of education officials in South West Nigeria in spite of the general moderately high acceptance of strategic planning across the five States. The acceptance level varied from 3.25 in Oyo State to 3.14 in Ekiti State, 3.11 in Osun State, 3.10 in Osun State and 2.86 in Ondo State. This study found a close interstate variation of between 2.86 and 3.25 in strategic planning acceptance in South West Nigeria. This validates Ali, Crump and Sudin (2014) who found close international variation of between 3.4 and 3.9 in top management commitment to (or acceptance of) strategic planning practices in Malaysia and New Zealand despite their diverse cultural backgrounds.

Table 6: Interstate differences in strategic planning application among officials

S/N	Application	State				
		Ekiti	Ogun	Ondo	Osun	Oyo
17	The DPRS engages technical planners, researchers, statisticians, and other members of staff in the Ministry of Education in planning education	3.00	3.50	3.17	3.15	3.00
18	The DPRS engages other stakeholders in education	3.40	3.50	3.58	3.54	3.20
19	The DPRS staff have easy access to the State Education Strategic Plan document (SESP for 2011 - 2020).	3.20	3.13	2.58	2.62	3.20
20	The DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic Operational Plan (SESOP for 1 to 3 years).	3.60	2.88	3.50	3.54	3.60
21	The DPRS regularly monitors the compliance with performance indicators or targets as in the State Education Strategic and Operation Plan (SESP-SESOP)	3.30	2.69	3.33	2.54	3.40



22	The DPRS uses the performance monitoring plan (PMP) to assess the continuous progress towards achieving the state strategic education objectives of SESP-SESOP	3.70	3.19	3.50	3.46	3.20
23	The DPRS periodically holds review meetings to appraise the progress made in education over time (between 2011 and 2020), and if need be, review education strategies.	3.20	2.81	2.42	2.77	3.20
Average Mean Response		3.34	3.10	3.15	3.09	3.26

Table 6 revealed a striking similarity in the level of strategic planning application in the South West Nigeria. The level of strategic planning application, that was generally moderately high, varied from 3.34 in Ekiti through 3.60 in Oyo State, 3.10 in Ogun State, 3.15 in Ondo State, and 3.09 in Osun State.

Multiple regression analysis

H₀1: There is no significant influence of strategic planning awareness and acceptance on its application

Table 7: Influence of strategic planning awareness and acceptance on its application

Dependent	Predictors	B	T	P	R	R ²	F	P
Application	Awareness	0.059	0.485	>.05				
	Acceptance	0.556	4.598	<.05	0.581	0.338	13.527	0.00

Table 7 shows the relative and joint influence of awareness and acceptance of strategic planning on its application in the Ministry of Education. The result revealed that joint contribution of awareness and acceptance of strategic planning to the application is significant ($F=13.527$, $p=0.00$) which is an indication that awareness and acceptance of strategic planning among education planners are germane to its application. The result further revealed an insignificant independent contribution of strategic planning awareness ($\beta=0.059$, $p>0.05$), whereas strategic planning acceptance made a significant contribution to its application ($\beta=0.556$, $p<0.05$). From the result, it could be deduced that it is only acceptance of strategic planning that made a significant contribution to its application in the sample states.

It is striking that the level of strategic planning acceptance is lower than that of strategic planning awareness, despite the significant contribution of awareness to strategic planning application. Nevertheless, studies such as Davis (2019) have explained that low level of acceptance is sometimes associated with change from a transactional method of planning to a transformational model. Transactional planning also known as traditional long-range planning adopts a defensive strategy in which the planner focuses on better use of

resources to achieve organization's objectives without any fundamental changes in the organization. By being cautious to preserve longstanding practices, officials believe they would avert avoidable risks. Nevertheless, by doing so, the organization is likely to become irrelevant over time. Invariably, senior managers and top policymakers usually find transactional planning easily acceptable and applicable. Transformational approach or strategic planning, on the other hand, is an offensive strategy that has known and unknown implications on organizational structure, staff, systems and leadership style (Babalola, Nsibande & Babalola 2019). This is because it is often associated with drastic transformation resulting in moving an organization in a new and unfamiliar direction. Consequently, many senior officials find a strategic planning approach somehow unacceptable and difficult to apply. It is therefore, expected that, since strategic planning was at its infancy in South West Nigeria, high strategic planning awareness might not translate to complementary high strategic planning acceptance. It was with this understanding that SESP-SESOP II adopted the transformational approach to empower the State officials through consultants who would work closely with them to boost culture of change and thereby raise their strategic planning awareness, acceptance and application (Obanya, 2011; UNESCO, 2015).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and the discussion, the levels of strategic awareness and application are higher than that of strategic planning acceptance; yet, only strategic planning acceptance significantly contribute to the application of strategic planning in sample States. For instance, someone can have strategic planning awareness but fails to accept (thus resist) its application for a reason(s) well known to them. Although both strategic planning awareness and strategic planning acceptance are important in enhancing strategic planning application, if the State education strategic planning application is to be improved in the sampled States, measures to enhance the level of strategic planning acceptance among the ministry of education officials should be prioritized. There is a need for a deliberate cultural shift to nurturing values of creativity and change to make senior civil servants to whole-heartedly accept and apply strategic planning without reverting to their traditional long-term planning practices. There is need to engage in continuous professional development on strategic planning methods within the ministry coupled with institutional pressures to sustain the strategic process.

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RELIGION AND NATIONAL VALUES: REFLECTIONS ON SOME ASPECTS OF BASIC EDUCATION CURRICULUM IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This paper attempted a critical reflection on the new national curriculum for basic education in Nigeria. It examined the status of religion in the previous curriculum vis-a-vis the new curriculum which merges two dominant religious studies with civic education, social studies, and security education into one subject labelled – Religion and National Values (RNV). The writers discovered, among other things, that religion has become a mix bag of blessings and curses in Nigerian society. It was also discovered that the old curriculum reflected much of indoctrinations, breeding religious ignorance and intolerance. The new curriculum, on the other hand, is found to be inclusive and embracing, and takes into cognizance the pluralistic nature of Nigeria. This paper concluded that the new curriculum is capable of helping Nigeria to achieve the desired goal of harmonious and peaceful co-existence, given some little modifications. The paper thus recommended that Nigeria's educational planners should set up a monitoring team to enlighten the populace and dispel the so-much propaganda against the innovation; and to oversee its implementation in every school (public and private). It also suggested that religious educators should shift from using the approach of 'learning religion' to 'learning from religion' approach, which could eschew religious ignorance and intolerance from the mindset of the present and oncoming generations.

KEY WORDS: Religion, values, old curriculum, new curriculum, basic education.

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INTRODUCTION

Right from the dawn of humanity, religion has been a vital and the most pervasive phenomenon of human life. Adogbo (2000) was not exaggerating when he asserted that to understand human history and human life, it is necessary to understand religion. This means that religion has primordial value in human life. This is why humans have been essentially labelled as *homo-religio* (religious beings). The influence religion exerts on human beings could be both positive and negative in the society, especially in Nigeria where there seems to be many religious fanatics and fundamentalists. Mbiti (1989) had pointed out that Africans are notoriously religious; each people has its own cherished religious system with a set of beliefs and practices. Religion permeates all the departments of life so well that it is not easy or even possible to isolate it from people's ordinary life. Mbiti's assertion suggests that the African is so religiously inclined, that religiosity could be seen in everything he/she does. Studies in comparative education show that religion is one of the major determinants of nations' education systems. This is why the policy-document on education in Nigeria made provisions for religion in the school system (Oroka, 1990). It is a vital factor considered in curriculum planning and development of education policy because it is a phenomenon that regulates every aspect of human life.

In spite of the vital role of religion in the school and the society, unfortunately, it has been used to instigate bloodshed and intolerance in Nigeria. History records how religious wars were fought between Christians and Muslims in the Middle Ages which took the lives of many. For instance, in Christians' attempt to wrest Jerusalem, the centre of Christianity, from Muslim adherents, holy wars were declared in the form of Crusades. Christianity had settled in the Middle Ages and integrated the whole of Europe, and Islam the whole of Arabia. The Muslims in the bid to spread Islam waged religious wars and seized Jerusalem from the Christians. Between 970 and 1040 AD, forty-eight famine years were recorded and from 1085 to 1095 AD, conditions worsened. Misery and unrest prevailed widely. This made Pope Urban II in 1095 to declare a crusade which was in its general conception a rescue operation of the holy places from Muslims' hands. He summoned all Christians to participate in the rescue operation with a promise of plenary indulgence to all participants. On the whole, about six crusades were organized and lasted from 1096 to 1292, a period of two centuries (Ubrurhe, 2000). It was a blood moment of power tussle. In Nigeria, religion has led to the creation of dichotomies, which normally erupt from religious ignorance and intolerance among adherents of religious groups. Ubrurhe (2000) reported cases of religious intolerance reaching their apogee in 1986 when Babangida registered Nigeria as a member country of the Organization of Islamic Conference. This singular action of Babangida divided the Nigerian citizenry into two major religious camps. The Babangida's malady is on its large scale even in the present administration. Religion has, indeed, been perverted in the Nigerian society to portray both a blessing and a curse. But much of these maladies are precipitated by sheer ignorance and inability to understand and tolerate one another.

Religious problem in Nigeria

It is a common knowledge that religion is a strong element which arguably exerts the greatest influence on the thinking and lives of a people. In Nigerian society, religion has played a vital role in inculcation of values both in the education system and the larger society. But in spite of its vital role, religion has been malignantly used to fuel bloodshed, ignorance, sharp divisions and intolerance among adherents. The Nigerian child appears to be regularly indoctrinated in one particular religious belief and sometimes programmed to develop hatred for other religious belief system. The resultant effect of this situation is religious ignorance and intolerance. Religion which is supposed to foster peace, tranquility and harmony has become the main cause of conflict and crisis in Nigeria. The foregoing explains the brouhaha which greeted the recent launch and implementation of new nine-year-basic-education curriculum which merged religious studies with three other subjects. The merge was necessitated by the desire of the federal government to conform to the latest educational practice all over the world, which reduces the heavy loads of subjects on the child and offers him/her the opportunity to concentrate on fewer subjects with some mastery. This merge resulted in some unrest, propaganda, agitations and vilifications from Christian and Muslim bodies, and some stakeholders in education. This study was thus a critical reflection on the old curriculum vis-à-vis the new curriculum, with the view to adumbrating the viable and better choice for the system of basic education in Nigeria.

Religion, God-consciousness, value-inculcation and school curriculum

The capacity of religion in the school system to direct the attention of the child to his/her creator and enforce moral values on the consciousness of the child has been debated over time. The diversities in religion with consequential diversities in the understanding of God, and the values to be inculcated on the child, have made some scholars over time to call for a postponement of religious education to later time in the life of the child, or an outright expunge of religious education from the curriculum. To quench such agitations, Grimmitt in Hull (2002) made an exposé on three major approaches applicable to religious education in the school system. These approaches are of great benefits to the foregoing discussion. The scholar, in his observation, noted that there are three major approaches that could be adopted in the teaching of religion - they are:

- learning religion
- learning about religion, and
- learning from religion

Learning religion is a situation where a single religious tradition is taught as the religious education curriculum and it is taught from the inside, so to speak. The teachers are expected to be believers in the religion themselves and the object of the instruction is to enable students to come to believe in the religious sect or to strengthen their commitment to it. This type of religious education may be described as proceeding from faith to faith. Typically, a specific religious sect controls the curriculum and the methods of teaching rather than these being controlled by the education system itself. This type of religious education is challenged, however, whenever and wherever there is religious pluralism. This is due to the fact that this particular



approach to religious education encourages indoctrination and also does not accord the child freedom to determine the kind of religion he or she may want to accept and practice. This was the approach adopted by the early Christian missionaries who introduced formal education to Nigeria (Fafunwa, 1974). This approach was also what was adopted in the Qur'anic Schools in the Northern Nigeria beginning from the fifteenth century. It is basically the approach adopted in the old curriculum, wherein, CRS is expectedly taught by a practicing Christian, and IRS is equally taught by a practicing Muslim. This practice has been the bane of religious tolerance with consequential conflicts in Nigeria.

In the second approach, instead of religion being taught from the inside, religion is taught, as it were, from the outside. There are courses in some American high schools, for example, on the Bible as literature. The essential point is that the Bible is not handled as a religious/sacred book of a certain community of faith, but as a literature, that is, from a different, non-religious perspective. Sometimes this kind of religious education may be called 'education in comparative religion' and may be based on some anthropology. Sometimes, indeed, the subject is called 'religious studies,' and often it follows one or more of the various disciplines evolved by the study of religion such as the history of religions or the phenomenology of religions, or the ethnography of religions. This approach may be called 'learning about religion' because of its descriptive and historical approach. It tends to appear as a reaction against the first approach (the mono-religious 'learning religion'), and is often motivated by the desire to create a purely educational form of religious education, one which will not be open to the charge of indoctrinating or giving an unfair advantage to any particular religion. This approach does not create sentiments in mind of the learner, for the learner is not compelled to adopt any particular religious belief system.

However, the second approach presents certain limitations, according to Hull, which finally gave rise to a third kind of religious education. This is 'learning from religion.' The difference between 'learning from religion' and the first option of 'learning religion' is that in the latter case, pupils are expected to participate in the beliefs and practices of the religion being taught. Conversely, in the 'learning from religion' approach, the distance between the students and the religious content, which is typical of 'learning about religion,' is strictly maintained. Yet, at the same time, the life-world of the student, rather than the internal structure of the religion, and the second kind (learning about religion) is controlled by the scientific study of religion. The third kind of religious education (learning from religion) becomes a discipline within educational studies. It is for this reason that 'learning from religion' is receiving increasing attention and support from professional religious educators. This kind of religious education has as its principal objective, the humanization of the students, that is, making a contribution to the students' moral and spiritual development (The process for achieving or implementing this form of education, derived from Grimmitt's innovation, shall be discussed later in this paper, under recommendations, on page nine, to avoid tautologies). The sole purpose of this approach is to illuminate the mind of the child in moral consciousness and spiritual development and not to compel the child to adopt a particular type of religious system.

It is obvious from above, that religion has been taught in Nigerian school system over the years with the adoption of the first approach. This has instigated some scholars to raise questions on the inclusion of such studies in the school system, majorly due to the varieties of religious perspectives. Such disputes have prompted various scholars like J. Rousseau and F. Froebel to assert different opinions regarding the place of religion in the curriculum. Rousseau in Sutherland (1988) had posited that child is not capable of understanding religious teaching and therefore such teaching should be postponed to adolescence when the individual's mind has matured sufficiently to be able to cope with these concepts. Sutherland, Rousseau did not take into cognizance that religion is part of the socialization process of the child, that is, the same way the child learns how to smile when impressed and angry when offended, is the same way the child internalizes religious values. Rousseau did not also take into consideration the place of religion in maintaining social equilibrium in the society. For Rousseau to suggest that religion should be postponed to adolescence is to alienate the divine nature from human beings and undermine the importance of religion in the human life.

On the other hand, Sutherland (1988) lends credence to Froebel who had asserted that from an early age, a child is aware of the Divine and can respond to teachings about the Divine creation. Kibor (2004) quoted Froebel to have said,

All existence originates with, and is united in God, the divine and universal presence. All beings comprise an external natural dimension and an internal spiritual dimension and are sustained by the divine energy ... that is their essence. Since the purpose of existence is to reveal God, it is the person's destiny to become conscious of his/her divine interior essence and to reveal this dynamic inner force through its externalization (Kibor, 2004)

Upon this premise, Froebel's goal of education is stated in terms of a relationship with God. Education consists of leading a child as a thinking, intelligent being, growing into self-consciousness, to a pure and unsullied, conscious and free representation of the inner law of divine unity, and in teaching him/her ways and means thereto. For Froebel, natural phenomena make concrete what is in the mind of God. All existence including human nature is subject to the universal law of development that manifests itself in divine essence. Development occurs when this unfolds according to a prescribed, patterned sequence. Education is the exposure of the divine presence in the universe to the child, and this is to begin in childhood (Akinsanya, 2015). An early education is important because children by nature are good. Many educators and philosophers have argued either in support of Rousseau or Froebel. The present researchers however contend that religion should remain in the school curriculum, and be taught *via* the third approach discussed

above. Introducing religion from the onset in the child's life enables the child to develop sound morality, but teaching religious beliefs in an attempt to indoctrinate the child, if need be, should be left for the homes or religious organizations, and not the classroom.

Some inadequacies in the old curriculum

A critical look at the old curriculum reveals that it has its root in the Christian missionary and Islamic Qur'anic school curricula. These curricula later formed the basis by which the policy makers formulated the policy on religious education in 1977, and its various revisions. This submission finds support from Ihedinma (2004) who had stated that although the policy on education was not explicit on the participation of religious organizations in its curriculum planning and implementation, the Catholic religious education curriculum contributed significantly to various governments' educational provision. In developing a religious knowledge curriculum for Christians and Muslims only, the curriculum planners appeared to have taken for granted the diverse religious cultures in Nigerian society. Accordingly, he asserted that the old religious knowledge curriculum lends to a mono-faith confessional approach to the study of Christianity and Islam. The implication of this approach in a national curriculum design is the tendency for the State to be involved in nurturing pupils into a particular religious faith; a duty that belongs to faith groups and individual homes. This approach does not adequately equip pupils to live and respect other faith traditions in their multi-faith society. In the strength of the position of Ihedinma (2004), it becomes clear that the old curriculum on religious education was associated with some inadequacies which have significantly contributed to religious intolerance in Nigeria.

Njoku and Njoku (2015) noted that the major aim of including CRS in the education curriculum was to raise generation of people who could think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others, appreciate dignity of labour and those moral values specified in the broad national aims as good citizens. CRS is designed to achieve many goals in the lives of the pupils ranging from teaching the pupils about God to the teaching of moral values which is geared towards shaping human behaviour. These values are embedded in the stories and events recorded in the bible (drawn from the life of Christian and other mystical beings). Notwithstanding the lofty aims of CRS, studies showed that learners' moral attitude have not improved greatly especially at this era (Cookey in Akinkugbe, 1994; Akinsanya, 2012). Meanwhile, an appraisal of CRS curriculum contents revealed that the subject has the potentials required to build one's moral character. This shows that because of the narrow mindedness of those who are implementing the curriculum, it has failed to fulfill its purpose. The purpose of including religion in the curriculum has been abused because the attention is shifted from national aim to parochial/sectional aim; instead of religion producing the ideal individual with the spirit of patriotism and tolerance, religion now produced individuals with religious sentiments who may not even like to work in the same place with others having different religious belief. There is thus a need to have a more inclusive religious curriculum which would allow the child to have a grip of some other religious tenets in the Nigerian society so as to understand and tolerate one another.

RELIGION AND THE NEW CURRICULUM

The specific role of religion in the school system is to equip the individual with moral values and bring them close to their creator. It was the understanding of the vital place of religion in the school system and the society that made the developers of the new curriculum to consider it necessary to have an inclusive curriculum on religion which could foster unity and tolerance. The rationale behind the bold step was to raise a generation that would be able to live above religious ignorance and sentiments, and cooperate with one another for peaceful co-existence. Igbokwe (2015) had argued that the school curriculum is a dynamic and open document that is constantly changing with the needs, challenges and aspirations of the society. This means that the curriculum in the first instance is not a static document; it undergoes changes with the needs and aspirations of the concerned society. Hence, Igbokwe (2015) submits that the federal government revised basic education curriculum in 2012 in line with global best practices, which has made Kenya to reduce her subjects at the basic education level to seven; Tanzania to eight subjects; USA to six subjects; Malaysia and Indonesia to nine subjects, among others.

The curriculum revision process involved identification and grouping of related disciplines such as Christian Religious Studies/ Islamic Studies, Social Studies, Civic Education, and Security Education to create a new composite labelled *Religion and National Values*. Key concepts in the former curricula now form integrating threads for organizing the contents of the new subject into a coherent whole. The reason behind this merge is that the subjects are related and they handle the same domains – moral/ethical values and basic understanding of God and the universe. It should be noted that this merge was done for other related subjects, such as *Basic Science and Technology*, which is a merge of hitherto Basic Science, Basic Technology, Physical & Health Education and Information Technology. The new curriculum thus affords Nigeria the opportunity to conform to the latest educational practice all over the world. A child brought up under this curriculum would focus on few subjects and have mastery knowledge of those subjects. He will also become tolerant of other people's religious belief systems and would be more willing to cooperate in working with people of different religious belief.

Wambui and Amukowa (2013) have similarly argued that the new curriculum is an integrated approach which is the fusion of some related subjects that had been taught separately; it is an infusion through merging of different themes, topics or areas of learning that were hitherto considered separate subjects and examined by separate studies in the old system. The new curriculum lays emphasis on what is technically called - life approach experiential strategy of learning and teaching, in which the experiences of the learner forms the basis for introducing new concepts and makes the learner the starting point. One is, however, not oblivious of the fact that any new curriculum presents new challenges to the teachers, for it requires new knowledge and skills, and methodology to effectively implement it. It also requires the in-servicing of teachers to keep abreast of the new changes in teaching-learning strategies. At the school level, implementation of these changes is considered central to the teacher's role, and the importance of implementation cannot be overemphasized and so is teacher participation in the implementation process of the curriculum in their schools. Ihedinma (2004) in his doctoral thesis proposed a way out for religious education in Nigeria. His

proposal marks the attainment of a full integration of the individual child into a harmonious and tolerant society which is made possible through a well-coordinated school curriculum.

Some criticisms against the new curriculum

A major source of worry concerning the new curriculum is the problem of portraying the persons, significance and teachings of Jesus Christ (the founder of the Christian faith) and Prophet Mohammed (the Prophet of Islam) to our children in a way that might not cause religious upheavals in the country. This is because the two religions do not seem to have a unified viewpoint. The Bible and the Qur'an appear not to be on the same page on major issues about God and man. One of the most objectionable challenges to Religion and National Values (RNV) is that it might force Christian children to memorize and recite the Qur'an, while Muslim children would be made to study Biblical texts. It may also encourage children to disobey their parents if they forbid them to follow Allah or Jesus Christ. Two prominent religious leaders, the Sultan of Sokoto, Alhaji Sa'ad Abubakar, and the Archbishop of the Catholic Archdiocese of Lagos, Most Rev. (Dr) Alfred Adewale Martins, have condemned this move, calling on the Federal Government to maintain the separate teachings of these faiths to avoid unnecessary confusion and conflicts. They reminded the Federal Government that Nigerians have inalienable right to religious freedom. Furthermore, the Child's Rights Act of 2003 preserves the right of the child not to be exposed to any religion contrary to that of his/her parents (or guardians as the case may be). They considered RNV as a vain and reckless attempt to "harmonize" Christianity and Islam, which is as impossible as mixing water with oil. They regarded it as unconstitutional, unpatriotic and unwarranted; they vehemently opposed and condemned it. They even labelled it as a surreptitious move to impose the preferred faith of some adherents on the rest.

A critical look at the above positions could tempt one to opine that the two religions purportedly have something to hide. If there is nothing fishy in the said religions; something the leaders are afraid of being exposed to the innocent child, why can't they allow a simple exposition of their faiths to adherents and non-adherents, for objective consideration? It could be noted also that the above critics have overlooked and perhaps undermined the ability of the child to think and conceptualize knowledge offered to him or her. The child is a thinking and discerning being capable of fathoming, creating and re-creating experiences presented with objectivity. The child should be offered variety of experience, leaving him/her with the decision on the most viable approach to the understanding of God and moral values.

CONCLUSION

From the forgoing, it could be concluded that the new curriculum on religion and national values has the capacity to undertake the sole responsibility of building in the child moral consciousness and recognition of the place of divinity. A critical look at the arguments against the new curriculum revealed that they are subjective and undermine the discerning abilities of the child. The ability of the child to think and conceptualize knowledge offered to him/her has also been undermined. The child is a thinking, feeling and acting being capable of creating his/her world and belief system when learning materials are presented objectively. The

new curriculum offers the child a golden opportunity to make comparisons and later choices as he/she matures. On the basis of the foregoing contention, the paper concludes that religion continues to be the regulating factor in every human society. Religion, despite its critics, will continue to exert the greatest influence on man because man is essentially *homo religio*. In the Nigerian society, religion would continue to be a determinant factor in every sector of her economy because African people are notoriously religious. The old curriculum was inadequate for a pluralistic society like Nigeria whose people seem to have strong inclinations for religion. The new curriculum on *Religion and National Values*, taught via the approach of learning from religion, appears to be the only hope for Nigeria to remove religious ignorance and intolerance from the mindset of the present and oncoming generation.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusion reached in this paper, the researchers wish to recommend that the Nigerian education system would be able to affect the nation positively, if the new curriculum on RNV, taught *via* Grimmitt's third approach to religious education, is put to practice. For the new curriculum to be well implemented, the minister of education in collaboration with educational planners should convey regular workshops and seminars at different levels, to give orientation to all religious educators and all education stakeholders on the need to put religious sentiments aside in the course of teaching the curriculum contents. Religious educators should be informed that the act of indoctrination of a particular religious belief is not the role of the teacher. That is, the State has no function to advocate for a particular faith in the school system. Different homes and religious bodies can conveniently indoctrinate their wards or adherents, but certainly indoctrination is not the business of the school. Government should make sure those who are trained, skilled and certified in religious education are the ones to teach the curriculum contents. Government should also make sure that every school (public and private) implements the curriculum. The school heads should monitor how the contents of the curriculum are being offered to children. This should be done with a keen interest in whether the teachers of the subject areas are using their influence to serve some personal interest.

Epilogue

The study sought to emphasize the peculiar role played by religious education in the curriculum. It was a defense of the new curriculum on religious education in basic education in Nigeria, with some little modifications. The study attempted to establish the fact that the old curriculum on religious education was inadequate; that it encouraged religious ignorance and intolerance which had generated many crises in Nigeria. This study therefore sought to raise advocacy for the acceptance of the new curriculum, with some modifications. It also advocated the exposure of the Nigerian child to diversities in the understanding of God through disparate religions. It is hoped that this paper would lay to rest some misunderstandings about the new curriculum for basic education, open-up better options to teaching religion in schools, and reengineer the capacity of religion to inculcate values on the consciousness of the Nigerian child.



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TEACHERS' REACTION TOWARDS SEXUAL HARASSMENT BY STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE MANZINI REGION

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate the reaction of teachers towards sexual harassment by students in high schools in the Manzini region. The objectives were to determine the attitude, reaction, and teachers' perceptions of why learners sexually harass them. The study applied a mixed method design which employed self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Random sampling technique, which involved a total of 80 teachers was used to select the sample. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS while qualitative data were analyzed using Framework Analysis. Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) were used to determine attitudes and perceptions while inferential statistics (T-test) was used to compare responses of male and female participants. Results show that most teachers do not take kindly to sexual advancements from learners. They dislike advances such as kissing, familiarity such as using sexy or pet names, inappropriate touching etc. In addition, male and female teachers react differently to sexual harassment by students. Female teachers report stress, depression including reaction through punishment such as beating, ignoring learners, developing a negative attitude towards them, etc. In contrast, some male teachers welcome sexual advancement from female students. Teachers contend that girls particularly do harass teachers to seek emotional and financial support. The study recommends that learners need to be made aware that sexual harassment is a crime regardless of whether it is committed by a minor to an adult.

KEYWORDS: Sexual harassment, sexual advances, abuse, exploitation.

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INTRODUCTION

According to Holland and Cortina (2016), sexual harassment is a ploy employed by the far right to suppress, estrange, or hurt folks that don't conform to Social Conservative Views on American Society and choose to measure their life as they see fit. Parker (2008) also states that sexual harassment includes death threats, intimidation, targeting those that don't conform to conservative views to unnecessary verbal abuse after they move out into the general public. Sexual harassment may be *verbal* (such as comments about a victim's body, spreading sexual rumours, sexual remarks or accusations, dirty jokes or stories); *physical* (such as gripping, rubbing, flashing or mooning, touching, pinching in a very sexual way, sexual assault); or *visual* (which includes publishing of nude pictures or sex-related items, indecent gestures/movements) (Fitzgerald & Cortina, 2018). Both males and females can be victims of sexual harassment. Offenders of sexual harassment within the school environment and or community are often fellow students, teachers, administrators, cleaners, athletes, coaches, and other personnel within the school. However, this study focuses on sexual harassment between teachers and students.

Sexual harassment may be mistakenly be used interchangeably with sex offense or abuse. On the contrary, sexual abuse is proscribed to unwelcome and undesirable physical acts of a sexual nature and is often well noticeable and punishable. Sexual harassment on the other hand could be a complex, fluid, matter which doesn't lend itself to specific legal definition (Powell & Henry, 2017). For many years, learners have been the ones reporting sexual harassment from teachers, mainly by male teachers. As a result, it is now common understanding in Eswatini that college educators and high school teachers sexually harass students. Buseh (2004) while studying the patterns of sexual behaviour among secondary school students in Eswatini, noted that a considerable proportions of young people were sexually experienced. The study also reported an unacceptable high level of sexual coercion, irrespective of age or gender. Similarly, Kanduzza, Mamba, Ndlangamandla, Vilakazi, and Zungu (2003) posit that even though most forms of sexual harassment on children occurs at home, 16.8% of the cases take place at school in Eswatini. This claim is substantiated by a number of cases of teachers fired by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare for sexual harassment and impregnating learners. The Times of Swaziland (Zwane, 2019) reported some shocking news of a teacher and wife that lured a female pupil into a threesome. Publication of such scandals in local newspapers is not uncommon. With the many cases of sexual harassment reported, we are going to substantiate sexual harassment at school.

Sexual harassment could be a significant issue for school kids at all educational levels. Students in elementary and secondary schools, vocational schools, apprenticeship programs, colleges and universities can be victims of sexual harassment (Smit & Plessis, 2011). Sexual harassment can be in the form of requests for sexual favours or unwelcome sexual behaviour or happens often enough to make the victim feel uncomfortable, scared or confused and that interferes with learners' schoolwork or their ability to participate in extracurricular activities or attend classes. Both males and females do suffer from sexual harassment on daily basis. There is, however, limited evidence on sexual harassment towards males and or teachers (Powell & Henry, 2017).



Problem statement

The existence of sexual harassment in Eswatini cannot be denied. However, what needs to be investigated further are the precise extent, effects, teacher's reactions, attitude and coping strategies that teachers use particularly in learning institutions when dealing and handling sexual harassment. Previous studies (Smit & Plessis, 2011; Powell & Henry, 2017; Parker, 2008) have mainly viewed sexual harassment in schools from the perspective of the students as victims of sexual harassment and have mainly been conducted in regular schools. Studies (Buseh, 2004; Akwei, 2017) report that students, as well, from both sexes, sexually harass teachers through sexy suggestive/revealing short clothes and utterances purported towards sex advancements. There is no known platform for reporting such nor do there exist a national or educational policy document declaring such as an offence. The perspective of teachers, therefore, as victims of sexual harassment in schools has largely been ignored.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore the reaction of teachers towards sexual harassment by students in high school in the Manzini region of Eswatini.

Objectives of the study

This study was guided by the following objectives which are:

1. To describe how teachers react towards sexual harassment from learners.
2. To determine the attitudes of teachers towards sexual advancement from learners.
3. To determine teachers' perceptions on the reasons why learners sexually harass their teachers.
4. To compare the extent, effect, reaction and attitudes of teachers according to gender

Research hypothesis

There is no real difference in the extent, effect, reaction and attitudes of male and female teachers.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Researches (Shane, 2009; Ford, 2020; Tochtermann & Barnes, 1998; Edwin, 2009) have shown that teachers are also victims of sexual harassment by students in the work place. These studies suggest that learners go to the extent of giving unwelcomed hugs to teachers, or even brush teachers' private parts (Shane, 2009). According to Shane (2009), teachers at some point of sexual harassment receive unwelcomed love notes from learners, inappropriate gifts which may include male or female underwear. In addition, Lipson (2001) elaborated that learners go to the extent of passing suggestive jokes in the presence of teachers as part of sexual advancement towards teachers. It can be noted that even though their findings do not have conclusive evidence that teachers can be victims of sexual harassment, their findings are an eye opener to the world and their countries as to what extent learners go to, when sexually harassing their teachers at school. In the kingdom of eSwatini, teachers tried to voice out their concerns about learners sexually harassing them. This was in a story headline which was published by the Times of eSwatini about Ngcoseni high school in the



Manzini region. The issue of teachers being sexually harassed by learners seems to have been there but has been overlooked over the years in the kingdom of eSwatini. Bush (2004) suggests that a traditional way commonly used by female students is showing their genitals to male teachers by sitting in front rows in class while having legs wide open. Another scenario reported by the Times of Eswatini notes that learners claimed that their teachers are sexy, thus distracting them from learning (Akwei, 2017). This suggests that the students are more likely to make sexual advancements to the teachers. In addition, a female homosexual student in the northern Hhohho region proposed love to her teacher who unfortunately acceded to the proposal (Dlamini, 2009).

Sexual harassment has adverse psychological and physical effects on the victim, irrespective of the victim being a teacher or student, male or female. Studies and reports (Edwin, 2009; Monks et al, 2009; Hand & Laura, 2000) have asserted that sexual harassment has negative impact on the victims. They highlight some of these effects that could affect the victims' psychological, health and academic life and professional life. Psychologically, a victim may lose self – esteem, be depressed, may fear for personal safety, have anger and hostility towards the perpetrators and may even contemplate suicide. In health, Ruto (2009) and Kamau, Amusa and Elijah (2014), reveal that violence and harassment can lead to damage of adolescent health and increased risk of HIV infections and other sexually transmitted diseases. There is, however, lack of literature on the effects of sexual harassment on teachers health-wise. Academically, sexual harassment will make learners and other victims in the school environment to avoid school (for example in the case of pregnancy or embarrassment or fear).

In addition, learners may be discouraged from participating in class and thus resulting to a drop in performance and other co-curriculum activities due to lowered dedication to academic pursuits (Kamau et al., 2014). The effects of sexual harassment go way beyond what the eye can see. This is to say the effects are physical, emotional and mentally disturbing on the victim. This therefore suggests that teachers may develop a negative attitude towards the learner that is sexually harassing them. As a result, the teacher will not view that learner in the same way as he or she would the other learners (Edwin, 2009). The teacher, however, does not suffer alone but other learners also get affected in that the teacher becomes distant or repulsive towards creating an inter relationship with the learners. As a result, learners will only know what is in the course outline as the teacher will only teach them about academics and not about life skills and guidance which others learner need especially the ones that are considered to be young for that class (Lipson, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a mixed method design yielding both quantitative and qualitative data. For quantitative data, a descriptive survey was used to determine effects and extent of sexual harassment of teachers by learners at high school level in regular secondary and high schools in the kingdom of Eswatini. Creswell and Chery (2016), defined survey research as a form of quantitative research in which an investigator identifies either the sample or the population, collects data through questionnaires or interviews and draws conclusions or makes inferences about the population. In addition, the survey facilitated collection of data from a large

population of respondents. The qualitative approach on the other hand supplemented data from quantitative data by providing an in-depth understanding and interpretation of sexual harassment towards teachers. The targeted population were teachers from secondary schools in the Manzini region of Eswatini. This region was selected because it is in the heart of Eswatini and it is composed of schools and teachers of varying characteristics. The researchers randomly selected eight schools (4 rural and 4 urban schools) for the survey. From each school, a sample of twenty (20) teachers were selected randomly thus making a total sample size of 80 ($n=80$). For the interviews, ten (10) teachers were purposively selected on the basis that they were victims and willing to participate.

Since this study utilized a mixed method approach, both qualitative and quantitative instruments were used. A survey questionnaire was developed from literature review to collect quantitative data. The questionnaire was composed of three sections. Section A contained questions on attitudes of teachers; Section B contained questions on the extent of sexual harassment and Section C measured teachers' demographic characteristics such as gender, teaching experience and age. Both Sections A and B used a six-point Likert scales which were established using the information obtained from literature. The six-point Likert scales helped in rating the teachers' level of agreement with the information in the questionnaire. Teachers were required to select the response that best suited their views in a six-point scale. The Likert scale used numerical values of 1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Slightly Disagree (SLD), 4=Slightly Agree (SLA), 5=Agree (A) and 6=Strongly Agree (SA). The six-point Likert scale ratings were then used to calculate means. Also, an interview guide was developed to generate qualitative data. Responses from the questionnaire were used to select the victims of sexual harassment and face-to-face interview was conducted. This allowed the study to have a clear feel and in-depth understanding of how teachers handled sexual harassment in schools.

The instruments' face, content and construct validity were achieved by consulting three experts and professionals in the faculty of Consumer Science in Luyengo campus. A pilot test was carried out to establish the reliability of the questionnaires with only 20 teachers from the Lubombo region. To calculate reliability coefficient, Cronbach Alpha was used. Transferability posed a great challenge in qualitative research, owing to the subjectivity from the researcher as the key instrument. The researcher therefore overcame this threat by providing a detailed research method, offering a rich description of the settings and context of the educators' interview. Since sexual harassment is a sensitive topic, a consent letter was given to the teachers ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, and also encouraged honest responses to very personal questions. The teacher's identification was only to be their gender and their age. No personal identification was required from them. To analyze the extent and the effect of sexual harassment by learners the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.4 was used to compute means, standard deviation and to make comparisons using T-test. The results were then tabulated for clearer presentation. For qualitative data from the interviews, a Framework analysis guided the familiarization, formulation of themes, mapping and interpretation of findings. Familiarization is the first stage of framework analysis after the compulsory transcription, yet it also involved transcription and reading of the data. Familiarization therefore was done for familiarizing oneself or other analyzers with the transcripts of the data from interviews. Although the transcription process is enough, Gale, Heath, Cameron, Rashid and Redwood (2013) maintain that becoming



familiar with the whole data from both audio-recordings and the transcribed texts is a fundamental stage in interpretation. Identifying a thematic framework occurred after familiarization where emerging themes in the data set were identified.

The transcripts were carefully read line by line, applying a label (code) that defined important themes in every passage. Thus, coding line-by-line made me aware of some data that may remain invisible because it is not clearly expressed, or does not match the rest. Codes representing related texts for semi-structured interviews were indexed first, and then corresponding emerging issues were presented in a matrix. Finally, creation of typologies, mapping, and associations within the data, thus providing explanations based on defined concepts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Teachers' reaction to sexual harassment

Teachers were asked to indicate their reaction towards sexual harassment. Table 1, generally indicates that teachers slightly agreed that they take action towards sexual harassment ($\bar{x}=0.46$). Specifically, the results show that teachers beat the learner for sexually harassing them ($\bar{x}=4.25$); that they shout at the learner for sexually harassing them or ($\bar{x}=4.24$); that they report the learner to the HoD about their actions towards the teacher ($\bar{x}=4.39$); that they punish the learner in any way for harassing them sexually ($\bar{x}=4.43$); that they report the child to the administration after sexually harassing them ($\bar{x}=3.86$); that they report to the parents or guardian that their child is sexually harassing them ($\bar{x}=3.70$).

Furthermore, results indicate that they report the case of sexual harassment by learners to the police ($\bar{x}=3.34$); and this sums up to say that teachers do not take it lightly being sexually harassed by learners. Results indicate that the most punitive way teachers use is beating the learner for sexually harassing them. However, this is not recommended in the context of Eswatini. This is because in as much as learners are wrong and the act of sexually harassing teachers; however, in light of the Eswatini legislation, it is not good for teachers to beat, shout and give additional punishment to the learner who is sexually harassing them. This is because the government of Eswatini has banned corporal punishment on learners; be it whatsoever crime or offence they have done. Instead, she promotes positive discipline on learners. This finding, therefore, suggests that teachers do not tolerate sexual harassment. This finding is in line with Timmerman (2003) who studied relationships among perceptions, attitudes and experiences of sexual harassment and found that women are less tolerant to sexual harassment behaviours.

**Table 1:** Teachers' reaction to sexual harassment

How is your reaction towards sexual harassment	Mean	SD	DE
1. Beat the learner for sexually harassing me	4.25	0.71	SLA
2. Shout at the learner for sexually harassing me	4.24	0.77	SLA
3. Report the learner to the HOD about his or her actions towards me	4.39	0.31	SLA
4. Punish the learner in way for harassing me sexually	4.43	0.57	SLA
5. I report the child to the administration after sexually harassing me	3.86	0.29	SLA
6. Report the case of sexual harassment by learners to the police	3.34	0.31	SLD
7. Report to the parents or guardian that their child is sexually harassing me	3.70	0.24	SLA
Average	4.03	0.46	SLA

Legend; scale limit	Descriptive Equivalent (DE)	
0-1.49	Strongly Disagree	(SD)
1.5- 2.49	Disagree	(D)
2.5-3.49	Slightly Disagree	(SLD)
3.5-4.49	Slightly Agree	(SLA)
4.5-5.49	Agree	(A)
5.5-6.0	Strongly Agree	(SA)

Teachers' attitude towards sexual harassment

Teachers were asked to indicate their attitude towards sexual harassment by students. Results presented in Table 2 generally show that teachers have a negative attitude towards sexual harassment from learners ($\bar{x}=3.13$). Specifically, teachers indicated that receiving a kiss from a student was unacceptable ($\bar{x}=2.13$). Further, the results indicate that the following student practices were slightly unacceptable; giving sex toy to the teachers ($\bar{x}=2.70$); asking the teacher out on a date ($\bar{x}=2.79$); asking the teacher about their sex life ($\bar{x}=2.73$); asking the teachers about their love life ($\bar{x}=2.90$); requesting the teacher to teach them on how to make love ($\bar{x}=2.88$); making sexy parades or moves before the teacher ($\bar{x}=2.96$); touching teacher's private parts ($\bar{x}=3.01$); calling the teacher names (bitch, slut) ($\bar{x}=3.00$); writing love letters to the teachers ($\bar{x}=3.14$); and asking teachers for dating tips ($\bar{x}=3.03$).

The overall standard deviations of 0.57 indicate that there was no real difference in teachers' responses. This study concludes that teachers find it slightly unacceptable for learners to kiss, give them sex toys, ask the teacher out on a date and to request the teacher to teach them on how to make love. This is an unacceptable behaviour (Crittenden, 2009). In another study that investigated teacher's attitudes towards sexual harassment and perceptions of student peer sexual harassment in the United States of America, Stone (2001) concludes that even though teachers are known to be perpetrators of such, they are against it. These studies thus confirm findings of this study that teachers do not accept such sexual advances from students.

**Table 2:** Teachers' attitude towards sexual harassment

	How acceptable are student sexual advances....	Mean	SD	DE
1	Kissing you	2.13	0.29	U
2	Giving me sex toys	2.70	0.57	SU
3	Asking me out on a date	2.79	0.46	SU
4	Asking me about my sex life	2.73	0.45	SU
5	Touching me on private parts	3.01	0.84	SU
6	Calling me names (bitch, slut etc.)	3.00	0.83	SU
7	Writing me love letters	3.14	0.74	SA
8	Student asking me about my love life love	2.90	0.38	SU
9	Requesting me on how to make love	2.88	0.47	SU
10	Asking me for dating tips	3.03	0.32	SU
11	Making sexy parades before me	2.96	0.36	SU
	Average	3.13	0.57	SU

Legend; scale limit Descriptive Equivalent (DE)

0-1.4	Totally unacceptable (TU)
1.5-2.4	Unacceptable (U)
2.5-3.4	Slightly Unacceptable (SU)
3.5-4.4	Slightly Acceptable (SA)
4.5-5.4	Acceptable (A)
5.5-6.0	Perfectly Acceptable (PA)

Teachers' reasons for being sexually harassed.

The educators were then asked about the reasons why they think students sexually harass them at Eswatini schools. Firstly, students throw themselves on teachers for financial support and social status. Participant 8 stated that "*they desire to be in love with a teacher or with a person of a higher rank than oneself*". This response was supported by participant 9, 1, and 5. During the interview, participant 6, 7, 9 and 10 stated that some learners see the teachers as potentially able to give them a perfect love life. This creates a perfect love story or fairy-tale of an imaginary love life with the teacher in the learner's mind. This may be due to the fact that learners tend to have this mind-set that teachers (especially in the rural areas) do not lack anything and are always financially stable. They added that some parents particularly in rural schools do support their girls when dating teachers, particularly the young unmarried male teachers. The Ministry of Education and Training discourages and harshly punishes teachers in love relationships with learners but the parents conceal such, thus defeating, making it difficult for the Ministry to punish teachers.

This finding concurs with Zarra's (2013) discovery that those students, particularly females, look up to teachers and other adults for intimate relationships in order to get financial support. Similarly, Zarra (2016) when addressing appropriate and inappropriate teacher-student relationships observed that students' financial and emotional lack can drive them into the arms of older men, particularly their teachers. This

finding suggests that school going children need extra care in terms of financial and emotional support from home so that they do not find themselves in intimate relationships with adults.

Secondly, older students restarting in Form 4, after failing to get admissions at tertiary institutions, openly approach teachers for love relationships. Participant 3, mentioned that learners *"They feel like you are their age mate especially re-starters"*. This is encouraged by the fact that some of the teachers are young, so learners see them as age-mates. Participant 4 further stated that the teachers' dress code shows some parts which sexually attract the learners. *"As a male teacher I think the kids look at the age and then look at us as being capable of being their boyfriends, and they even seduce us to make sure they draw attention"*. Learners tend to take advantage of the teacher's kindness or the friendly relationship they may have with the learners and see them as age-mates instead of being their teacher. This is mostly because teachers admitted that they tend to be softer on these re-starting students. The teachers' dress code plays a huge role in the profession of teachers. This is because teachers should wear professionally at all times. Participant 1 mentioned that *"teachers need to understand that there are clothes for work place and there are clothes that can be worn in work place (cloths that are less sexually revealing or sexually tempting to the learners)"*. Participant 5 stated that *"First dress code can make the students think you want them"*. For instance, short dresses and revealing cleavages is not good. *"Wearing appropriate and in a presentable manner is key to controlling this act"*.

Participant 7 elaborated by giving an example of such case, the case of Ngcoseni high school where learners stated that their teachers wear inappropriate clothes that are revealing or too tight that arouse their sexual desires; thus, making the learners lose concentration in class. In as much as student-teacher relationship is needed for effective teaching and learning, Stipek (2006) found three types being intra-school academic relationships, intra-school extracurricular relationships and interpersonal non-school related relationships capable of bringing learners too close to teachers and thus promoting intimate relationships. Noddings (2005) noted that teachers and learners act as partners in most extra-curricular activities and thus becoming easy for teachers or learners to socialise and thus opening opportunity and courage for students to sexually harass teachers. Thirdly, alcohol and drug abuse. Teachers blame students and their colleagues who drink and club together with learners. This according to the teachers makes students learn to talk to teachers anyhow and thus gaining confidence to seduce or making sexual advances to their teachers. Improper behaviour of teachers thus has a factor to them and their colleagues being victims of sexual harassment. Participant 10 stated that *"the improper behaviours of teachers out of school premises does have a huge role in leading learners to sexually harass teachers even at work place (school)"*. Participant 2 then gave an example that, *"you find that some teachers club and drink alcohol with learners in public places or bars"*. This degrades the teacher and his or her reputation to the learners. In addition, social media has also contributed to the encouragement of drug abuse. There are many adverts promoting use of drugs and thus drugs are glorified and presented as social binding element.

Lastly, male teachers seem to enjoy and entertain sexual advances from female learners. When asked, the teachers indicated that culture detects that males are the ones who propose love and that is a hard exercise and thus it is difficult to turn down such luck. They likened this to a mouse parading before the big hungry cat. Participant 4 noted that, *to tell you the truth, it is almost impossible to turn down a love proposal from a young fresh girl*. Participants 8, 2 and 6 shared the same sentiments. Ronald (2001) in his book "Love, Sex, and Relationships: Where Would We Be without Them?" acknowledged that men of all kinds, teachers included, may not resist sexual harassment and thus do not consider it as sexual harassment but 'some luck'.

Compare the extent, effect, reaction and attitudes of teachers according to gender

Table 3 presents results of an independent-samples t-test that was conducted to compare the extent of sexual harassment, its effect, the reaction and attitudes of male and female teachers. This test was run to see if male and female teachers' reactions, effects and attitudes differed or not. On the extent of sexual harassment, the results indicate that there is no significant difference $t = 0.15$, $p = 0.12$. This means that both male teachers ($\bar{x} = 3.08$) and female teachers ($\bar{x} = 3.43$) sometimes experience sexual advancement from learners. The hypothesis is therefore accepted. Effects of sexual harassment; the results indicated that there is a significant difference on how teachers of different gender are affected by sexual harassment from learners $t = 3.25$, $p = 0.00$. Specifically, this means that female teachers ($\bar{x} = 4.82$) are greatly affected by sexual harassment compared to male teachers ($\bar{x} = 3.02$). The hypothesis is therefore rejected. Teacher's reaction towards sexual harassment; the results indicated that there is a significant difference on how male and female teachers react towards sexual harassment from learners $t = 4.02$, $p = 0.01$. Specifically, this means that female teachers ($\bar{x} = 4.01$) are the ones that mostly resort to harsh actions towards students who harass them sexually compared to male teachers ($\bar{x} = 2.85$) who normally ignore such learners. Numerous earlier studies have identified psychological pain as a consequence of sexual harassment on women who reported stress, anxiety, posttraumatic stress disorder, negative mood, disordered eating, self-blame and lowered self-esteem (Lindquist & McKay, 2018). Similarly, Robinson (2000) noted that women react bitterly towards sexual harassment. The hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Lastly, teacher's attitudes towards sexual harassment; the results show that there is a significant difference on the attitudes of male and female teachers towards sexual harassment from learners $t = 2.26$, $p = 0.00$. Specifically, this means that female teachers ($\bar{x} = 1.91$) have a negative attitude towards sexual advances from learners while male teachers ($\bar{x} = 3.55$) have a positive attitude towards sexual advances from learners. This finding concurs with Bingham and Scherer (2001) who found that male and females react differently to sexual harassment and thus women mostly develop negative attitude towards it. This is most likely because most perpetrators of sexual harassment are males (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). The hypothesis is therefore rejected.

**Table 3:** Comparison of the extent, effect, reaction and attitudes of teachers according to gender

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig
Extent of sexual	Female	40	3.43	0.45	0.15	0.12
	Male	40	3.08	0.68		
Effects of sexual harassment	Female	40	4.82	0.71	3.25	0.00**
	Male	40	3.02	0.70		
Teacher's reaction	Female	40	4.01	0.87	4.02	0.01**
	Male	40	2.85	1.02		
Teacher Attitude	Female	40	1.91	0.74	2.26	0.00**
	Male	40	3.55	0.84		

*significant at 0.05 level of significant ($p < 0.05$)

** significant at 0.01 level of significant ($p < 0.01$)

CONCLUSION

The reality of sexual harassment in Eswatini is irrefutable; there was a need to be investigated further for its precise nature, extent and impact particularly in high schools. Earlier studies have mainly viewed sexual harassment in schools from the perspective of the students as victims of sexual harassment and they all present adverse effect of sexual harassment on both the social and academic lives of learners. The perspective of teacher as a victim of sexual harassment in schools has largely been ignored. Yet, achievement of school effectiveness demands, among others, a secure environment for teachers, which in turn impacts positively on teacher performance. Teachers, as evident in this study, have negative attitude towards sexual harassment from learners. The teachers do not take kindly to sexual advances from learners which includes being kissed, called using sexy names, touching on private parts, sex talks and many others. Also, the teachers of different sexes react differently to sexual harassment. Female teachers report stress, depression, feeling lowered self-esteem and thus react by reporting incidences to authorities, beating learners, ignoring them, treating perpetrators differently, developing negative attitudes, etc.

On the other hand, male teachers seem to enjoy sexual advances from female students. Teachers contend that they know why learners would sexually harass them or their colleagues. Mostly, teachers believe learners particularly girls do this as they seek emotional and financial support. Drugs and substance use has also been cited as another cause for sexual harassment while other teachers believe teachers' conduct and dress code can also push learners into harassing teachers sexually. Teachers react differently to these actions such as punishing the perpetrator, avoiding learners, confronting the student and even suspecting that the learner is possessed by some demons that make her/him act wayward. It can therefore be concluded that sexual harassment has almost similar effects on teachers as it is on learners. The teacher feels embarrassed, develops fear and anger, tends to avoid school/class and they are less likely to be supported by either friends or family. Sexual harassment in schools by students to teachers does really occur in high levels which really needs to be addressed. This does not only affect the learning process but also greatly affects the victim



(teachers). The study thus recommends that government need to regulate teachers' dress code or implement the use of uniforms. Also, learners need to be made aware that sexual harassment to either young or adults is a crime.

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THE APPLICATION OF ADULT LEARNING THEORY (ANDRAGOGY) BY ADULT EDUCATORS AND ADULT LEARNERS IN THE CONTEXT OF ESWATINI

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ABSTRACT

Adult learning has been understood differently by different people as it has evolved over the years. The purpose of this paper is to articulate the practical use of adult learning theory (Andragogy) by both adult educators and adult learners in a learning environment of Eswatini. A descriptive research design using a qualitative inquiry was employed by the researcher through an interpretive research paradigm. Purposive and convenience sampling were used to draw seven participants of the study. Unstructured interview guide was used to collect data that was thematically analysed. The findings indicated that the instructional methods used by adult educators promoted learner dependency as opposed to self-directed learning. It was found that what was delivered was basically subject-centred, with little aspect of integrating adult learners' real-life contexts. Accordingly, it was concluded that adult learners lack the self-directedness as they do not push themselves to study hard, have a tendency of late submission of work and come to learning environment unprepared. While it was noted that context shaped adult learning, it was recommended that instructional methods be improved to give adult learners autonomy, and to empower them to be assertive. Again both adult educators and learners are recommended to use andragogy in all learning environments.

Keywords: Adult learning, adult education, andragogy, self-directed learning

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INTRODUCTION

Eswatini (previously known as Swaziland) is a small, landlocked country, which gained political independence from the British in 1968, which has maintained relative peace and stability over the past years. It is a homogenous society, with 98% of the population being Emaswati, with a small heterogeneous population of non-Emaswati residents. The country has been described as a peaceful country with natural biodiversity and a rich traditional heritage. In many respects Eswatini is a modern country with extensive links to the Southern African region and internationally, with a developing infrastructure, a young literate population with a potential to acquire technical and vocational skills to make the country a haven for tourism development. There are challenges posed by poverty, income distribution patterns, HIV/AIDS and gender imbalances. These challenges can be addressed through adult education that requires people who learn throughout their entire lives to change their situation and for further development. Adult education is a multifaceted complex process, which encompasses many subjects and interest areas. It includes continuing education efforts for personal and professional growth, and enrichment activities for the highly educated. Adult education is designed for personal skill development, for enhanced career opportunities, or for enjoyment. It can involve a short duration of time or several years of effort; and it serves diverse of students and includes a varied population of adult teachers. Again, The Ministry of Education and Training (2018) seek for the learner centred approach in teaching and learning as a renewed focus on effective learning.

Therefore, that tallies well with adult education and the manner in which education is delivered to its learners. As such, to facilitate learning with adult learners requires a thorough understanding of how the former learn using andragogy in any learning environment. According to Knowles (1984) andragogy is the art and science of helping adults to learn. However, Kapur referred to andragogy as 'education of equals' (facilitator and learner) as opposed to pedagogy that is a theory of teaching children (2015, p. 52). Hence, the application of andragogy is important to both adult learners and adult educators alike. Adult learners have their own experiences, their own world view and their personal autonomy, which serves as a guide to what they actually want to learn, thus achieving the improvement of home-grown solutions to African educational encounters (Sefotho, 2018).

Likewise, those who teach and facilitate learning with adult learners need to also gain a better understanding of adult learners and find ways on how to motivate them to best learn in any learning environment. This means that it is very important for adult educators to understand the characteristics of adult learners and develop the best instructional methods for them. Additionally, it is significant to use appropriate measures to evaluate how much andragogy and its principles and design elements have applied to adult learning practice. Moreover, adult learners' satisfaction can increase when learning processes and environments meet their expectations. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to assess the validity of andragogy and the extent to which adult learners manifest it from adult educators in the context of Eswatini. The participants responded to the following research questions:



- 1) To what extent do adult learners demonstrate the application of andragogy in their learning experience?
- 2) To what extent do adult educators apply andragogy in a learning environment?

Literature (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998; Kapur, 2015) suggested that adult learners do not learn the same way children learn, particularly looking at their characteristics, learning styles, and as learners in different levels of educational systems. Therefore, andragogy, which is an “integrated framework of adult learning” (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998, p.58) presents core principles of adult learning that in turn enable those designing and conducting adult learning to build more effective learning processes for adults. Table 1 below illustrates the difference between teaching children (pedagogy) and teaching adults (andragogy).

Table 1: Pedagogy and Andragogy Differences

Pedagogy	Andragogy
1. Mandatory Attendance	1. Voluntary Attendance
2. Subject or Teacher-Centred	2. Problem or Learner-Centred
3. Dependent Learners	3. Independent Learners
4. Little or Inexperienced	4. Rich Experience
5. Teacher prescribe content	5. Learner prescribe content
6. Learners grouped by age, level	6. Learners grouped by interest or needs
7. Learning for future	7. Learning for immediate application
8. Learners Subordinate to teacher	8. Learners equal to teacher
9. Rigid, traditional structure	9. Flexible, alternative structure
10. Passive Learners	10. Active Learners

Source: Kapur (2015)

Table 1 illustrate the difference between pedagogy and andragogy, which is a theory for adult learning that emphasises self-directedness of adults and expect them to take responsibility of their decisions. Andragogy and pedagogy helps us to understand the difference between an adult learner and the child learner and how they participate in a learning context. In summary, the table outlines assumptions about learners’ self-concept, readiness to learn, learners’ experiences, their orientation to learn as well as their motivation to learn in any given learning environment.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Andragogy

Andragogy was popularised by Malcolm Knowles as the art and science of helping adults to learn as opposed to how children learn (Knowles, 1984). Knowles suggested the following assumptions about adult learners, which were said to be self-directed learning:



1. As a person matures his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being.
2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for learning.
3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role.
4. There is a change in time perspective as people mature—from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Thus, an adult is more problem-centred than subject-centred in learning (Knowles, 1980; pp. 44-45).
5. Adults are mostly driven by internal motivation, rather than external motivators.
6. Adults need to know the reason for learning something (Knowles, 1984).

Additionally, Knowles listed several dimensions to the need to know: (a) the need to know how learning will be conducted, (b) what learning will occur, and (c) why the learning is important (Knowles et al., 1998). This means that there is need for adult educators to supply learners with advance information about the content and style of the learning experience, which prepares learners for participation, and assist in the development for their realistic expectations. Andragogy is relevant to the communalism and Ubuntu philosophy of education in Africa whereby experience played a key role as it laid the foundation for self-determination and education. This is where learners are seen to be responsible for their own learning, gain experience to self-determine (Sefotho, 2018) and becoming self-directed and accountable to their own learning. Adult learners engage in learning for purposes such as to fill an educational gap, personal development, acquire basic literacy and work readiness skills; just to mention a few. Therefore, learning that has the most meaning for adults is that which has personal value, one that establish a trusting, mutually respectful, informal, collaborative, and supportive learning climate. Again it is important for adult educators to implement a collaborative approach that incorporates adult learners' experiences to the planning of their learning, which is a rich resource for any learning and couched for real-life context. Furthermore, since adults direct their lives in family, work and civic arenas, they can also often want to direct their own learning hence they are self-directed and independent in nature. The following section discusses self-directed learning. According to Brookfield (1986) when andragogical principles and design elements are adequately considered, andragogy is able to address learning needs of adults and enhance the practice of adult education by using appropriate instructional methods.

Self-directed learning

Self-directed learning emanated from the first assumption that says adults are independent self-autonomous, self-directed human beings. In fact, most adults are engaged in self-directed learning projects, whereby learning occurs as part of everyday life, is undertaken in a systematic way, yet is not dependent upon an instructor or a classroom (Tough, 1971; Kapur, 2015) as displayed in Table 1. This is where a learner is taking control of her or his own learning out of their own free will. Self-directed learning can be found throughout the contexts of adult life, including the workplace, continuing professional education, health and medical fields, higher education, and in online contexts where research suggests that the more successful online learners are those that are more self-directed (Merriam and Bierema, 2014) especially in outbreaks like COVID-19 that requires for social distancing.

Self-directed learning is seen as self-teaching, or where learners are capable of taking control of teaching themselves in a particular subject. This tallies with what Samaroo (2012) states regarding pedagogy, which means the learners' self-engagement and independence with learning material, while the facilitator of learning also plays a critical role of supporting the learning process. In this case learners' autonomy refers to taking control and ownership of the goals and purposes of one's own learning. However, it should be noted that a person may be autonomous, but choose to learn in a teacher-directed style. Yet just because an adult engages in self-teaching does not mean that the person is autonomous (Knowles et al., 1998). Therefore it should be understood that learning is a function of the context in which it takes place. Furthermore, the richness of the context, the apparatuses and the people in the context and the particular learning activity itself all come together to structure the learning.

METHODOLOGY

The study used interpretive paradigm and the descriptive research design with qualitative approach. In this design a detailed accurate picture of the situation (Rakotsoane, 2018) and experiences shared by both adult educators and adult learners were described and explained as they were revealed regarding the research questions. The participants of this study were four (two females and two males) adult learners who are above 18 years and enrolled as part-time learners in the institution that offers education to adults, and one female and two males making a total of three adult educators serving in the same institution. All the participants were drawn from the department that deals with adult learners. The participants were chosen through purposive sampling because of being relevant in the field of adult education that uses andragogy. Moreover, convenience sampling was used to suit both the researcher and the participants' availability. The latter were all individually interviewed using unstructured interview guide containing open questions that allowed for sharing of experiences. Inductive thematic analysis was employed by reading the transcripts for several times in order to come up with common ideas and patterns that occur as major themes. Informed consent, confidentiality and free withdrawal from the study were some of the ethics that were considered when dealing with each individual participant.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings of the study were presented according to the emanating themes from the data, reflecting both adult educators and adult learners' views and opinions regarding the key research questions that were guiding the study.

Research question 1: To what extent do adult learners demonstrate the application of andragogy in their learning experience?

For this research question, two themes emerged from the participants' responses: traditional ways of teaching and learning, and low self-directedness of adult learners, which are presented and discussed accordingly.



Traditional ways of teaching and learning

Both adult educators and adult learners alluded to predominant traditional ways of teaching as well as learning, which reflects the subject-centred approach of pedagogy, as opposed to learner-centred approach that is noticeable in andragogy. Adult educators stated that:

We push them to do work; we can't do otherwise because if we don't, some [learners] lag behind... They behave like children and [they] want to be deposited with information [course content] and give it back when they write [tests, class-work or assignments] female educator.

On another note, the first male educator indicated that:

I have stopped giving them notes....I post things online... They [adult learners] want to reproduce, they don't think out of the given information ... we fail to do group work to cover the materials [content].

In both instances, adult educators revealed that they treat adult learners just like formal children who need to be pushed in order for them to do their academic work. Both educators indicated that they prepare content to give to adult learners, which in return the learners write it as it is during their assessment times. This means that adult learners depend on the prepared notes and therefore do not go beyond to search for more information other than the one provided by their educators, thus reflecting passive learning. On the same issue, adult learners felt that andragogy was practiced, even though language discourses were noticed on a contrary. They stated that:

I think Andragogy is being practiced ... [Language discourse]...I am able to interact with my facilitator and have time to come to a formal setting like classroom to have a class, yet Andragogy says that we have to study in our comfortable places; but I prefer to come to class and have a facilitator....[in front of me] First Female learner.

Another second female learner said *"In class there are concepts that we learn but cannot link to our experiences but in groups we do."*

The above data from adult learners corroborated the data from adult educators, meaning that, adult learners seemingly depend on facilitators for the prepared content to be learned. Adult learners revealed their state of wanting to depend on facilitators by coming to class other than studying on their own. The findings demonstrated that adult teaching and learning in the context of the Eswatini heavily relies on traditional approaches, which confirms what Bates (2015) suggested. Bates indicated that most universities were not build around industrial times and not for the digital age, meaning that universities are faced with unprecedented changes where lecturers and their diverse students have to cope with the ever changing technology. The findings revealed that what was delivered was basically subject-centred, with little aspect of integrating adult learners' real-life contexts, which contradicts what Kapur (2015) outlined in the differences between pedagogy and andragogy. It can be noted that adult educators rely on the teacher-centred approach instead of using andragogy to guide their teaching and learning (Kapur, 2015; Knowles, 1989). The traditional



teaching focuses on the teacher who transfers information to learners, which is likely to be forgotten. The implications thereof are limited participation by adult learners regarding their sharing of experiences and ideas in a learning environment; and memorizing the content with little thinking or understanding of what was taught. It is disconcerting to realize that adult educators compromise adult learning principles when dealing with adult learners to say the least. The findings illustrated that adult learners depend on facilitators for the content and materials to study, thus, compromising the learner-centred and problem-solving approach but presenting low self-directedness in learning. That in itself promoted little or lack of personal autonomy on the side of adult learners who seem to be dependent than taking responsibility for their learning.

Low self-directedness of adult learners

There is a relationship from the traditional ways of teaching and learning and the low self-directedness that is displayed by adult learners. Here, the data speaks for itself as the second male educator stated that:

In a test they [adult learners] talk about [adult learning] principles very well but [in reality, they] do not practice them.... They [adult learners] always have an excuse for late submission of assignments; they come to class unprepared and want to be taught ... [usually they do] not have questions because they do not read...

The educator went on and on repeating the same issues as a way of emphasizing how the adult learners are not displaying an element of being self-directed. This was also confirmed by a female educator who said:

Self-directedness is a problem as some [adult learners] are pushed hard to do something ... they are unable to push them, they do not submit work on time. They are lazy, and [they] want things [certificates] for free, and they are dependent [on both facilitators and technology].

Adult educators stated the lack of self-directedness of adult learners to be a concern as they alluded that learners depend on facilitators and on doing cut and paste from internet sources whenever they are given assignments to do.

Pertaining to the same issue, a second male adult learner's views were:

...but I prefer to come to class and have a facilitator... because when I am alone I can't grasp everything and be able to understand what is expected from me.

The data from adult learners confirmed assertions by adult educators in that adult learners seem to be dependent on their facilitators. This could be linked to the above theme of traditional ways of teaching and learning whereby adult educators spoon-feed adult learners by depositing content, which is in return given back during assessment times. By so doing adult learners' self-directedness is affected, knowing that they will receive ready-made information on a silver platter. Giving adult learners ready-made information is likely to promote dependence as opposed to independent learners thus refuting what Kapur (2015) posit. The findings illustrated that adult learners depend on facilitators for the content and materials to study, thus, compromising the learner-centred approach. This denies what the MoET (2018) aim regarding the introduction of learner centred approach for effective learning. Instead, adult learners presented low self-

directedness in learning. On the latter aspect, the findings counters what Samaroo (2012) stated regarding self-directedness whose focus is learner self-engagement and independence with own learning material. This is a concern because adult learners can be assisted to become more self-directed by helping them realise their potentials, their different personality types, learning styles and encouraging them to explore and express it (Kapur, 2015).

Research question 2: To what extent do adult educators apply andragogy in a learning environment?

The following themes emerged from the participants' responses: blaming the system, encountering challenges, and supportive learning.

Blaming the system

The female educator blamed the formal environment within which adult education is part therein. She expressed herself as follows:

We are constraint by the system [formal] where we operate as our students are mixed with the formal ones [students]. We know we are not supposed to treat them like children but we do, we have no choice...Exam time forces us to follow the system.

This was partly confirmed by some adult learners who stated that:

We are taught in class and [we] read the notes that are given to us ... coming to class is important because we interact with our teachers and facilitators ... First female learner
Mixing Andragogy and coming to class [formal] –the combination is fine for me [language discourse]
First male learner.

The data reveals that the institutional formal environment is blamed to have partly influenced some activities that are formally conducted, such as writing of examinations for assessing adult learners. It is disturbing to note that adult educators act passively by being silent if the examination time affects their way of operating. Therefore adult educators' passiveness is likely to result in the lack of applying andragogy in their teaching and learning environment. Both adult educators and adult learners emphasized that formal teaching in classrooms was a result of operating on a formal environment. It is noteworthy to mention that each educator exercised their individual way of conducting teaching and learning activities. What is binding is the strict way of handling examinations at the end of every semester, where strict measures are adhered to. The data revealed that there is little effort done by adult educators to instil andragogy when dealing with adult learners. It is Interesting to note that issues of accountability and performance management (Patrick & Rollins, 2016) were not raised by any of the participants under concern. The question is who should be held accountable for learners' academic performance? Should it be adult learners, adult educators or the institution? The environment facilitates learning; therefore for adults to learn best they usually use their own pace in a conducive context for them to obtain maximum results. On the other hand adult educators need to be compassionate and nurture adult learners to build their self-concept thus improve their self-directedness in a learning environment.



Encountering challenges

The second female adult learner indicated some challenges they encounter as learners. She expressed her concern as follows:

[We have] multiple roles, clashing times especially at our level... This is because we come to class during the week.... that clash with [our] work schedules...

Again the first male added:

We come here when we are supposed to be at work ... we can't pay for our education if we are not working...

A second male had this to say:

The lack of financial support from government is a challenge to us

The data revealed that adult learners are faced with challenges that require them to make proper decision when prioritizing their roles. Adult learners have external responsibilities and situations that impact their learning process such as work and family commitments to name the two. It is purported that they are motivated to learn by choice as literature indicates (Knowles, 1984, Kapur, 2015). However, maintaining their level of motivation can be tricky, as adult learning comes with its own set of challenges, which are balancing work and family commitments while also maintaining some social life. Moreover, money is a challenge to adult learners who have to pay for their tuition fees, bills, and feeding families. There is no doubt that for adult learners, a strong support network is crucial in a learning environment. Consequently, adult learners outlined the importance of meeting and discussing amongst them as that enhanced their supportive learning.

Supportive learning

The theme was mentioned by adult learners alone. This is what adult learners were agreeing upon:

We meet other people in the same class and have study groups, which helps us to understand problems that are offered [in class] ... when [we are] in groups we sit down and unpack [what was taught] then we are able to understand ... in groups we discuss freely amongst ourselves ... in groups we explain concepts to each other well so that we understand them.

It is interesting to realise that adult learners actually see the need for them to study in groups, which is a powerful means of interacting and learning together by sharing their experiences. The data revealed that there is some autonomy amongst adult learners, which they display when they see the need. Supportive learning is a component of andragogy as adult learners learn from one another to problem solve (Kapur, 2015) their concerns and make connections with what they learn to their real lives. It was interesting to note that adult learners felt the need for supportive learning where they established study groups to learn and assist each other by sharing experiences (Knowles, 1984, 1989) as one important principle of andragogy. Adult learners demonstrated that they can be autonomous by being responsible for their own learning, become self-determined (Sefotho, 2018) and become self-directed and accountable to their own learning. Furthermore, what adult learners did, supported Bates (2015) when showing that learners have the ability to learn independently. This is because collaboration and sharing of knowledge with others boost teamwork, which is desired when using andragogy (Knowles et al, 1989; Bates, 2015; Kapur, 2015) with both adult



educators and adult learners and within learners' study groups. Adult learners require the change of mind-set for them to get proper direction pertaining to knowledge management that keeps changing with new research.

CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that both adult educators and learners heavily relied on traditional one way teacher-centred approach in teaching and learning. It was found that adult educators spoon-fed adult learners with ready-made content. That practice created passive adult learners who are likely to memorize the content with little thinking skills and understanding of what they learn. Adult learners demonstrated low self-directedness as they do not push themselves to study hard, have a tendency of late submission of work and come to learning environment unprepared. All of these demonstrated weak application of andragogy by all participants in a learning environment. It was concluded that adult educators applied little effort to instil andragogy when dealing with adult learners in the teaching and learning environment. Instead they blamed the formal environment within which adult education operates. Furthermore, adult learners seemed to be overwhelmed with challenges which affect their learning process. However, through supportive learning in study groups, they managed to get through and apply some andragogical principles to overcome their learning challenges. While it was noted that context shaped adult learning, it was recommended that:

- 1) Instructional methods be improved to give adult learners autonomy, to empower them to be assertive, and to engage them in active participation;
- 2) Adult educators should infuse andragogy and adult learning principles in the courses that they teach by tapping into learners experiences that serve as a rich resource in learning;
- 3) Adult educators should consciously improve their teaching and learning styles and try to be compassionate and act as mentors for adult learners;
- 4) Both adult educators and adult learners should use more educational media materials and technology in a learning process;
- 5) Adult learners should learn how to be empowered for learner-centred and self-directedness aspects by making their own decisions pertaining to the content.

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TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES OF LEARNERS WITH INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF ESWATINI

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to explore the teachers' experiences of learners with intellectual disabilities (IDs), collaborating with parents in mainstream primary schools in the Lubombo region in Eswatini. Using a qualitative approach, twenty-four (n= 24; females = 15; males = 9) teacher participants were sampled from 6 conveniently selected primary schools. Purposive sampling was utilized to select teacher participants with the experience of teaching learners with ID at upper primary school level. Data on collaborative aspects with parents of children with IDs were collected through focus group discussion and in-depth interviews. Thematic analysis of data indicated that teachers consider the following important facets in their collaboration with parents: Journaling; personal skills development; creation of time to do school work and provision of basic needs. The teachers reported the use of journaling in their daily communication with parents on the progress of the learners with intellectual disabilities. They also indicated the importance of personal skills development to reinforce good personal hygiene and grooming of the learners. The teachers reported a need for more co-operation and commitment from parents to effectively assist their children in their educational activities at home. Teachers also reported that they assisted some parents by providing basic needs such as food and uniforms for the learners. These findings suggest a need to better equip parents in basic special education needs and counselling skills training to enable them to effectively assist their children in their educational activities. Furthermore, there is a need to raise awareness regarding having a child with a disability to overcome the social stigma surrounding disability in Eswatini.

KEYWORDS: intellectual disabilities, mainstream, special education needs, Eswatini

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers of learners with Intellectual Disabilities (IDs) in mainstream schools may be exposed to a variety of experiences in collaborating with parents depending on the severity of the learners' disability. Collaboration between teachers and parents is important for the reflection of practices and exchange of knowledge as a main strategy to generate creativity and innovation to support positive educational experience for the learners with disabilities (Adams, Harris & Jones, 2018). Collaboration between teachers and parents may also constitute parental involvement in the education of learners with IDs, which creates opportunities to plan for individualised care, share information on weaknesses and strengths of the learners to provide meaningful support (Afolabi, 2014). Therefore, considering the way in which teachers of learners with IDs collaborate with parents as key stakeholders in education, may provide great opportunities to support teaching and care for such learners.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Given the significance of the connection between parental involvement and successful student outcomes, it is imperative that teachers of learners with special education needs develop skills in establishing positive relationships with parents (Collier, Keefe & Hirrel, 2015). Moreover, the nature of a disability in a child comes with its complexities and often puts parenting skills to test (Thwala, Okeke & Dlodlu, 2018) such as showing affection towards them. The study further revealed that parents had unique experiences in raising their children with disabilities and there is a need for parents to have appropriate information about the disabilities of their children to effectively support them. Learners with IDs have significant limitations in cognitive functions (lack of intellectual functioning; limitations of learning) and restrictions in adaptive behaviour skills such as social skills and self-care skills (Okyere, Aldersey & Lysaght, 2019). Therefore, there is a need for the use of special education needs and counselling skills in establishing higher levels of interactions between teachers of learners with IDs and parents to fully support the learners. The aim is to enhance the positive educational experiences of learners with ID through parent- teacher collaboration.

Education is a basic human right for all children with or without disabilities in most developed and developing countries. For instance, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities [CRPD] (2006) affirms that States including Eswatini should ensure that learners with disabilities such as IDs are not excluded from mainstream schools on the basis of their disability (United Nations Children's Fund, 2013). Many governments are also signatories to international Conventions on disabilities such as the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (1994), Dakar Framework of Action (2000) and United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities of 2006 (UNESCO, 2015).

Therefore, there has been an increase in demand to provide quality education for all children with diverse education needs and abilities in mainstream schools, leading to wide experiences of teachers (Chimhenga, 2016). This requires having teachers with special education needs and counselling skills who support learners with ID when they are at school. Conversely, parents are responsible for taking care of these learners when at home; hence, the importance of collaboration between the teachers and the parents to effectively support the learners.

Additionally, the Constitution of the Kingdom of Eswatini (2005) embraced education for all children agenda which includes learners with IDs. The Ministry of Education and Training Education Sector Policy of (2018) emphasizes that all individuals can learn effectively according their intellectual capacity, skills and interests at all levels, whilst living with their parents (Education Sector Policy, 2018). Teachers in mainstream schools play a pivotal role in the holistic development of learners with IDs and they require full support from the parents to effectively assist these children.

The education system in the Kingdom of Eswatini has been structured into five phases: foundation phase, middle primary phase and upper primary phase. That is eight (8) years of primary education; junior secondary phase and senior secondary phase representing three (3) years respectively (Education Sector Policy, 2018). Both English and siSwati are used as mediums of instruction as described in the curriculum framework (Education Sector Policy, 2018). Cross cutting issues such as special education needs, training of teachers, and the inclusion of learners with IDs in Eswatini are mainstreamed in the curriculum at all levels (The government of the Kingdom of Swaziland, 2014) as operationalised by the National Education and Training Improvement Programme (NETIP). These issues still persist and may affect the educational experiences of the learners in primary schools.

Although several studies have been conducted on IDs in Eswatini; little is known regarding teachers' experiences of learners with IDs in collaborating with parents from mainstream primary schools. Yet the collaboration is crucial in teaching and learning of these learners. Mainstream primary schools are ordinary public schools with learners with IDs learning together with their typically developing peers. For instance, Okeke and Mazibuko (2014) conducted a study on experiences of parents of children with special education needs in Nhlengano, Eswatini. The findings indicated that parents appeared to be ill-prepared in their roles of providing their children's special educational needs and suggest that educators and parents should work as partners to come up with some guidelines on the expectations from each other. Additionally, Ntinda, Thwala and Tfusi (2019) carried out a study on experiences of teachers of the deaf and hard-of-hearing students teaching in a special needs high school in Lubombo region of Eswatini. The findings of the study recommend a need for higher level of parental involvement in the academic, personal and social aspects of development of their children with special educational needs. This suggests that teachers of learners with IDs in mainstream schools require strong commitment from other key stakeholders such as parents and government to help the learners to benefit from education as noted by Okyere, Aldersey, Lysaght and Sulaiman (2019).

Studies on teacher - parent collaboration are most needed in Eswatini, particularly in the Lubombo region because learners with IDs are an underserved target group in mainstream primary schools. Therefore, the current study aimed at exploring experiences of teachers of learners with IDs in collaborating with parents in mainstream primary schools of Siteki, in the Lubombo region of Eswatini. The specific research question was: What collaboration strategies do teachers of learners with IDs use with parents in mainstream primary schools of Siteki, in the Lubombo region of Eswatini?

Theoretical framework

The study was guided by the Social Constructivist Learning Theory that was developed by Lev Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky believed in constructivism which is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. The theory affirms that a favourable societal view on children with disabilities give preference to strengthening and empowerment of individual skills rather than stressing on weaknesses as described by Rodina (2006). Individuals generate their own rules and mental models from the society which they then use to make sense of their experiences. Vygotsky emphasized that knowledge is constructed through dialogue and interaction with others whereby the learners make sense of their environment depending on the situation (Churcher, Downsb & Tewksburya, 2014).

Considering this theoretical lens, teachers of learners with IDs can be able to make sense of their own experiences and communicate better with the outside world such as parents in this case. Major constructs of the Social Constructivist Learning Theory include: social interaction (sharing ideas with others), More Knowledgeable Other (teacher or adult) and Zone of Proximal Development [area of exploration] (McAllum, 2014). Teachers and parents of learners with IDs play a pivotal role in guiding the learners in performing certain tasks such as listening and eating. The strength of the theory lies in interactive dialogue amongst teachers, peers, and parents. Furthermore, it underscores the role of significant others (at home and school) in sharing ways of guiding learning and development of learners with IDs. In the case of this study, the role of the teacher and parent is critical in supporting the learning and development of the learners with IDs.

METHODOLOGY

The phenomenological research design which creates an opportunity for multiple socially constructed worldviews (Creswell, 2013) was employed in this study. The phenomenological design allows for a deep understanding of commonality of lived experiences within a particular group and provides abundant data about real life of people (Maxwell, 2013; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The approach was utilized because it provided an opportunity to explore the innermost deliberation of the lived experiences of the participants on the phenomenon under study (Alase, 2017). In addition, the choice of a phenomenological design was preferable for the study because it allowed for detailed data on experiences of teachers of learners with IDs in collaboration with parents to support them in mainstream primary schools in Siteki in the Lubombo region of Eswatini.



The participants

Twenty-four (24) teacher participants were sampled from six (6) conveniently selected mainstream primary schools in Siteki, Eswatini. A sample of (n = 24; 15 female; 9 male) teachers that met the inclusion criteria participated in the study. Table 1 presents participants' demographic information. Purposive sampling technique was employed to select participants based on their, teaching experience, qualification and training. The inclusion criteria were having: at least two or more years teaching experience, Primary Teachers' Diploma with specialisation in Special Education Needs Training and teaching learners diagnosed with IDs (6 - 12 years).

Table 1: *Participants' demographic information for the study (n=24)*

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Sex		
Male	9	38
Female	15	62
Age Group		
25-35	10	42
36-46	10	42
47-60	4	16
Qualification	8	26
B.Ed.	1	4
PGCE	15	70
PTD		
SEN Training experience		
2-5 years	21	88
6-10 years	2	8
11-20 years	1	4
Total	24	100

Note: B. Ed. = Bachelor of Education Degree; PGCE= Post Graduate Certificate in Education; PTD= Primary Teachers' Diploma; SEN= Special Education Needs.

Data collection

Focus group discussions and in-depth interviews were used to collect data, and interview guides were generated and used to guide the collection of data (Vosloo, 2014). All interviews were conducted in English though participants were allowed to respond in both English and SiSwati. All the participants took part in the Focus group discussions. Three (3) focus group discussions comprising of 8 participants each were conducted in three (3) different schools for an average of sixty (45) minutes per session to identify trends in the different views of the participants (Daniel, 2016). Participants' responses were coded and recorded in accordance with the interview guide. Probe stems were used to ask participants to describe aspects that constituted their work collaboration with parents in support of learners with IDs. Participants who provided

detailed responses were recruited for individual in-depth interview and 12 teachers participated. In-depth interviews created opportunities for emerging questions and teacher participants were encouraged to feel free to give elaborate responses that enhanced data collection (Jamshed, 2014). In-depth interviews were also conducted in three (3) conveniently selected schools and lasted for approximately 30 minutes per interview. All interviews were audio-recorded and then transcribed.

Ethical considerations

Permission to conduct the study was granted by the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) in Eswatini. All teacher participants that were included in the study signed consent forms and audio tape recording consent forms before they engaged in the study. Head teachers of the participating schools also consented for their schools to be sampled in the study. Teacher participants consented to participate in the study by completing the consent forms prior to interviews. Participants were informed that participation in the study was purely voluntary, and of their right to withdraw from the study without negative consequences. An unoccupied classroom was used to ensure confidentiality and privacy when conducting all interview sessions. No participant's name or school were identified, anonymity was observed by assigning letters and numbers to participants and schools respectively.

Trustworthiness of the study

In qualitative research, it is vital to scrutinize the trustworthiness of every phase of the analysis process, including the preparation, organization, and reporting of results to support the argument that the findings are worth paying attention to (Elo et al., 2014). Member checks with the participants were done in this study to observe credibility and the accuracy of responses from each participant (Khan, 2014). The process of member checking gave the participants an opportunity to correct flaws from responses, comments, and to interpret and solidify some of the findings. In addition, participants were encouraged to be as honest as possible and open during discussions to ensure dependability. There was consistent recording and reporting during the discussions.

Data analysis

The researchers conducted data analysis concurrently for both the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews. Data analysis was done on regular bases immediately after each interview session. Thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used and it allowed for an opportunity to identify patterns and themes of the phenomenon beyond the participants' perceptions (Rabinovich & Kacen, 2013). This enabled the researchers to become intimately familiar with the data by reading and re-reading the data; and listening to audio recorded data at least once if relevant (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Initial codes were identified and compared. Then similar codes were grouped into categories that led into the development of one major theme and sub-themes which were crucial for the purpose of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The main objective of the study was to obtain in-depth understanding of the collaboration strategies teachers of learners with IDs use with parents in mainstream primary schools of Siteki in Eswatini. To report the collaborative strategies used by teachers of learners with IDs and parents to support these learners, the findings are presented in accordance with the sub-themes which emerged from data analysis. Table 2 indicates the sub-themes which emerged from data analysis.

Table 2: Theme and Sub-themes derived from data analysis

Theme	Sub- themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Journaling ○ Personal skills development ○ Creation of time for school work ○ Provision of basic needs

Journaling

This section present teachers' strategy in working with parents of children with IDs through journaling. Participants of the study from the three (3) focus group discussions indicated that parents worked in partnership with them through journaling. Teachers of learners with IDs reported that some parents kept a record of their children's work progress in an exercise book. The exercise book indicated daily activities; parents indicated areas of difficulty and progress made by their children as noted in the example statements below:

Parents play a pivotal role because sometimes they become fully involved in the learning of their child. At times you find that I give them some work to do at home and I also write a note. I put the notebook in the child's school bag and address it to the parent to ensure that he/she does look at the child's work and respond in return (Participant 4, school B, female, 32 years old, 4 years teaching experience). There are parents who come and give us all the information about the child with intellectual disabilities. For an example that the child is slow in taking instructions. This parent is supportive; we occasionally talk or write on a note book to give responses to each other about the child... (Participant 3, school A, FGD A, female, 36 years old, rural school, 8 years teaching experience).

Some of the parents do cooperate and sometimes they take our cell phone numbers to call and give us periodic feedback about the child with intellectual disabilities. They also respond in writing to keep track of the progress of the child and try their best to assist the child. I also write to advise the parents to try extra classes... (Participant 5, school B, FGD B, male, 31 years old, urban school, 4 years teaching experience).



Half of the participants 6 out of 12 (50%) from in-depth interviews indicated that parents of learners with IDs worked collaboratively with them to support their children with school work by constantly providing feedback in a notebook. Below are illustrative statements from participants:

We work well together by asking the information that I need about the child and I update the parent about the performance of the learner using a notebook. The parent also reports changes that he/she has observed in the learner as a result of their experiences, may be, at home and keep record of their work (Participant 1, school A, female, 28 years old, rural school, 4 years teaching experience).

"Parents play a pivotal role because sometimes the parent becomes fully involved in the learning of the child. I give the learner work to do for more practice, request the parents at home to assist the learner in doing the work and they do. They even comment on the work done in the notebook (Participant 4, school B, female, 32 years old, urban school, 4 years teaching experience).

...In other instances we use an exercise book which is for home work; the teacher writes to the parent on what needs to be done, the parent signs that the learner has brought homework and respond accordingly with comments or concerns (Participant 2, school C, male, 27 years old, semi-urban school, 3 years teaching experience).

Personal skills development

A majority of the teacher participants from in-depth interviews participants, 7 out of 12 (58%) reported that parents of learners with IDs assisted their children in personal skills development such as keeping their bodies clean, dressing them up properly and being independent individuals. The following are verbatim quotations from participants:

Parents support their children by making follow up on their daily routine as they go to school. They make sure that the child is taken care of at home like their social welfare, giving them time to play, help them dress up properly and look good when they come to school (Participant 1, school A, female, 28 years old, rural school, 4 years teaching experience). Parents support their children by making follow up on their daily routine as they go and come back from school. They give them something to do on their own at home and guide them throughout the task to show that they care.

(Participant 2, school B, female, 43 years old, urban school, 16 years teaching experience).

...Sometimes parents also help their children with intellectual disabilities to wake up on time, others have difficulties in dressing themselves up so they help them in dressing up appropriately (Participant 3, school C, male, 49 years old, semi-urban school, 25 years teaching experience).



Additionally, participants from all 3 focus group discussions reported points of agreement on the important role played by parents in personal skills development to assist learners with IDs maintain physical and emotional health. The following are illustrative statements from participants:

The parents who do come to school you find that the parent is a warder or is working at Manzini and the child stays here at home with grandmother but they take care of them. Those are the parents who come to show human dignity, respect and care for their children (Participant 3, school A, FGD A, female, 27 years old, rural school, 3 years teaching experience).

...some parents emotionally support the child when she/he approaches me first to report about the progress made by the child. Talking about the work of the learner in his/her presence has helped us a lot because he/she becomes responsible and the child to develop self-control since he/she gets assistance from both sides.

(Participant 1, school B, FGD B, female, 36 years old, urban school, 6 years teaching experience).

Parents at home do teach the learners how to live in a safe and socially responsible manner even at school. Others even teach them how to show respect for others (Participant 2, school C, FGD C, male, 44 years old, semi-urban school, 20 years teaching experience).

Creation of time for school work

Participants' experiences in relation to opportunities given to the learners to do school work at home are presented in this section. Participants from all the focus group discussions were in agreement that some parents were supportive by giving their children more time to do school work at home as noted in the following direct quotations:

...The parents also give themselves time and come to the school, usually at the beginning of the year to give us information about the problems we might face when teaching that particular child (Participant 3, school A, FGD A, female, 36 years old, rural school, 8 years teaching experience).

Some parents are cooperative and they assist us by creating time for the children to do school work at home because they are aware that they have intellectual disabilities. It is so difficult to change that child but sometimes they improve if they are given enough time for practice at home (Participant 7, school B, FGD B, female, 43 years old, urban school, 16 years teaching experience).

We are able to work together with the child because we work in collaboration with their parents. When they reach home, their parents are able to create time to look at the work done at school and continue from where the teacher left... (Participant 3, school C, FGD C, male, 29 years old, semi-urban school, 4 years teaching experience).

Additionally, responses from in-depth interviews indicated that a significant number of participants; 8 out of 12 (67%) acknowledged that parents do create time for school work at home. Teacher participants acknowledged that some parents worked in collaboration with them by maximising time for school work and assisting the learners to do their homework or repeat what was done in class as exemplified below:

If the parent has accepted that the child has an intellectual disability, he/she is able to create time to take care of the child's school work. They make follow up and find ways of getting assistance for the learner from me as a teacher as well as giving the child enough time for school work at home. In most cases some do ask for the teacher's advice on what can be done at home, like reducing time for watching TV, so that time for doing school work is increased... (Participant 4, school A, male, 29 years old, rural school, 3 years teaching experience).

Parents do assist the learners with their school work by creating time for them to do homework and study. Some reduce the time for watching television in the evening. Others do appreciate that their children do not move at the same pace with the others; so, helping and giving them time for repetition of what have been done at school helps them to improve... (Participant 2, school B, female, 43 years old, urban school, 16 years teaching experience).

When they are at home those parents who are educated, take time to check the learners work and ask them questions about the day's work. These parents also create time to their children to do school work or homework. If there is something they do not understand about the performance of the child, that particular parent also find time to come to school and enquire from the teacher concerned through the head teacher about the child's performance (Participant 4, school C, male, 44 years old, semi-urban school, 20 years teaching experience).

Interestingly, some participants from in-depth interviews indicated challenges they faced in working with parents of learners with IDs who still need to be motivated on collaborative work and are non-cooperative. For example, one participant reported:

Others do not have time for their children because if you ask the parents to come to school in most cases they do not come; at home there is no time for books but for TV. Some children have got a responsibility of looking after cattle like on Monday and Tuesday, they always come late to school from the dipping tank. In this case when you ask the parent to assist with school work they do not, they blame the children instead of supporting them. (Participant 1, school A, female, 28 years old, rural school, 4 years teaching experience).



Provision of basic needs

Teachers' responses regarding parents who work with them collaboratively through the provision of basic needs for their children with IDs were considered. In-depth interview participants, 7 out of 12 (58%) reported that parents of children with IDs played a vital role in supporting their children with basic needs. Below are direct quotations from participants:

...Other parents, like the grand parents may not be aware of all things but they know what is major, like providing school uniform, food to the child before going

to school and a dish to use at school during break time. If the child does not have a school jersey, they give him/her something warm to put on when it is cold (Participant 1, school A, female, 28 years old, rural school, 4 years teaching experience).

Parents are very important because they provide some of the resources that we need to help the learners learn better, for an example, books and school uniforms, because they have to come to school in their uniforms like the other children so that they feel part of the school. They also provide basic needs like food because the learners cannot learn without food (Participant 3, school B, female, 38 years old, urban school, 8 years teaching experience).

... Parents do take care of other basic needs like providing food other than that of doing their school work. I have also observed that they treat them like the other children; they do buy uniforms for them and all the other materials that could be needed at school (Participant 3, school C, male, 49 years old, semi-urban school, 25 years teaching experience).

In as much as participants reported that parents were collaborative; half of the participants (n=12) from focus group discussions reported a consensus that some parents of children with IDs were unable to fully provide basic needs for their children. Participants' responses showed that there were parents who do not work in collaboration with teachers of learners with IDs as exemplified below:

In some other cases parents in this area do not cooperate with us. Most of the children here stay with their grandmothers who are not so much concerned about wearing a school uniform and proper nutrition. The parents just send their children to school and say its free education as if government will provide everything for the learner. They even ask the learners to bring them food from school. They do not work with us in supporting the learner to overcome his/her challenges (Participant 1, school A, FGD A, female, 28 years old, rural school, 4 years teaching experience).



Honestly, I do have learners with intellectual disabilities but most of their parents do not accept it and do not care about their basic needs. We argue a lot with some of the parents, about 80% of these parents do not understand their children's disability and it becomes difficult for them to appropriately provide for their basic education needs like school uniform, shoes and learning resources (Participant 2, school B, FGD B, female, 43 years old, urban school, 16 years teaching experience). Most of the parents in this area do not cooperate with us; maybe it is because the school is in a rural area, I don't know. Some of the learners come to school without school uniforms and others without proper clothes even if it is cold. Of course, other children come on empty stomach and that becomes a challenge to the teacher (Participant 1, school C, FGD C, male, 41 years old, semi-urban school, 16 years teaching experience).

Study participants reported the value of the use of journaling by parents in supporting their children with IDs. They indicated that constant teacher-parent collaboration enabled both the teacher and the parent to get an immediate feedback on the learner's work. This finding was consistent with previous studies from other countries (Collier, Keefe & Hirrel, 2015; Cuskelly, 2020; Hallahan, Pullen, Kauffman & Badar, 2020). For instance, a study carried out in the United States of America by Collier, Keefe and Hirrel (2015) concluded that parents want their voices to be heard in the process of making educational decisions related to their children with special education needs. Drame and Kamphoff (2014) in Dakar; Senegal indicated the importance of family support and interactions for the development of learners with intellectual disabilities. There is need to support teachers of learners with IDs by parents through continuously providing feedback to ensure that the learner receives appropriate assistance both in school and at home as mirrored by previous studies (Afolabi, 2014; Okyere, Aldersey, Lysaght, & Sulaiman, 2019).

Although participants reported collaboration with parents; some expressed their concern about parents of children with IDs who still need to be empowered on collaborative strategies. Participants' responses indicated that some parents were in denial of the disability of their children and others lacked knowledge on how to assist their children who are living with IDs. This becomes a challenge for teachers of learners with IDs because some of the learners have limitations in adaptive functioning skills such as dressing up which requires a high level of parenting skills. It is noteworthy that parents of children with IDs experience stress, which negatively impact on their relationship and ability to care for their children (Ntinda, Thwala & Dlamini, 2016; Peer & Hillman, 2014). It is also significant for parents to clearly understand the type of disability that their children have and seek appropriate advice (Adams, Harris, & Jones, 2016; Thwala, 2018). Therefore, there is need to empower parents of children with IDs skills on how to handle intellectual disabilities to create awareness on how to take care of their children and enable them to assist the teachers in primary schools. Moreso, the aspect of the more knowledgeable other of the Social Constructivist Learning Theory which views the parent or teacher as the more knowledgeable other, seems to confirm the finding of the current study. Both the teacher and the parent of a child with IDs are the enlightened individuals who play a significant role in the holistic development of these children.

It was evident from the study that teachers of learners with IDs suggest that the learners need to be given more time because they have certain limitations both in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour. Participants reported that some parents created extra time for learners with IDs at home to reinforce the work that was done at school. Martinez, Conroy and Cerreto (2012) in Boston, USA concurred with the above finding that there is a relationship between parental involvement in school work and outcomes for learners with IDs (Ntinda, Thwala, & Tfusi, 2019; Okyere, Aldersey, & Lysaght, 2019). This suggests that when the teachers of learners with IDs get support from parents; learning becomes easier for the learners. This finding seemed to affirm the construct from the Social Constructivist Learning Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) that the child's mind is inherently social in nature and the society (parents or teachers) becomes an immediate environment for the promotion of social interaction for learners with intellectual disabilities. On the contrary, the findings of a study conducted by Okeke and Mazibuko (2014) in Eswatini indicated that a majority of parents of children with learning disabilities did not take an active role in the education of their children as expected. Seemingly there is a need for the education system in Eswatini to have structures in place that will assist teachers of learners with IDs. This can be done by providing learning and developmental support for the learners in and out of school to maximise time spent on school work and their overall quality of life as valued members of the society.

To have basic needs is a human right; teachers handling learners with IDs reported that they worked collaboratively with parents in the provision of basic needs for their children such as food, shelter and school uniforms. Participants reported that they felt comfortable to teach learners with IDs who were treated in the same way as their typically developing peers who are without disabilities. Apparently, there were more rewarding aspects for providing basic care for learners with IDs by their parents which helped them to cope with their daily needs as mirrored by a study by Masulani-Mwale, et al., (2016). This finding further confirms that the provision of basic needs enabled teachers of learners with IDs to successfully teach the learners as this enhanced their self-esteem and helped them to actively participate in their own learning.

Limitations

The study used self-reports and thus social desirability might have affected the dependability of the findings, thus compromising the findings. Teachers who participated in the study were selected from schools in the Lubombo region yet there are teachers handling learners with IDs in the other three regions of Eswatini. Future studies should explore experiences of teachers handling learners with IDs in both primary and secondary mainstream schools in other regions of the kingdom.

CONCLUSION

The study explored the experiences of teachers of learners with ID in collaborating with parents of these children in mainstream primary schools in Siteki, Eswatini. Evidence from the study indicated that teachers of learners with IDs and parents used collaborative strategies such as: journaling, personal skills development, creation of time for school work and provision of basic needs. However, teachers reported a need for parents to be empowered with skills on how to effectively support the overall development of their

children with IDs. This study suggests a need for appropriate support groups in the communities to provide awareness and basic special education needs and counselling skills to parents of children with IDs. There may be need for the Ministry of Education and Training to consider the provision of in-service training in special education needs for teachers to better prepare them to educate and support all learners including those with learning disabilities such as IDs.

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INVESTIGATING LEARNERS' CONCEPTUAL AND PROCEDURAL UNDERSTANDING OF FRACTIONS IN GRADE 6 MATHEMATICS CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated Grade 6 learners' conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions in primary school Mathematics. The objective of the study was to investigate the challenges experienced by primary school learners in dealing with fractions. The study was guided by quantitative methodology, framed from the positivist paradigm using an explorative case study design. One primary school was randomly selected in the Manzini region of Eswatini. The randomisation process came up with a peri-urban school which was single streamed with 48 learners. A written diagnostic test was administered to generate data where the findings were presented using descriptive analysis techniques. The data was analysed using the concept evaluation scheme that classified learners' responses. Findings revealed that a few learners had limited mathematical understanding of concepts related to fractions, where learners carried out mathematical procedures without conceptual understanding. Learners were found to be committing errors due to computational weaknesses and incomplete mastery of the number system. Findings further reveal that learners were committing conceptual and procedural errors which posed specific misconceptions and even limited understanding in application of operations. In problem solving which is a higher application of fractions, learners showed no conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions. The study recommends that teachers develop practices and lessons that begin by exposing learners' perspectives about fractions and consistently exploring fractions such as one-half, one-fourth and one-tenth. Teachers should increase conceptual development of fraction units, fraction relationships and fraction operations. Finally, teachers should assist learners to make real-life connections with fractions so that the learners can conceptualize fractional word problems.

KEYWORDS: fractions, conceptual understanding and procedural understanding

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INTRODUCTION

A fraction is a numerical quantity that is part of a whole. It represents a part of a whole or, more generally, any number of equal parts (Hurrell & Day, 2014). Page (2018) points out that, a fraction is a number between zero and one and is expressed as one number over another; the number at the bottom being a denominator and the number on top being a numerator. In Mathematics, fractions are involved in probabilistic, proportional and algebraic reasoning (Gabriel, 2013). Gabriel (2013) further states that fractions are also part of human everyday life, fractions have been used for centuries and are manipulated in a variety of everyday life situations such as, estimation, following a recipe, reading a map and many more applications.

Despite the fact that fractions apply to everyday life situations, learners still have difficulty in understanding fractions (Gabriel, 2013). According to Lamon (2012), the various fraction operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, comparing and simplifying can be difficult for most learners. Lamon (2012) further explains that the lack of conceptual understanding is one of the many reasons learners face challenges when solving problems in fractions. It is further explained that learners tend to memorize the procedures involved in fraction operations without conceptual understanding. Consequently, they fail to connect with anything about the operations, but instead, they just follow algorithm.

Background of the study

Fractions are important in learning Mathematics and are building blocks for other Mathematics skills (Hannich, 2009). Limited understanding of fractions, interferes with learner's ability to learn algebra. Working with fractions introduces some of the essentials of the number theory, such as the lowest common denominator, greatest common factor and prime factorization. Siegler (2010) further acknowledge that most learners are challenged by fraction arithmetic, where the four Mathematics operations present difficulty and learners often confuse the operations. The section discusses what is expected from primary learners concerning fractions, by exploring the Eswatini Primary Certificate Structural Model, Eswatini Primary Certificate Mathematics Syllabus and the curriculum content of fractions. In the kingdom of Eswatini, the Eswatini Primary Certificate (EPC) syllabus is designed as a seven-year course for examination in Grade 7, where the learners sit for two Mathematics papers; Paper 1, which is a compulsory short-answer paper and Paper 2, which is a compulsory structured or long answer paper. The examination is a locally based assessment administered by the Examinations Council of Eswatini (ECESWA) through schools. ECESWA is a quasi-government organization with the mandate to administer examinations and issue certificates to primary, junior secondary and senior secondary school graduates in Eswatini. They also analyse data, produce and present reports and process results. It was established through the Education Act No. 9 of 1981 and its mission is to provide efficient examination management and administration services (The Government of Eswatini, 2018). The ECESWA examiners' reports over the years in Mathematics have reported that most learners face challenges in conceptual understanding, interpreting and solving problems in the topic; fractions (ECESWA, 2019).

The syllabus assumes that learners have acquired knowledge, understanding and skills in their everyday life activities at home and in the community. The curriculum content of the syllabus is arranged into topics



covering four areas: Number & Measurement; Shape, Position and Space; Information Handling and Problem Solving but it is treated throughout in a holistic approach. It is intended to promote imaginative and innovative styles of teaching and learning so that the course is enjoyable to all learners, and is designed to assess what learners know, understand and can do. As such, it forms the basis for the development of fundamental tools for learners to progress to higher-level courses of mathematical studies. The syllabus also acts as an instrument that directs instruction and assessment in the classroom, as well as guide examinations. It is structured such that it aligns with the Junior Certificate (JC) (ECESWA, 2018). The curriculum content of the syllabus as arranged by ECESWA (2018) is divided into topics covering four areas where the concepts of fractions are taught: Number and Measurement; Shape, Position and Space; Information Handling and Problem Solving.

(1) Number and Measurement

Number is the foundation of Mathematics. Number enables learners to interpret and represent the world in which they live in. In this topic, learners should develop understanding of concept of number and competencies in using mental and written strategies for solving problems. Learning to recognise, analyse, describe and represent patterns and number relationships connects Mathematics to the world and helps the learner to appreciate fully the value of such pleasures as art, science and other disciplines. Being able to see and use patterns has been identified as a fundamental skill needed for developing mathematical understanding. Algebra serves as a bridge between arithmetic and more broadly generalise mathematical situations. These generalisations can be expressed in words, tables and charts. In later years, learners use the notation of formulas and graphs to represent these generalisations. Hands-on, interactive investigations, using non-standard and standard units, help learners develop an understanding of the many measurable attributes of physical objects. Measurement including length, time, temperature, capacity, weight, mass area, volume, and angle will benefit from this approach. This approach helps build an accessible measurement vocabulary and a meaningful comprehension of what it means to measure.

(2) Information handling

Numeracy and literacy learning are linked by Statistics and Probability. Numbers, logical reasoning and texts interweave to describe phenomena visually, numerically and verbally in what is termed data. Reading and recording data is very important in our daily lives. We learn about the power of evidence as we develop the skills to make statements and evaluate arguments based on data. We learn the power of the question and the framer of the question when we collect and represent data, and we learn that sometimes true or false, pictures are created when we express data into statistics. Data is a powerful descriptive tool.

(3) Shape, Position, and Space

Geometry helps learners represent in an orderly fashion what they see in the world.

In Geometry, learners learn about the features, properties and representation of two-dimensional shapes and three-dimensional objects.



(4) Problem Solving

Word problems which reflect the social life and related to the environment of the child are of particular importance. It is the primary goal of all Mathematics instruction and an integral part of all mathematical activity. In problem solving, learners learn to solve routine and non-routine problems using problem solving steps. Problem solving is not a distinct topic but a process that should permeate the entire program and provide the context in which concepts and skills can be learned (ECESWA, 2018).

Generally, learning of fraction involves manipulation of the fraction operations (Siegler, 2010). According to the site Homeschoolmath.net (2015), the general content to be covered in topic fractions which are relevant at primary level worldwide are presented in the Table 1 below; these are the different operations learners need to understand when dealing with fractions. At grade 6 level, the curriculum content in fractions is presented in Table 1 below as a level of focus in this study:

Table 1: Curriculum content of fractions

Topic	Objectives	Content
Fractions	1. Change common fractions to decimal fractions	1. Common fractions to decimal fractions
	1. Order common and decimal fractions by size.	2. Ordering common and decimal fractions
	2. a) round to the nearest whole number	3. a) round off the nearest whole number
	b) round off decimal fractions to the nearest tenths and hundredths	b) found off decimal fractions
	3. add and subtract common fractions with different denominators using LCM	4. Add and subtract common fraction
	4. multiplying a unit fraction	5. Multiplying a unit fraction by a whole number
	5. Multiplying a common fraction by a whole number.	6. Multiplying a common fraction by a whole number.
	6. Add and subtract mixed numbers.	7. Addition and subtraction of mixed numbers.
	7. Express common fractions with denominators that are factors of 100 as percentages.	8. Changing common fractions to percentage.
	8. Change mixed numbers to improper/top-heavy fraction or vice versa.	9. Changing mixed numbers to top-heavy fractions.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section presents a systematic review of related studies about conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions, misconceptions and errors in fractions, sources of misconceptions and errors in the topic of fractions. The reviewed literature has been sourced from research reports; commentary notes on research work on the teaching and learning of fractions. Learning fractions requires both conceptual and procedural understanding (Arslan, 2010). Conceptual understanding is knowing more than isolated facts and methods.

According to Arslan (2010), conceptual learning involves understanding and interpreting concepts and the relations between concepts. Clarke, Roche and Mitchell (2008) states that, understanding fractions means understanding all the possible concepts that fractions can present. Procedural understanding, on the other hand, is learning that involves only memorizing algorithm (Arslan, 2010).

Clarke, Roche and Mitchell (2008) argue that, there is a gap between conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions among learners. This is evident when the learners fail to recognize different representations of fractions and to use the correct algorithm. Siegler (2010) states that, learners need to have a basic conceptual understanding of fractions before the procedural understanding. From this basic understanding, learners may then begin the arithmetic part of the fractions; understanding the underlying concepts (Sarangarm, 2018). When learners come to school, they already have some basic understanding of fractions; however, most learners carry misconceptions that lead to errors in computing fractions (Siegler, 2010). A misconception is a view or opinion that is incorrect because it is based on faulty thinking or understanding. Errors, on the other hand, are mistakes made by learners as a result of carelessness, misinterpretation of symbols and texts, lack of relevant experience or knowledge related to a mathematical topic, learning objective or concept, lack of awareness or inability to check the answer given (Hansen, 2006).

Battista (2001) states that, the way in which learners construct knowledge is dependent on the cognitive structures' learners have previously developed. This means that there are conceptions and preconceptions that learners of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the classroom, and these preconceptions may be misconceptions. The preconceived knowledge that learners bring to class may be faulty and not consistent with regular fractional concepts before the learning process takes place in the classroom. Another source of misconception comes from the teacher. According to Siegler (2010), teachers' understanding of fractions can be relatively shallow, as a result, failing to give legitimate explanations of how procedures work or use wrong examples to explain a concept. This is crucial because it can be transferred to the learner. Language can also be a source of misconception.

According to Kaur (2004), the language used to describe fractions can be problematic for some learners. For example, Muira (2001) explains that, a fraction expressed as three over four maybe confusing on what actions to take in terms of the fact that fractions have three distinct meanings. In addition, misconceptions in fractions also arise from the fact that fractions are not natural numbers yet primary school learners spend most of their time learning natural numbers. This is crucial because by the time they are taught fractions, they would have developed schema about how natural numbers work, which is contrary to how fractions work. Some learners will then try to fit what they learn in fractions to their existing knowledge on natural numbers by assuming that the numbers all work the same way; which is simply not the case (Lamon, 2012).

Conceptual framework.

The study is guided by the concept-evaluation scheme of Muchtar (2012). Muchtar (2012) conceptual framework is an evaluative tool that gives an insight and understanding into the relationship that exist between the curriculum and society. The concept-evaluation scheme developed by Muchtar (2012) was adopted and adapted to analyse the data in this study. This tool ranks concepts to determine their relative

merits. Contextualised to the study, concept-evaluation technique is useful to evaluate learners' understanding of fraction concepts. Muchtar (2012) classifies learners' responses to a test into seven distinct categories. These categories are presented in the Table 2 below:

Table 2: The seven analysis categories

Degree of understanding		Criteria for scoring
Mathematically Correct (MC)	Correct	These are Mathematically complete responses and correct explanations. In relation to this study, it was a learner who was able to follow algorithm by showing all relevant methods with correct answer and reason with understanding if necessary.
Partial Correct (PC)		Mathematically correct responses but incomplete explanations. These were learners who were writing answers only without the working or give incomplete explanations.
Specific Misconception (SM)	Misconception	Completely Mathematically unacceptable responses or explanations.
Conceptual Error (CE)		These were learners who applied wrong concepts to questions.
Procedural Error (PE)		These were learners who applied the correct concepts but committed computational errors and made mistakes.
No Understanding (NU)		Learners who made irrelevant or unclear responses.
No Response (NR)		These were learners who did not attempt the questions

Key: Mathematically Correct (MC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU), No Response (NR): adapted from Muchtar (2012) classification.

Statement of the problem

Fractions are one of the most important topics learners need to understand in order to be successful in most branches of Mathematics such as algebra, yet it is also an area in which most learners find difficult. According to ECESWA (2018) report, in the Eswatini Primary Certificate on Mathematics, most learners were challenged by questions that contained fractions. Examiners' report - Mathematics Paper 2 (2018): it was reported that many pupils were challenged by question 2 which required the learners to use the number line to add and subtract common fractions with the same denominator, despite the example that was given to them. It is reported that when computing the sum of $\frac{2}{5} + \frac{4}{5}$, some pupils added both the numerator and the denominator, to get $\frac{6}{10}$ as their answer. In another addition problem, learners were given a blank number line and they were expected to label before showing $\frac{5}{7} - \frac{3}{7}$. It is further reported that few candidates answered that question correctly. A majority of learners failed to label correctly the number line using sevenths and also failed to find the difference of $\frac{5}{7} - \frac{3}{7}$. Furthermore, candidates were also challenged by questions on fractions contained in the short-answer paper: For example, questions 5 and 9 in Section A and question 16 (c).

Section B were questions on fractions which required candidates to perform certain operations. In question 5, candidates were asked to write $\frac{4}{20}$ in its simplest form, while question 9, required candidates to add $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$. In question 16 (c), they were expected to demonstrate their knowledge of dividing a whole number



by a unit fraction. These questions proved challenging to a majority of the candidates. ECESWA (2017) report, stated that candidates could not even attempt word problems on fractions in Paper 2 and those who attempted could not come with appropriate method of calculating and their answers were not accurate. General comments included: confusing dividing a whole number by a unit fraction with multiplying a whole number by a unit fraction, example, $24 \div \frac{1}{3}$ to $24 \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{24}{3}$ and expected answer was 8. These examples proved that candidates were challenged by the topic of fractions in Mathematics. On the basis of the examiner's narrative report of 2018 and other preceding reports over the years demonstrate learners' difficulties in handling the topic of fractions. This study therefore seeks to investigate learners' conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions.

The highlighted challenges show that understanding fractions is a challenging area of Mathematics for learners. This is crucial because the challenges and misunderstandings learners face in understanding fractions persist into adult life and pose problems in such wide-range of fields such as medicine and health care, construction and computer programming. The fields of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) demand considerable base in fraction knowledge; consequently, a shaky ground in fractions can prevent an individual from pursuing advanced Mathematics and limit learners from several career opportunities later in their life (Outhred & Micheltmore, 2006).

Objectives and Research questions

The objective of the study was to investigate learners' conceptual and procedural understanding of fractions in primary school Mathematics curriculum. The objective of the study was to:

- investigate the challenges experienced by primary school learners at grade 6 level on the topic of fractions.

The study was designed to answer the following research question:

- What are the challenges experienced by primary school learners at grade 6 level on the topic of fractions?

METHODOLOGY

Research paradigm

A research paradigm is a belief system (or theory) that guides researchers in their endeavour to interpret the world around, or more formally establish a set of practices (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2009, Teddlie & tashakkori, 2013). In this research study a positivist paradigm was adopted as an investigative approach to understand learners' conceptual and procedural constructs in learning of fractions in Mathematics curriculum.

Research approach

This study used a quantitative research approach. Creswell (2013) viewed quantitative research approach as a plan and procedure that consists of the steps of broad assumptions to detailed method of data collection, analysis and interpretation. It is based on the nature of the research problem being addressed (Chetty, 2016).

The study adopted the qualitative research approach since it is an inquiry-based approach useful for exploring and understanding a central phenomenon (Creswell, 2008).

Research design

Betram and Christiansen, (2014), Creswell and Plano, (2007), Rule and John, (2011) viewed in this particular research study, a case study design as being more adaptable and often used by researchers in the interpretive paradigm. A case study approach was more relevant in carrying out this research because of the following justifications: case studies provide a rich and vivid description of events; focuses on particular individual actors or / and their ways of executing tasks and focuses upon particular events within the case (Creswell, 2005). The study employed a case study design since it used a single class of grade 6 learners from the Manzini region of Eswatini.

Population

There are 600 primary schools at Eswatini, constituting government, mission, and private schools. These schools are spread in the four regions and are located in urban, semi-urban and rural areas. The overall enrolment of grade 6 is estimated to be 36000 learners.

Sampling

According to Strydom (2013), sampling process is identifying a small portion of the total set of participants. Sampling of participants centres on the notion and principle of representativeness of the population which means that the characteristics of the participants ought to mirror those of the whole population as proposed by the research topic. This study used randomised sampling technique in selecting the school to participate in the study. One class of grade 6 Mathematics learners in the semi-urban location in the Manzini region was sampled. The school was found to have a single stream with 48 learners. All the 48 learners participated in data collection.

Instrumentation

In this study, a written diagnostic test was used as an instrument for data collection. The test consisted of questions that were designed using the following grade 6 materials: Mathematics pupils' book, past tests, national external examinations papers (2018), and internet materials on the topic fractions. The questions focused on the subtopics that are covered in the fraction topics in the Mathematics curriculum. The instrument that was used to test learners on the concepts and operations of fractions included the concepts of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Applying fractions through problem solving, as well as the concept of comparing relative size of fractions, was also tested.

In ensuring the content validity, the test was given to experts: the ECESWA Mathematics subject leader and the researcher's colleagues who are majoring in Mathematics. Reliability of the test was calculated through a split-half procedure to acquire the internal consistency. Reliability is the extent to which the test measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials (Oluwatayo, 2012). The Cronbach Alpha was used to calculate internal consistency of the test which was 0.79 while piloting the test.



Data analysis methods

The study adopted quantitative data analysis tools with particular reference to descriptive statistics. The test was graded by the researcher quantitatively guided by Muchtar's (2012) evaluative framework. The scoring rubric provided the marks allocations and the categorisation of all the learners' responses. The data was categorized and tabulated into tables for analysis using the conceptual framework. Grouping the learners' responses into categories helped in identifying learner's competency-based skills, learners' process skills and competences in handling Mathematical knowledge and understanding in the topic fractions. Descriptive analysis was used to analyse the data to understand the types of errors and misconceptions held by the learners, their level of understanding; procedurally and conceptually, their strengths and weaknesses.

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Learners' understanding of the concepts were analysed using the concept evaluation scheme, as a method of data analysis, after the tests were marked. Learners' responses were classified into seven different categories, that is, Mathematically Correct (MC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR). Analysis was done for each question based on the fraction concepts that were tested and were also graded and classified based on the seven categories of the study.

Data presentation

The data presented consists of results from the test administered in the school. The descriptive analysis technique was adopted for presenting the data. According to Creswell (2008), this technique is appropriate since it describes the present condition and the nature of a condition as it takes place during the time of the study. The questions in the test were scored, the learners' performance systematically distributed according to the adopted analysis framework. The presentation of data have been tabulated using the structure of the diagnostic test which had four (4) questions.

Table 3: Learners understanding, shading and comparing sizes of fractions

Q.1	CONCEPTS	MC	PC	SM	CE	PE	NU	NR
A.	Meaning of a fraction	22	18	1	0	0	6	1
		46%	38%	2%	0%	0%	13%	2%
B. a)	Shading a given fraction	47	0	0	0	0	1	0
		98%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%
		19	0	0	0	0	29	0
		40%	0%	0%	0%	0%	60%	0%
C. a)	Comparing fraction size	14	0	0	0	0	29	5
		29%	0%	0%	0%	0%	60%	10%
		21	0	0	0	0	22	5
		44%	0%	0%	0%	0%	46%	10%

Key: Mathematically Correct (MC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR)



Question 1(A), required the learners to reflect their conceptual understanding of the definition of fractions. The results show that 22 (46%) of the learners defined a fraction in terms of the part-whole concept. According to Cramer, Monson, Whitney, Leavitt and Weberg (2010), using the part-whole construct is an effective starting point for building meaning of fractions. While 18(38%) gave the similar response which was categorized as being partially correct (PC). About 1(2%) of the learners gave definitions that conveyed specific misconceptions (SM). For example, defining a fraction as half of something, as a number that is changed to a decimal number as well as defining a fraction as an improper number. The learners were giving definitions that were not connected to fraction concepts and some of these definitions had no meaning at all. Furthermore analysis, 6(13%) and 1(2%) of these learners were categorised as (NU) and (NR) respectively who did not attempt the question.

Question 1, (B) was divided into two parts, (a) and (b). Both questions required the learners to shade a given fraction in the given shapes. The first shape was a square divided into four parts, and the learners were asked to shade $\frac{3}{4}$. Only 1(2%) learner was unable to correctly shade the given fraction which showed no understanding (NU), while 47(98%) got it correct. Part (b) required learners to shade $\frac{1}{2}$ in a hexagon divided into six parts. An example below demonstrates the common response, see figure 1 below.

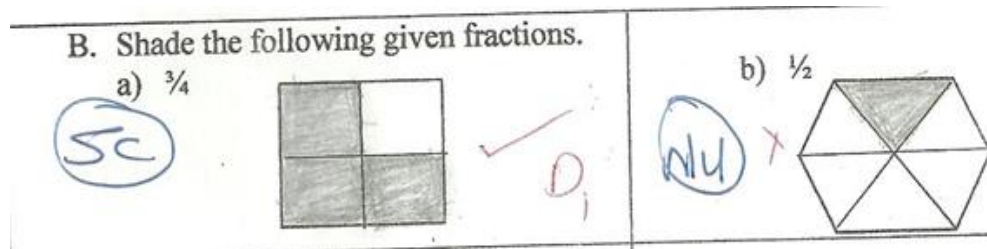


Figure 1: A sample of a response from a learner showing no understanding.

This shows that these learners have no concrete understanding of the part-whole concept, that is, they do not have meaning to the 'number of parts taken out of a whole concept,' and also do not understand what a denominator or numerator stand for. Also, this showed that the learners had no understanding of showing equal-sized parts especially in a shape such as the hexagon which was divided into six equal parts. Proportional representation 29(60%) and 5(10%) of the learners were categorized under (NU) and (NR) respectively in this question, and most of them shaded the numerator only. The other learners 14(29%) shaded correctly.

Question 1, (C) tested the learners' ability to compare fractions in terms of their sizes. Part (a) required learners to write down the larger fraction between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$. This question was challenging to most learners. Proportionally, there were 29(60%) and 5(10%) who were categorised as (NU) and (NR). This is a result of pupils choosing $\frac{1}{3}$ instead of $\frac{1}{2}$. This error is a result of pupils choosing the fraction with a larger denominator. Cramer and Whitney (2010) explain that, most learners have a misconception of thinking that a fraction such as $\frac{1}{5}$, as example, is smaller than a fraction of $\frac{1}{10}$ because 5 is less than 10. Part (b), learners were to write down the larger fraction between $\frac{2}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$. Again learners presented no understanding to this question.



Proportionally, 22(46%) were categorized under NU while 5(10%) were categorised as NR and the rest of the learners responded correctly 21(44%).

Table 4: Learners competencies, process skills and handling of operations in fractions

Q.2	CONCEPTS	MC	PC	SM	CE	PE	NU	NR
A. a)	Adding fractions - same and those	7 15%	2 4%	11 24%	20 43%	0 0%	6 13%	0 0%
b)	different denominators.	2 4%	1 2%	10 22%	25 54%	1 2%	7 15%	0 0%
B. a)	Subtracting fractions - same and different	12 26%	1 2%	10 22%	13 28%	1 2%	9 20%	0 0%
b)	denominators.	5 11%	1 2%	10 22%	18 39%	0 0%	12 26%	0 0%
C.	Concepts of adding and subtracting fractions.	2 4%	3 7%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	39 85%	2 4%

Key: Mathematically Correct (MC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR)

This question generally required learners to apply their acquired skills of addition and subtraction concepts to fractions. Analysis of this question distributed learners' responses to the other categories.

Question 2, (A) was divided into two parts. Part (a), where learners were required to add fractions that had the same denominator. There were 7(15%) of these learners who were conceptually correct, 2(4%) were partially correct since they gave the answer only, without the working, 11(22%) of the learners. Furthermore 11(24%) were categorized under SM. These learners treated fractions as whole numbers and were working on the fraction sum using the whole number concept. For example some pupils answered part (a) as $\frac{3}{6} + \frac{2}{6} = \frac{5}{12}$. According to McNamara and Shaughnessy (2010), learners tend to overgeneralize their whole-number knowledge and transfer wrongly which is a misconception. Also, 20(43%) of these learners displayed conceptual errors, while 6(13%) showed no understanding. The figure 2 below demonstrates the specific misconceptions the learners possessed, where learners overgeneralizes the whole number concept such that it overlaps to the fraction concept.



Question 2: Addition & subtraction of fraction with the same and those with different denominators. (SM)	
<p>A. Add the following:</p> <p>a) $\frac{3}{6} + \frac{2}{6} =$</p> $\begin{array}{r} \frac{3}{6} \\ + \frac{2}{6} \\ \hline \frac{5}{12} \end{array} \quad \times$	<p>b) $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{5} =$</p> $\begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{4} \\ + \frac{2}{5} \\ \hline \frac{3}{9} \end{array} \quad \times$
<p>B. Subtract the following:</p> <p>a) $\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{4} =$</p> $\begin{array}{r} \frac{3}{4} \\ - \frac{1}{4} \\ \hline \frac{2}{0} \end{array} \quad \times$	<p>b) $\frac{4}{5} - \frac{2}{3} =$</p> $\begin{array}{r} \frac{4}{5} \\ - \frac{2}{3} \\ \hline \frac{6}{2} \end{array} \quad \times$

Figure 2: A sample of working from a learner showing specific misconceptions.

In part (b), learners were required to add fractions that have different denominators, that is, $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{5}$. Some learners displayed conceptual errors because they did not show an understanding of the concept of adding common fractions with different denominators. They failed to use the LCM method nor the equivalence approach. Proportional distribution was 5(11%) of MC, 1(2%) of PC, 10(22%) of SM, 18(39%) of CE, and 12(26%). This particular question presented the wider spectrum of learners' deficiencies in the conceptualisation of fractions.

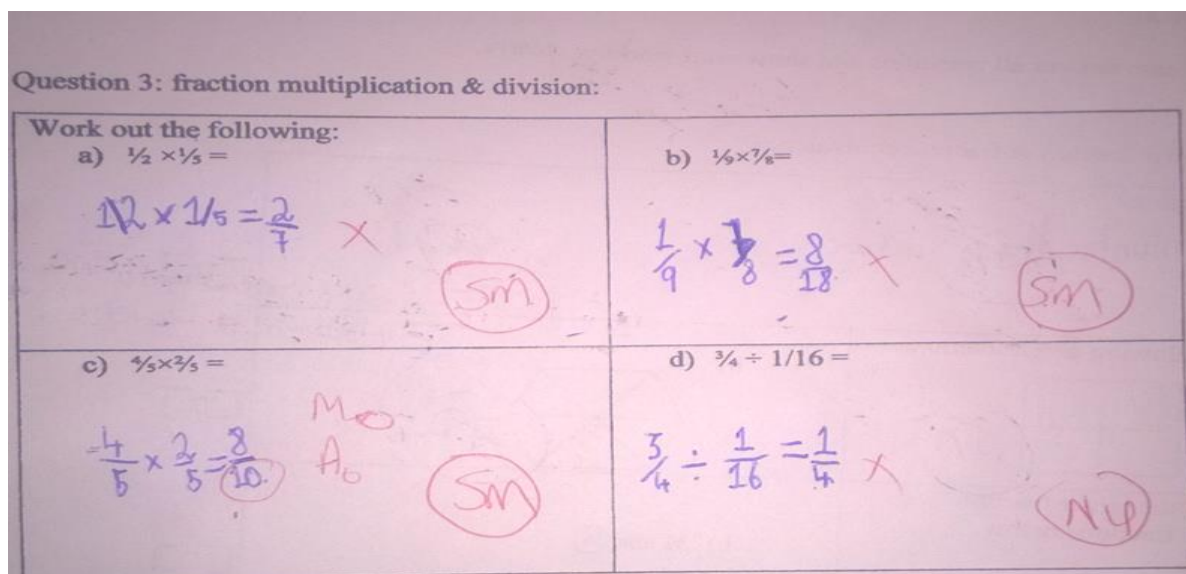
Lastly, **question 2, (C)**, required the learners to account for their working in this question by writing down a rule they used for addition and subtraction. This question was meant to find out if learners understood the concepts they were applying or they were just carrying out the procedures without any understanding. The results show that learners were unable to explain the concepts used when adding or subtracting fractions. Only 2(4%) were MC category, 3(7%) were PC while 39(85%) were NU and 2(4%) were NR. The learners had no understanding of what they were doing.

**Table 5:** Learners competencies, process skills and handling of operations in fractions

Q.3	CONCEPTS	MC	PC	SM	CE	PE	NU	NR
a)	Multiplication of fractions:	1 2%	7 15%	0 0%	35 73%	1 2%	4 8%	0 0%
b)		0 0%	5 10%	0 0%	25 52%	6 13%	8 17%	4 8%
c)		4 8%	7 15%	0 0%	12 25%	20 42%	4 8%	1 2%
d)	Fraction division	0 0%	1 2%	0 0%	13 27%	11 23%	22 46%	1 2%
e)	Concept of multiplying dividing fractions	0 0%	5 10%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	35 73%	8 17%

Key: Mathematically Correct (MC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR)

The question required the learners to multiply and divide fractions of similar and different denominators. These concepts were tested in four (4) parts in question 3. The overall results showed that Conceptual Errors (CE) and Procedural Errors (PE) a category of errors dominated this question followed by those who showed No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR) categories. In part (a) show that 1(2%) and 7(15%) of learners were categorized under MC and PC respectively. These are pupils who were able to carry out all the necessary workings correctly, and also gave correct and reasonable answer. Most of the learners were adding instead of multiplying demonstrated through figure 3.

**Figure 3:** A sample of a learners who carried out addition instead of multiplication



In part (b), proportional distribution was as follows: PC-5(10%), CE-25(52%), PE-6(13%) and the rest had no understanding and those who did not write anything. The reasons for these percentages are similar for part (a), showing computational weakness among the learners since some of them, for example, worked out $\frac{1}{9} \times \frac{7}{8} = \frac{7}{81}$ instead of $\frac{7}{72}$. Likewise in part (c) the results showed in the table above are due to the similar reasons that have been discussed. Part (d) required the learners to work out $\frac{3}{4} \div \frac{1}{16}$. All the learners were challenged by this question as learners were categorized under NU and NR. Lastly, part (e) required the learners to write down a rule for multiplying and dividing fractions to show understanding of the algorithm carried out. The results from the table show that all the learners failed to give the expected response, since 43(90%) showed no understanding and those who never attempted this part. Even those who had an idea were classified under PC-5(10%).

Table 6: Learners competencies, process skills in problem solving in fractions

Q4	CONCEPTS	MC	PC	SM	CE	PE	NU	NR
a)	Problem solving:	0	5	0	0	0	16	27
		0%	10%	0%	0%	0%	33%	56%
b)		1	0	0	0	0	25	22
		2%	0%	0%	0%	0%	52%	46%
c)		3	4	0	0	0	23	18
		6%	8%	0%	0%	0%	48%	38%

Key: Mathematically Correct (SC), Partial Correct (PC), Specific Misconception (SM), Conceptual Error (CE), Procedural Error (PE), No Understanding (NU) and No Response (NR)

Question 4 was challenging for most learners, results showed that learners are challenged by solving problems related to fractions. Part (a) distribution was as follows PC-5(10%) while NU-16(33%) and the rest could not even attempt the question. Similar trends were deduced from parts (b) and (c). The question required the learners to solve a given word problem. The question was divided into three parts: Part a) was asking the learners to find the fraction of boys in a class of 80 pupils and a fraction of $\frac{3}{8}$ girls. There were no learners who answered this question correctly and those learners who answered were classified under PC. In Part b), the learners were asked to calculate the number of girls. Only 1(2%) learner answered correctly, showing all the working. The others showed no understanding while one did not respond. Part (c) required the learners to calculate the number of boys in the class and MC-3(6%) answered correctly, while PC-4 (8%) working and the rest showed no understanding and not response.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The result of the study show that learners do experience some deficiencies in terms of process skills, competencies in handling mathematical knowledge and understanding in the topic fractions. These causations of the challenges in solving problems related to fractions have been presented according structure of the test.

a) Learners understanding, shading and comparing sizes of fractions

The study identified that most learners have no concrete understanding of a fraction. Siegler (2010) states that, learners need to have a basic conceptual understanding of fractions before the procedural

understanding; learners should be exposed to the meaning of fractions, and according to Cramer, Monson, Whitney and Leavitt (2010), using the part-whole construct is an effective starting point for building meaning of fractions. In shading of fractions, most of the learners did not struggle with shading the fraction $\frac{3}{4}$ in a shape such as a square that was divided into four equal parts. However, most learners struggled with shading $\frac{1}{2}$ in a shape such as hexagon that is divided into six equal parts. The common incorrect answer was shading the numerator only which changed the meaning of the given fraction which was $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{6}$. Cramer et al. (2010) explain that this is caused by a misconception that learners thought the numerator and denominator were separate values. Van de Walle (2010) also adds that learners do not view a fraction as a single number. This is also similar to the findings of Ndalichako (2013), in the literature, which showed that, learners, when operating fractions, tend to treat numerators and denominators as separate entities, and as a result, they experience difficulty in solving questions related to fractions. The part of comparing the fractions by selecting the larger fraction between two fractions also seemed to be a challenge to learners. Most learners were selecting the fraction with a larger denominator.

b) Addition and subtraction of fractions with the same and different denominators.

In this part of the test, the results showed that some learners are challenged by applying fraction operations of adding and subtracting. Some learners were challenged by the fact that they did not have the conceptual understanding of the Lowest Common Multiple (LCM) method and therefore, they could not apply it. According to Arslan (2010), learning of fractions require both conceptual and procedural understanding. Specific misconceptions were identified from this question, for example, some were operating on the fractions in terms of whole numbers. These learners, according to McNamara and Shaughnessy (2010), over-generalized the whole-number knowledge. Some of the learners were able to apply the LCM method to fractions with the same denominator but failed with fractions with different denominators. Those who were able were committing procedural errors whereby they would write a wrong LCM value or they would write the correct LCM value but work out and proceed wrongly. The question which required learners to write down a rule for adding and subtracting fractions was also a challenge for most learners. Arslan (2010) explains that most learners learn fractions procedurally, that is, they only memorize algorithm.

c) Multiplication and division of fractions with the same and those with different denominators.

This part of the test also revealed that learners are challenged by fraction operations, and in this case; multiplication and division. Some learners were committing conceptual errors, procedural errors, specific misconceptions and no understanding. Some learners were using the LCM method when working out fraction multiplication, that is, they were trying to maintain common denominators. According to Siegler et al. (2011), most learners are confused by why and when common denominators are maintained, leading to errors such as $\frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$. This shows lack of understanding of the conceptual basis of fraction arithmetic procedures. Some learners in this question were challenged by the fact that they have not yet mastered their multiplication tables, and for that reasons they would make a lot of errors such as $\frac{1}{9} \times \frac{7}{8} = \frac{7}{81}$ instead of $\frac{7}{72}$. Moreover, the learners in this question were also challenged by fraction division. The common problem was failure to invert the second fraction so that they can multiply to get the answer. Mick and Kolb (2002) in Yim (2010)

explain that learners need to understand the concept of division as the inverse of multiplication first, so that they can understand better the meaning of fraction division algorithms.

d) Problem solving

This part of the question was poorly performed by almost all the learners. This question required both conceptual and procedural understanding of fraction operations. According to Siegler (2010), learners need to understand underlying concepts before they can begin with the procedures. The problem-solving question, required the learners to first understand that the total number of pupils in the class make one whole of $\frac{8}{8}$. To find the fraction of the boys in the class, given that the fraction of the girls is $\frac{3}{8}$, the learners had to subtract $\frac{3}{8}$ from $\frac{8}{8}$ demonstrating that part-whole concept is understood. The other parts of the question required the learner to apply multiplication or division operations of fractions as well as subtraction. All these operations required conceptual and procedural understanding.

CONCLUSIONS

The study revealed the challenges faced by primary learners in solving problems related to fractions. The study also found that procedural and conceptual understanding is vital in fraction concepts. These are the results that were deduced from this study:

- Learners were able to carry out mathematical procedures without conceptual understanding of fractions in general, where learners had difficulties in separating whole number concepts from fraction concepts.
- Limited conceptual understanding of addition and subtraction of fraction where learners are required to equalize the denominators first before adding or subtracting.
- In Multiplication and division learners were committing conceptual errors, procedural errors, specific misconceptions and even limited understanding which showed partial understanding of both conceptual basis of fraction and arithmetic procedures.
- In problem solving, learners lacked a higher order in the application of fractions; they showed no understanding of the conceptual and procedural application of fractions.

Recommendations.

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested to be considered. They include:

- Developing practices and lessons that begin by exposing learners' perspectives about fractions and consistently exploring fractions such as one-half, one-fourth and one-tenth.
- Increasing the precision of the fraction language so that greater understanding of fraction units, fraction relationships and fraction operations can be promoted.
- Teachers should help learners to make real-life connections with fractions so that they can conceptualize how fractions operation works.
- Learners should be thoroughly taught the basic mathematical operations so that they can use them correctly. This should also include them being taught mathematical tables frequently, multiples, factors,



the meaning of the four basic operations and related mathematical operations before moving on to the fraction operations.

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BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TYPES AS PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS.

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ABSTRACT

Lack of job satisfaction among teachers in Nigeria is a major problem giving many stakeholders in education great concern. The right personality traits and attributes needed for teachers to be effective on their jobs seem to be missing among the available ones. The study therefore investigated personality types as predictors of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in Ondo State, Nigeria. The descriptive research design of survey type was adopted for the study. Two hundred (200) secondary school teachers comprising of 62 males and 138 females participated in the study. The adopted instruments for this study are Big Five Inventory and Job Satisfaction Scales. Five hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the analysis of data collected. The results showed that extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness significantly influenced job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. However, openness to experience and neuroticism were not significant predictors of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. It was concluded that extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness personality types were major factors predicting the job satisfaction of

secondary school teachers. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that school administrators should consider applicants with extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness personality types for teaching appointment whenever recruitment is done.

Keywords: Job satisfaction, personality, conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness.

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers at all levels of education perform significant roles in achieving the objectives of education in any society. However, if these teachers are not satisfied with their jobs, they may display lack of job commitment, and students' academic success in schools may be hampered. If workers are dissatisfied with their jobs, the overall advancement of the organization could be disrupted. Robbins and Judges (2008) described job satisfaction as a positive feeling an individual has towards his or her job resulting from the individual's evaluation of the job's characteristics. Davis and Newstrom (2006) defined job satisfaction as the pleasant or unpleasant feeling and emotions workers have towards their works. It is a pleasant emotion resulting from the evaluation of the experiences an employee has in discharging his or her responsibilities in the workplace. However, unmet expectations result in job dissatisfaction among workers (Mathis & Jackson, 2000).

According to Quarstein, McAfee and Glassman (1992), two major factors influencing job satisfaction include situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Examples of situational characteristics are salary, supervisory practices, working environment, and promotion. However, situational occurrences can be grouped into either positive or negative. The positive situational occurrences include extra vacation time, rewards and awards, and so on, while the negative situational occurrences include faulty equipment. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction among workers may be the determinants of any organization's achievements or failure. Hence, it is important that job satisfaction and some variables influencing it are examined among secondary school teachers. In Nigeria, the secondary education is very important because it is the only link between primary and tertiary education. Teachers in secondary schools are expected to be highly industrious in preparing the young students for future education. If these teachers are not appropriately and adequately rewarded for the good services they render, their level of satisfaction might decrease, affecting their level of job performance.

Bavendam (2000) posited that teachers' job satisfaction is very crucial in the educational sector because their attitude to work could positively or negatively influence students' learning process. Satisfied teachers could perform excellently in the classrooms and improve on his quality of teaching, while job dissatisfied teachers would find it difficult to perform very well in and outside the school environment. Teachers that are very satisfied with their jobs are usually very hard working, confident and courageous in discharging their duties and responsibilities, and they demonstrate greater commitment to the teaching learning process.

Efforts to improve job performance of teachers and academic performance of students in schools may be in vain if job satisfaction of teachers is not given the adequate attention it deserves. If workers are highly motivated in their places of work, they will be effective and efficient in service delivery to their employers and customers (Mbua, 2003). The implication of this to teaching and learning environment is that if teachers are well motivated and they are satisfied with the teaching job, students' learning and academic performance will be enhanced. However, students' academic achievements could be disrupted if teachers are not well motivated and they are dissatisfied with their teaching jobs. Indeed, if teachers' job satisfaction is not given the attention it deserves, efforts of all stakeholders and policy makers to provide quality education may be in vain.

It is sad to note that the teaching profession is facing problems related to teachers in Nigeria. Many public secondary school teachers are dissatisfied with the teaching profession (Aroge, 2016; Dabo 2016). The complaints of teachers include poor working conditions, harsh working environment, poor motivation, poor salary, and unpleasant conditions of service. Factors influencing teachers' job satisfaction extensively examined by researchers include reward, recognition, work conditions, supervision, and salary (Okonkwo & Obineli, 2011; Wanjau, 2011).

Statement of the problem

Job satisfaction among employees is a major factor influencing effectiveness and productivity of employees in any organization including the teaching profession. If most workers in an organization experience high level of job satisfaction, the organization would record more success than its counterparts whose most of its workers are dissatisfied with their jobs. Such dissatisfied workers are always less productive and are more inclined to engage in negative organizational behaviours such as absenteeism, lack of job commitment, disrespect, laziness, stealing, unfaithfulness, gross misconduct and deliberate act of disrupting school programmes amongst others. These kinds of negative behaviors are not uncommon among secondary school teachers in Nigeria. Some of the teachers are usually found displaying quite a number of unpleasant work behaviours such as coming late to work, habitual absence from work, ineptitude, uncared attitude to assigned works, running of private businesses, buying and selling in the school premises and so on. The obvious negative attitude of these teachers to work seems to indicate that they are not satisfied with their job.

One major problem facing the education sector in Nigeria, especially the public sector is how to satisfy the needs of workers and enhance teachers' effectiveness and productivity. Over the years, the education sector in Nigeria seems to be battling with ineffectiveness, inefficiency, low productivity and poor quality in the teaching and learning process. These may be due to poor job satisfaction among teachers in secondary schools. Over the last decade, there have been a great number of industrial disputes in the education sector which showed that teachers are not satisfied with their jobs. The high rate of secondary school dropouts, poor students' academic performance in external examinations and the seemingly dwindling standard of education in recent times in Nigeria have generated a lot of concern and controversy among stakeholders. This condition has oftentimes been attributed to low job satisfaction among teachers. Despite many studies on the influence of motivation, work conditions, salary on job satisfaction among teachers in addition to government and individual efforts to address this challenge, low level of job satisfaction is still being reported



among secondary school teachers. It is high time researchers studied the impact of some important psychological factors on job satisfaction. Only few studies had examined the predictive influence of personality types on teachers' job satisfaction, especially in Ondo State, Nigeria. This study, therefore examined personality types as predictors of job satisfaction among teachers in Ondo State, Nigeria.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

1. Examine the effect of openness to experience on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction
2. Examine the effect of neuroticism on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction
3. Find out the influence of extraversion on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction
4. Determine the effect of agreeableness on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction
5. Assess the influence of conscientiousness on secondary school teachers' job satisfaction.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were generated to guide the study.

1. Openness to experience will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.
2. Neuroticism will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.
3. Extraversion will not predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.
4. Agreeableness will not predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.
5. Conscientiousness will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Theoretical framework

The study is based on dispositional theory of job satisfaction developed by Straw and Ross (1985). The approach affirmed the close relationship between job satisfaction and personality. According to Straw and Ross (1985), the job dispositional theory involves measuring personality characteristics which can help explain individual attitudes and behaviours. This theory suggests that individuals have inherent dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of job satisfaction not minding the type or nature of the job. Straw and Ross (1985) claimed that job attitude may reflect a biologically based trait that predisposes individuals to see people, things, and situations in their lives either negative or positive. Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002) emphasized the tripartite effect of personality on job satisfaction. They affirmed that the intellectual component of personality influenced individual's mood at work and the behavioural component operates through job performance. Judge, Locke and Durham (1997) introduced core self-evaluation (CSE) theory of personality. This composes of four bi-polar personality traits (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, emotional stability, and locus of control). According to Cleare and Oriakhi (2013), the theory holds that individuals with positives CSE are likely to be satisfied with their jobs because they do not focus on negative factors or experiences. Conversely, individuals with negative CSE are more likely to be dissatisfied because

they are highly sensitive to bad experiences and perceive the workplace more negatively (Brunborg, 2008). Thereafter, a 5-factor model of personality which can be used to describe the most salient aspects of personality emerged. This model is often known as the Big Five and has been generalized across measures, culture, and sources of rating. The Big Five are openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. These five major domains have been found to contain all known personality traits. Therefore, the present study examined how each of these personality domains predicted job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

Personality and personality types

McShane and Von Glinow (2008) described personality as pattern of behaviour of an individual that is, relative stability and consistent internal states which explain the individual's behavioural tendencies. Mount, Llies and Johnson (2006) posited that one of the major non-cognitive domains of humans in the field of psychology is the personality traits that influence several outcomes linked with progress in the workplace and success in life. Personality influences behaviour through motivational processes and this would in turn impact on the success of the individual. Personality also affects choices individuals make about career, tasks and activities to engage in, the magnitude of efforts to be exerted on the tasks and the period of time during which the task will be carried out.

Personality types have been grouped in different ways. The most popular grouping of personality seems to be the one done by Costa and McCrae (1992) that is known as the Big Five. The goal-oriented behaviour and decision making of a person are influenced by personality types (Jalilvand, 2000). The Big Five dimensions of personality involves five traits that are relatively independent and provide purposeful information about differences in individuals, and their responses in the organizational demands (Kumar & Bakhshi, 2010). Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness are the traits of five factor model. These five dimensions of personality provide a purposeful basis for the study of individual differences in mankind. Agreeableness refers to traits of politeness, graciousness, good-natured, fellow feeling, love and caring. Neuroticism includes people who are self-possessed, annoyed, stressed, unsociable and dejected. Openness to experience refers to the extent to which a person is willing to make adjustment in line with new ideas and innovations. Individuals with openness to experience personality traits are curious, innovative, adaptable, flexible, and creative. Extroversion refers to the social adaptability of a person. People with extraversion personality are gregarious, warmhearted, sociable, outgoing, and assertive. Conscientiousness refers to the extent to which individual pushes toward personal goals. It is the tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully and the desire to achieve and make progress irrespective of the challenges faced.

Empirical studies

Several researchers (Ranasinghe & Hemantha, 2016; Kappagoda, 2013; Jabari, Boroujerdi, Ghaeini, Naghshbandi, & Karimi, 2013; Zhai et al. 2013; Mhlanga, 2012; Wanjau, 2011; Furnham, Eracleous & Premuzic, 2009) have revealed the relationship between job satisfaction and personality types. Many previous research works have demonstrated that job satisfaction positively correlated with agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion while job satisfaction negatively correlated with neuroticism personality

trait. Openness to experience did not have much influence on job satisfaction. Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002) reported a significant positive relationships among conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism and job satisfaction.

Negative relationship between neuroticism and job satisfaction had been reported by researchers (Pandey and Karitha, 2015; Mhlana, 2012; Patrick, 2010; Matzler and Renzl, 2007; Bowling, Beehr, & Lepisto 2006). In a study carried out by Kappagoda (2013), it was revealed that neuroticism is inversely related to job satisfaction. Tesdimir, Asghar and Saeed (2012) found negative correlation between neuroticism personality trait and job satisfaction. Workers whose scores were high in neuroticism were less satisfied with the actual work carried out by them, their comrades and their salaries. Similarly, Butcher and Roberson (1995) found neuroticism to be the strongest negative correlate of job satisfaction among workers. However, Judge, Heller & Mount (2002) found neuroticism personality trait as the most potent and consistent correlate of job satisfaction.

Literature has reported significant positive relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction (Furnham & Zacherl, 1986). Individuals who had high scores in extraversion personality type dimension also had high scores in all the dimensions of job satisfaction (Kappagoda, 2013; Zhai et al., 2013; Patrick, 2010; Ali, 2008; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Extraverts are susceptible to experience pleasant emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992) which in turn leads to job satisfaction. Rhodes and Hammer (2000) affirmed that agreeableness was a good and effective predictor of job satisfaction. They found that job satisfaction increased when agreeableness personality increased in supervisor and the subordinate. Jabari et al. (2013) studied the relationship between Big-Five Personality Traits and job satisfaction. The results showed that agreeableness positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Kappagoda (2013), Patrick (2010) and Rhodes and Hammer (2000) discovered that agreeableness personality was a significant factor predicting job satisfaction of employees.

Najaf (2007) and Neubert (2004) reported that openness to experience was not a valid factor predicting job satisfaction. Also, Pandey and kavitha (2015) found no significant relationship between Openness to Experience and job satisfaction. However, Ali (2008) reported a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and Openness to Experience among teachers. Naz, Rehman, and Saqib (2013) examined the relationship between the level of job satisfaction and types of personality among employees of banks and found that openness to experience positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Ijaz and Khan (2015) and Mhlana (2012) and Tesdimir, Asghar and Saeed (2010) found positive and significant relationship between openness to experience and job satisfaction. Ranasinghe and Hemantha (2016) reported the same findings.

Various researchers (Saeed, et al., 2010; Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009; Ali, 2008) reported significant correlations between conscientiousness and job satisfaction. However, Najaf (2007) and Patrick (2010) reported that there was no significant relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction. The reviewed literature revealed the relationships between personality types and job satisfaction. However, most of these studies were not done in Nigeria. They were carried out in Europe, America and Asia. Studies on relative relationship between personality types and job satisfaction among Nigerian teachers

are very germane considering the importance of teachers in the teaching profession. Hence, the need for the present study.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a descriptive research design using the survey type. The major reason was to find out the role of personality types on job satisfaction. The design enabled the researcher to collect data for the purpose of analysis, interpretation and generalization. The population for this study comprised of all secondary school teachers in Ondo North senatorial district, Ondo State, Nigeria. The sample for the study consisted of ten secondary schools, two hundred (200) Senior Secondary School teachers, comprising of 62 males and 138 females who were selected through stratified random sampling technique.

Two instruments were used for this study: The Big Five personality Inventory developed by John and Srivastava, (1999) and Job Satisfaction Survey developed by Spector (1994) were adapted for this study. The Big Five Inventory (BFI) is a 44-item inventory that was developed to measure the Big Five personality domains of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Respondents indicate their level of agreement with each of the items using a 4-point Likert scale from strongly agree, agree, disagree to strongly disagree in which a value was assigned to each response from 1, 2, 3, to 4 respectively. The test retest reliability coefficient for Big Five Inventory (BFI) average was .80 (range .71 - .88). The job satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1994) was adapted for this study. The original scale contains 36 items. The researchers extracted 20 relevant items from the original scale using a four point likert type ranging from strongly disagreed = 1, disagreed = 2, agreed = 3 to strongly agreed = 4. The test retest reliability coefficient of 0.71 was obtained for the Job Satisfaction Survey.

The researchers first visited the randomly selected schools to familiarize them about the research and solicited the permission of the principals. Thereafter, the researchers sought the consent of the teachers to participate in the study. After getting them informed and obtained their consent, the researchers personally distributed and collected the completed scales administered to the teachers. Participant were adequately informed of the adherence to confidentiality and the need to be precise and truthful in filling the questionnaires. The researchers cautiously explained the importance of the questionnaire to the respondents to avoid invalid responses. Adequate time was given to the teachers to complete the questionnaire. The administration of the instrument was done for three weeks and administered questionnaires were collected back from the respondents by the researchers. Data were analysed using simple regression statistical tool for each hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance. The statistical tool was used to establish the contribution of each independent variable to the job satisfaction of teachers.



RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: Openness to experience will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

Table 1: Summary of Simple Regression showing the influence of Openness to Experience on job satisfaction

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	F-crit.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Regression	19.503	1	19.503	.468	3.38	.058	.003	.001
Residual	5752.069	198	41.682					
Total	5771.571	199						

Table 1 shows the R-value, R-square value and the adjusted R square. The R square coefficient ($R^2=.003$) indicates that the predictor variable openness to experience accounted for .3%. The R-square value reveals how much variance is in the dependent variable as explained by the independent variable in the analysis. The adjusted R-square value of .001 indicated that .1% of the variance was accounted for in the model. From Table 1, openness to experience did not significantly predict job satisfaction ($F_{(1, 198)} = .468$ $p>0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis one was not rejected. This implies that openness to experience has no predictive power of job satisfaction among the teachers.

Hypothesis 2: Neuroticism will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

Table 2: Summary of Simple Regression showing the influence of Neuroticism on job satisfaction

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	F-crit.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Regression	52.796	1	52.796	1.274	3.83	.098	.009	.002
Residual	5718.776	198	41.440					
Total	5771.571	199						

Table 2, shows the R-value, R-square value and the adjusted R square. The R square coefficient ($R^2=.009$) indicates that the predictor variable neuroticism accounted for .9%. The adjusted R-square value of 0.002 indicates that .02% of the variance was accounted for in the model. From Table 2, Neuroticism did not significantly predict job satisfaction ($F_{(1, 198)} = 1.274$ $p>0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis two was not rejected. This implies that Neuroticism did not predict job satisfaction among the teachers.



Hypothesis 3: Extraversion will not predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

Table 3: Summary of Simple Regression showing the influence of Extraversion on job satisfaction

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	F-crit.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Regression	587.251	1	587.251	15.632	3.83	.319	.102	.095
Residual	5184.320	198	37.568					
Total	5771.571	199						

Table 3, shows the R-value, R-square value and the adjusted R square. The R square coefficient ($R^2=.102$) indicates that the predictor variable extraversion accounted for 10.2%. The adjusted R-square value of .095 indicated that 9.5% of the variance was accounted for in the model. From Table 3, extraversion significantly predict job satisfaction ($F_{(1, 198)} = 15.632p<0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis three was rejected. This implies that extraversion provide high level of job satisfaction among the teachers.

Hypothesis 4: Agreeableness will not predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

In testing hypothesis four, regression analysis was used to investigate the influence of Agreeableness on job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

Table 4: Summary of Simple Regression showing the influence of Agreeableness on job satisfaction

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	F-crit.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Regression	448.555	1	448.555	11.629	3.83	.279	.078	.071
Residual	5323.016	198	38.573					
Total	5771.571	199						

Table 4, shows the R-value, R-square value and the adjusted R square. The R square coefficient (.078) indicates that the predictor variable Agreeableness accounted for 7.8%. The adjusted R-square value of .071 indicated that 7.1% of the variance was accounted for in the model. From Table 4, Agreeableness significantly predicted job satisfaction ($F_{(1, 198)} = 11.628 p<0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis four was rejected. This implies that agreeableness provide high level of job satisfaction among the teachers.

Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness will not significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

In testing hypothesis five, regression analysis was used to investigate the influence of Conscientiousness on job satisfaction among secondary school teachers.

**Table 5: Summary of Simple Regression showing the influence of Conscientiousness on job satisfaction**

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	F-crit.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Regression	1078.358	1	1078.358	31.708	3.83	.432	.187	.181
Residual	4693.214	198	34.009					
Total	5771.571	199						

Table 5, shows the R-value, R-square value and the adjusted R square. The R-square (.187) of 18.7% tells how much variance in the dependent variable as explained by the independent variable in the analysis. The adjusted R-square value of 0.181 which indicated that 18.1% of the variance was accounted for in the model. From Table 5, Conscientiousness significantly predict job satisfaction ($F_{(1, 198)} = 31.708$ $p < 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis five was rejected. This implies that Conscientiousness provide high level of job satisfaction among the teachers.

DISCUSSION

The outcome of this study showed that openness to experience did not predict job satisfaction of teachers in secondary schools. This implies that secondary school teachers with openness personality trait had low level of job satisfaction. This finding agreed with Neubert (2004), and Judge et al. (2002) who found a negligible or no significant relationship between openness to experience and job satisfaction. However, Ali (2008), Ijaz and Khan (2005) and Mhlanga (2012) and Naz et al (2013) reported a significant positive relationship between openness to experience and job satisfaction which contradicted the outcome of this study.

Further, findings of this study showed that neuroticism did not significantly predict teachers' job satisfaction in secondary schools. This implies that teachers with neuroticism personality had low level of job satisfaction in secondary schools. This finding corroborated the studies of Pandey and Karitha (2015), Mhlanga (2012), Patrick (2010) and Matzler and Renzl (2007) that did not find the predictive influence of neuroticism on job satisfaction of teachers. Teachers that demonstrated high level of neuroticism are usually very anxious, depressed, impulsive, and vulnerable and not contented thereby making them to be less happy with their jobs. This could be responsible for the non-significant predictive influence of neuroticism on job satisfaction found in this study.

In addition, findings of the study revealed that extraversion significantly predicted high level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. This implies that teachers that were extraverted had high level of job satisfaction in secondary schools. The result is in line with the findings of Kappagoda (2013), Zhai et al (2013); Patrick (2010); Ali (2008) and Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002). They all found extraversion to be a significant factor predicting job satisfaction among employees. The characteristics of positive emotions, warmth, gregariousness, excitement-seeking usually demonstrated by extraverted teachers could be responsible for the high level of job satisfaction found among them.



Similarly, agreeableness personality type was found to significantly predict job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. This implies that teachers that were agreeable among their colleagues had high level of job satisfaction in secondary schools. The result confirmed the findings of Kappagoda (2013), Patrick (2010) and Rhodes and Hammer (2000). They stated that agreeableness was a significant predictor of job satisfaction among employees. The higher the teachers were on the agreeable personality scales the more likely they were satisfied with their job.

Finally, the finding of the study revealed that conscientiousness significantly predicted on satisfaction among secondary school teachers. This implies that teachers that display conscientiousness have high level of job satisfaction in secondary schools. The result supports the findings of Kappagoda (2013), Tesdimir, Ashga and Saeed (2012), Mhlang (2012) and Judge, Heller, & Mount, (2002). Their studies revealed that conscientiousness significantly predicted job satisfaction among employees. Hence, the higher teachers were on the conscientiousness scales the more likely they were satisfied with their job. The result is in conformity with the findings of Judge and Ilies's (2002) research which indicated that conscientious individuals exhibited a higher level of motivation and job satisfaction.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness were predictors of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in Akoko South West Local Government Area of Ondo State, Nigeria. However, openness to experience and extraversion were not good predictors of job satisfaction among the teachers.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of this study, the following were recommended;

1. Government should put into consideration personality characteristics of applicants during any teachers' recruitment exercise. Candidates who possess agreeableness and extraversion and conscientiousness personality traits should have better advantage in the recruitment exercise over their counterparts with openness to experience and neuroticism personality traits.
2. Teachers already on the job should be exposed to appropriate psychological training, workshops and seminars all of which will help them develop appropriate personality characteristics that would in turn enhance their effectiveness in schools. These programmes should be anchored by counselling psychologists employed by the state governments.



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CHALLENGES FACED BY RELIGIOUS EDUCATION TEACHERS IN GENDER SENSITIVE TEACHING: A STUDY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ESWATINI.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the challenges facing Religious Education (RE) teachers' gender sensitive teaching with a reflective approach to their training programme and practice. It used a qualitative design. An open ended questionnaire was used to collect data. Purposive sampling was used for identifying potential participants; hence, six Religious Education teachers were identified and asked to complete the questionnaire. Data analysis involved reading the data, searching for emerging themes and developing concepts. The research findings indicated that RE teachers felt the need for gender equality to be integrated in teacher training courses. Lack of training, societal norms and student attitudes were identified as challenges facing teachers in gender sensitive teaching. The study concluded that gender sensitive teaching in RE is impossible if teachers are not trained to do so. It was recommended that the Ministry of Education should organize in-service workshops on gender sensitive curriculum implementation.

Keywords: Religious Education, gender equality, teacher training, teaching and learning, gender sensitive curriculum.

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INTRODUCTION

Religious Education and gender sensitive teaching

Teachers, both men and women are a product of the gender construct of the society (Siwolo, 2005). In most communities teachers, like their learners, are socialised in basically patriarchal structures that foster gender inequality. According to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO 2000), a gender-sensitive curriculum promotes equal treatment between men and women, girls and boys, and it encourages them to achieve their full potential. This includes how they interact in and outside the classroom, and how boys and girls are depicted in textbooks. Gender-sensitive attitudes and learning materials promote non-stereotyped images of men and women.

The coming of Christian missionaries saw the introduction of western education in Eswatini. Even with this introduction, the separation according to gender was evident. Lumadi and Shongwe (2010) state that education and salaried jobs were almost exclusively the privilege of men in society. The missionaries' main interest in the development of education in Eswatini had mainly to do with the need to convert local people to the Christian religion. Emaswati were taught how to read the Bible. One major limitation of this kind of education discussed by Shongwe and Lumadi (2010) is that, it did not concentrate on practical worldly subjects, such as building and carpentry and this led to clashes because Emaswati felt that their way of life was undermined. As a result of this dissatisfaction, National Schools were set up to cater for the needs of Emaswati children.

The general aim of education is to contribute towards the development of all aspects of the individual, including aesthetic, creative, critical, cultural, emotional, expressive, and intellectual; for personal and home life, for working life, for living in the community and for leisure (Curriculum online 2012). As a curriculum subject, Religious Education has a special role in the development of the whole child because it encompasses all aspects of life. It helps to explore pupils' experiences in depth and to come to understand the deeper factors at work in their lives (Musongole 2010). Its main aim in Eswatini is to enable pupils to appreciate spiritual, moral and religious values. This appreciation is drawn from the religious traditions in Eswatini which is Christianity (RE syllabus for Eswatini).

Religious education aims to "develop students' religious literacy in the light of a religious tradition so that they may participate critically and effectively in the life of their communities and wider society" (A Syllabus for Religious Education for Catholic Schools). This aim promotes the development of knowledge, skills and values which students need to participate as active lifelong learners. The previous R. E. in Eswatini derived content from the teachings of the different religions and they include Swazi (Emaswati) Traditional Religion (STR), Islam and Christianity as reflected by the RE syllabus for Emaswati secondary schools. One of the aims of the syllabus was to enable learners to develop essential skills and provide a broad learning experience which respects the values and beliefs of others, relating to issues of gender, culture and religion. For instance topics included; the role of women, abortion, personal relationships, teachings against abuse, exploitation and violence, sexual orientation as well as discrimination and prejudice in Christianity and STR

(SGCSE Religious Education Syllabus 2011 and 2012). Therefore, the Religious Education teacher should make sure that the learning experiences provided to the learners when teaching these topics are gender sensitive. In Eswatini, the Ministry of Education and Training Sector Policy (2011) encourages gender equality which is the equal enjoyment of rights and access to opportunities and outcomes including resources by men, women, girls, and boys. The policy promotes gender mainstreaming in all sectors including Early Childhood Care and Development, primary school up to teacher training institutions. A study by Dlamini (2013) revealed that there were no gender specific topics in the teacher training colleges RE curriculum. RE teachers cannot be able to address gender equality issues in the classroom if they have not been trained to do so. Hence this study investigated the challenges faced by RE teachers in gender sensitive teaching. The study sought to answer the following research question: What challenges do Religious Education teachers face in teaching a gender sensitive curriculum in primary schools of Eswatini?

Theoretical framework

The study adopts Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of Gender. The Social Cognitive Theory serves as a basis for learning that includes the social environment as well as the personal factors such as change and cognition of the learner and the behaviour (Bandura, 1999). RE as a school subject embodies all aspects of a learner including the learning of gender roles. The theory emphasises that girls and boys learn about gender roles by observing others and imitating them (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Gender roles are promoted through rewards and punishments for gender appropriate and gender inappropriate behaviours. The theory stresses that there is a connection between the environmental, personal, and behavioural factors. As individuals interrelate, they influence each other's behaviour (Bandura 1997). Furthermore, according to the theory behaviour is observed then modelled in learning new things. Learning occurs through observation; that is, paying attention and then observing the necessary behaviour. Teachers and peers in the classroom/school model the behaviour and learners are likely to repeat the behaviour either good or bad.

Bandura (1977) developed four principles of social learning namely; attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. Attention refers to observing what is being modelled either by the parent, teacher, and peers. Retention refers to the fact that people learn by internalising knowledge into their memories. This knowledge is recalled later when a similar situation requires one to respond. Reproduction means people reproduce already learnt knowledge including behaviour, skills, and knowledge when needed. Lastly, motivation in the theory reveals that people need motivation in order to perform any task. Motivation is usually influenced by one's observation of someone being rewarded or punished for their actions. Children learn what is appropriate by watching the actions of other people whom they may perceive as role models, including their teachers at school. They watch their parents, siblings as well as their peers to see what is appropriate for their gender. This theory assists in the development of children because it helps them to figure out the way society wants them to act as different societies require different behaviours from its citizens. Without gender reinforcement, children might stray too far from the social norms of society. The theory is relevant to the study since the school is a social institution where gender roles are portrayed and can be learned as well as imitated by learners. Social systems are created by human beings and are strengthened by man's attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, habits and expectations. The theory could help classroom teachers including those of

RE not to reinforce gender stereotypical roles in the classroom by being positive role models to encourage the learning of the correct kind of behaviour.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Borja, Potter, Wright and Zedick's (1999) study on gender and education observed that boys and girls are treated differently in the classroom. They observed that teachers often call on boys more than girls, they ask boys challenging questions and they urge boys to try harder. This kind of behaviour by teachers reproduces gender inequality. Borja et.al (1999) further state that even in higher education, female students receive less active instruction, both in the quality of time and attention. Sanders (1995) attributes the notion that males excel in Mathematics, Science and Technology and that females excel in the Arts to the many beliefs and cultural influences that are passed down through generations. This idea that boys and girls are naturally good at certain things is part of societies past ignorance of the difference between biological sex and socially construed gender. Musongole (2010) conducted a study on the role of Religious Education in the promotion of girls' rights and the findings revealed that cultural beliefs and practices hinder girls' progress in education as well as the need for the identification of topics in RE and their relevance towards the promotion of girls' educational rights. This should be done despite the influence of cultural beliefs. The study concluded that RE as a subject has the potential to promote the girls educational rights and advancements in schools. According to Ezati (2007) there were many challenges that were identified as being faced by the respondents when trying to incorporate gender equality issues into core courses. For instance lack of awareness of the teacher educators, lack of time and poor structural methodologies among others. Most of these challenges could be overcome if the educators are willing to put an extra effort in trying to train gender sensitive teachers who will in turn produce gender enlightened citizens.

A paper that was presented by Siwolo (2005) at The Seminar on Cooperation on Teacher Education entitled "Challenges for teacher training in instituting gender responsive pedagogy in schools" highlighted key areas of teaching and learning processes where gender inequality is evident, and they include teaching methodologies, teaching and learning materials, language usage in the classroom, teacher-student interaction in the classroom and student-student interaction. These key areas are where trainee teachers need to be equipped with the necessary skills. These problems may seem to be classroom based but they reflect back to teacher training. For the attainment of equality in education the curriculum has to include the gender constraints in the teaching and learning process. Teacher training in the various subjects needs to address the issue of gender equality in order to produce gender sensitive teachers.

A study by Nomlomo and Holmarsdottir (2012) explored experiences of female children in primary schools in selected contexts in South Africa and Sudan and the extent to which their experiences reflect unequal opportunities of access to education and gender inequality. The study revealed that there are challenges among primary school learners. In Sudan, preparing girls for early marriages in the form of home education was a norm, while in South Africa children's access to formal education was prioritised despite other educational challenges experienced by young girls at school, such as sexual harassment. Furthermore, the

situation in these countries were influenced by political factors. For instance, after the War in Sudan free access to education was compromised, whilst in South Africa the apartheid regime brought problems which compromised quality education. The schools that belonged to the former homelands of the apartheid regime were still in poor condition, under resourced, with poor learner achievements thus compromising the education of a girl child.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the qualitative approach. Miles and Huberman cited in Musongole (2012) contend that qualitative data emphasises people's lived experiences, and it is fundamentally suited for locating and connecting these meanings to the social world around them. The qualitative approach was chosen because it helped the researcher to understand how teachers integrate gender equality issues in their teaching, whether they were trained as well as the challenges they face during implementation. Six teachers were chosen as participants because of their knowledge of RE, an attribute is that each person has had a similar experience and training. Locating teachers as participants was done using informal network. An open ended questionnaire was chosen as the main data collecting instrument of the study. Maree (2007) states that when using a questionnaire, it is possible to preserve anonymity of the respondents and this can allow the respondents to respond freely to the items in the questionnaire. The statements in the questionnaire required teachers to reflect on the challenges they face when teaching Religious Education in a gender responsive manner. Fear and embarrassment when responding were minimized since they were not required to write their identity. Gay, Mills and Ariasian (2006) describe data analysis as an attempt by the researcher to summarise collected data in dependable and collective manner. Data analysis began as soon as information was gathered about questions posed. Analysis involved reading the data, searching for emerging themes and developing concepts. The themes were identified from the responses and categorised. The data collected from questionnaires were analysed descriptively and presented in words.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings revealed that the curriculum and textbooks were gender neutral; however, studies have shown that formal neutrality did not guarantee the teaching of a gender responsive curriculum. Hence integration was reported as difficult in situations where many people did not know how to integrate. *'Do they have the ability to recognize gender issues?'* a teacher asked. One of the respondents also complained that those who sensitises gender issues usually tell them about the problem but hardly give them ways of dealing with it. This was particularly in relation to teaching.

Teachers revealed that there were challenges in dealing with gender issues in RE lessons. One teacher even asked if it is possible to deal with gender issues without training. Furthermore, most teachers teach the way they were taught. That is why one respondent reported that it was difficult to integrate gender issues when teaching due to educational background. Therefore, respondents felt that in order to produce gender sensitive RE teachers, there is need to deliberately make teacher educators gain awareness about some of the ways

in which gender could be brought in the forefront of their teaching. This will help them prepare student teachers for the dynamics of the classroom environment they are likely to meet in schools. This finding is similar to that of Ezati (2007) that there were many challenges identified as being faced by the respondents when trying to incorporate gender equality issues into core courses. For instance, lack of awareness of the teacher educators, lack of time and poor structural methodologies among others.

Another challenge identified by teachers was learners' attitude. Learners tend to learn gender roles from the society and bring those attitudes into the classroom. One of the male respondents explained that they are a product of history and that history needs to be removed slowly, although he acknowledges that historically women have been marginalized. He continued to argue that cultural beliefs are still in force. He said *'people want to change issues overnight, which has been there since Biblical times. Yet it should be an evolutionary approach, a slow process.'* Respondents especially females felt that the society at large does not allow equal status to men and women. One female argued that the patriarchal nature of society dictates that women's position belong at home, women should always be subordinate to their husbands and women are to take care of children. This finding concurs with Ezati's (2006) study that the challenges in integrating gender sensitive pedagogy in teaching include lack of gender equality awareness and attitudes of students. Therefore, more awareness is needed to sensitize lecturers and teachers of RE. This can enable them to incorporate gender aspects in their teaching.

The other research question focused on investigating how gender equality issues are addressed during implementation by RE teachers. The data revealed that those teachers actually required to implement gender equality education do not fully understand the concept. In addition, teachers have been found to lack ability to reflect on their own gender-biased instructional behaviours. This finding concurs with Al-Nouh (2008) who observed classes and noted that what teachers perceived to be doing did not match what they were actually practicing. The results also indicated that teachers involved both boys and girls by giving them equal opportunities during classroom discussions. Classroom interaction is an important element in the pedagogical process. Students are not little robots; they are boys and girls with gender specific needs. Especially as they mature, their gender roles and relations have an increasing impact on classroom interactions. This was in line with observation by Jung and Chung (2006) in their study that "the teacher must recognize that this is where such matters such as sexual experimentation, sexual harassment, male domination and female passivity come into play". It is therefore important to create and enforce a conducive learning environment through classroom interaction that is gender responsive.

Teachers also attempted to deliver an RE content that is gender neutral. The methods used varied and they included role play, demonstration, group discussion as well as story- telling. It was observed during group discussions in one class that every learner irrespective of gender was allowed to lead discussions and present the findings before the class. This refutes what has been observed that some teachers unaware directed their questions to boys. Taber & Thorne (1993) posits that teachers spend more time with boys than with girls.

CONCLUSION

Teachers acknowledged the need for addressing gender issues within their classroom to ensure that learners are exposed to the correct kind of behaviour acceptable in society. A subject like RE is appropriate for addressing gender-sensitive issues among learners. The study also concludes that although teachers attempt to teach a gender sensitive curriculum, there are challenges facing the teaching of a gender sensitive RE curriculum in primary schools. These challenges could be curbed if teachers are trained to address gender issues in their initial teacher training as well as continual in-service programs.

Recommendations

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

1. There is need to sensitize teachers on the importance of gender-sensitive pedagogies and integrating them into subjects like RE through workshops and teacher training courses.
2. Textbooks should be designed to depict real life stories where men and women share the same responsibilities and jobs in society.
3. Availability of resources such as teaching materials (textbooks) on gender equality issues.

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PRACTICES REQUIRED BY AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION LECTURERS IN THE DEVELOPMENT AND UTILIZATION OF POWERPOINT FOR QUALITY INSTRUCTION IN SOUTH-EAST NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES.

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ABSTRACT

This study identified practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. Two specific objectives were posed to guide the study with corresponding research questions and hypotheses. A survey research design was suitably adopted for the study. The target population for the study was 56 lecturers of Agricultural Education in 6 public universities offering Agricultural education in South-East Nigeria. Census was used for the study. A researcher-developed structured questionnaire validated by 3 experts was used as an instrument for data collection. The reliability of the instrument was determined at an index of .86 using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient test. Data collected for the study were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as Mean to answer research questions and standard deviation to show degree of responses. Independent Sample t-test was used to test the 2 stated hypotheses at .05-level of significance. The study found that lecturers of Agricultural Education require 17-practices in the development of PowerPoint and 10-practices in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction South-East Nigerian universities. Therefore, the study concluded that there are 17-practices on PowerPoint development and 10-practices on PowerPoint utilization for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. It was recommended by the study that Agricultural education lecturers should adopt these practices identified by the study for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities.

KEYWORDS: Instruction, PowerPoint, PowerPoint development practices, PowerPoint utilization practices, TPACK

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INTRODUCTION

There is no gainsaying that the emergence of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has improved the quality of instructions in universities across Nigeria. As a result, Segun, Ajisola, Adeyinka and Enijuni (2013) pointed out the need in changing pedal from the traditional methods of instruction in Nigeria to the modern ways which are in line with practices in the developed parts of the world. Notably, instruction involves a systematic information transmission and its goal is to convey information in such a way that allows students to remember what has been taught (Jason, 2013). Globally, the adoption of ICT for quality instructions in universities is becoming an indispensable part of educational technology as their applications enhance and facilitate lecturers' pedagogical activities and students' interest in learning (Yusuf, 2005). In agreement, Segun *et. al.*, (2013) explained that the emergence of ICT has greatly changed the traditional pattern of instruction in the classroom to the use of computers and computer applications. Ololube, Eke, Uzorka, Ekpenyong and Nte (2009) noted that ICT enhances educational efficiency in general and also that the efficiency of teaching in Nigerian Universities stands to be improved. This implies also that the use of ICT can enhance the quality of instructions in universities. Babalola and Tiamiyu (2012) reported that many universities in Nigeria are already teaching large classes of students using ICT, thus, Segun *et. al* (2013) suggested that with enhanced ICT capabilities, it would be possible for lecturers in universities to utilize carefully prepared ICT program or software such as PowerPoint as an effective instructional technology to ensure that learners are more accurately and systematically instructed.

PowerPoint has been recognized as one of the ICT programmes that is commonly used by lecturers in South-east Nigerian universities for instruction. In agreement Allan (2003) posited that PowerPoint is a widely used presentation programme that originated in the world of business but has now become prevalent in educational technology. PowerPoint refers specifically to a Microsoft Office Programme which enables users to create slide based presentations and can be used as a tool for lecturers in universities to create visually content rich presentations with multimedia for quality instruction (Real, 2014). It has become part of many instructional settings, particularly in large classes and in subject matters more geared towards information exchange than skill development (Smith, 2012), though the use of it for instruction is likened to Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) (Segun *et. al.*, 2013).

PowerPoint is commonly used in South-east Nigerian universities for instructional purposes during lectures, workshops and seminars. In addition, Real (2014) explained that lecturers can use it for the following instructional purposes; preparation of notes and lessons for systematic instruction, inclusion of images, daily instruction routines, classroom or student showcase, videos and multimedia presentations, inclusion of graphics and chats, and audio. In the view of Melissa (2013), the use of PowerPoint enhances instruction and learning and breaks out topics into understandable points. Similarly, Allan (2003) opined that the purpose of using PowerPoint presentation is to enhance teaching and learning. Smith (2012) stated that it can be used to improve audience focus, engage multiple learning styles, synthesize complex subject matters and increase visual impact among others. In Segun *et. al.* (2013), the use of PowerPoint enhances lecturer's oral

presentation and keeps students focused on the subject matter being taught. The importance of the use of PowerPoint slides for quality instruction cannot be overemphasized; hence practices on its development and utilization by lecturers of agricultural education for quality instruction in universities in South-east Nigerian should be given serious attention.

PowerPoint development practices by lecturers of agricultural education for quality instruction entails the activities required by the lecturers in developing lessons on PowerPoint for quality instruction of students, especially on subject matters geared towards information exchange than skill development in Agriculture (Smith, 2012). More so, Isseks (2011) suggested that in developing PowerPoint for instructions, bullet points should be removed; lecturers should not waste time on fancy transitions and sound effects. This could be to avoid unnecessary distractions which will defeat the goals of instruction. In the view of Penciner (2013), the lecturer should create three documents which include speaker notes, a handout and slides. The implication is that it reduces much information on the slide during instruction or presentation. Also, at the end of instructions lecturers should give out detailed handouts of lessons taught. Penciner (2013) suggested the following PowerPoint development practices which could be adopted by lecturers in South-east Nigerian universities for quality instructions; use of narration and relevant images; usually narration and images are better than narration and text; consider not to use bullets; limit the information on the slide; and use interesting multimedia presentations but avoid excess use of multimedia. Real (2014) equally noted that lecturers should create visuals on the slides that go along with what is being presented and effective presentations should not have a lot of text, nor should they have flashing text and other annoyances. When creating presentations, lecturers should also be aware of the need to keep notes concise while including interesting and relevant images, if properly carried out; it will be interesting and effective for learning (Collette, 2019). Development of good PowerPoint slides for instruction facilitates its effective utilization for quality instruction, therefore it should be noted that poorly developed PowerPoint affects instruction negatively.

Utilization of PowerPoint for instructions in the context of the study can be conceptualized to mean the effective use of carefully developed PowerPoint slides for systematic instruction in universities by lecturers of agricultural education. In using PowerPoint for instruction, Collette (2019) suggested that lecturers may want to follow the 10/20/30 rule which means that slides should not be more than 10, presentation is done under 20 minutes and the font is not smaller than 30 points. Also, the author noted that lecturers should be aware that too many words on the slides can be confusing to some students or that reading every word aloud on the slide can be boring for students that can already read materials. Brill (2019) is of the opinion that PowerPoint can be utilized to create dynamic, student-centred and hands-on-learning activities. This implies that the use of PowerPoint is not just for passive instruction but could be employed to deliver student-centred instruction. In agreement to Brill's opinion, Segun *et.al.* (2013) asserted that it enables the teacher to prepare his lesson's topic into slides accordingly and present such in the classroom in an interactive manner with the learners using computer system and a slide projector. Penciner (2013) suggested that while using PowerPoint for instruction, lecturers should ensure not to read slides and direct learners' attention to important passages and events. Hence this study sought to identify practices required by lecturers of

Agricultural Education in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities.

Statement of the problem

Indisputably, the emergence of ICT has improved the quality of instruction in institutions across Nigeria. PowerPoint is one of the ICT-applications that are commonly used by lecturers for instructions in universities. Unfortunately, a high percentage of the lecturers were trained before the advent of this application making it difficult for them to gain from the benefits of PowerPoint and enhance teaching in universities. Notably, some of the mistakes some ICT-literate lecturers make in the development and use of PowerPoint for instruction in universities include its limited use to an information transmission mode and often with excessive content. Also, some lecturers are reluctant to invest their time to developing appropriate PowerPoint format for instruction, those who do may not do it in an acceptable way, shortage of key technological elements required such as computers and projectors, and lack of appropriate training in technology and programme among others affect the development and utilization of PowerPoint for instruction (Allan, 2003). In agreement, the researchers observed that poor development and usage of PowerPoint for instruction, excessive contents in developed PowerPoint slides and lack of technological competences are some of the challenges affecting the development and use of PowerPoint for instruction by lecturers in universities in South-East Nigeria. These problems would likely affect the quality of instructional delivery in the universities and impede lecturers from measuring up to the global standard of developing and utilizing PowerPoint for quality instructions. Therefore, there is need to improve the practices of lecturers on the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in universities in South-East Nigeria. However, there are little or no empirical studies on the practices required for the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions by lecturers of agricultural education in South-east Nigeria. Hence, the study seeks to identify practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to identify practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. Specifically, the study sought to identify:

1. practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities; and
2. practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities.

Research questions

The following research questions were raised and answered for the study.

1. What practices are required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities?

2. What are the practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction South-East Nigerian universities?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated for the study and tested at .05-level of significance

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigeria universities.

Theoretical framework

The study is anchored on Technological-Pedagogical-Content Knowledge framework. This framework was propounded by Mishra and Koehler in 2006. The framework as elaborated by Luhamya, Bakkabulindi and Muyinda, (2017) is suitably adapted by the researchers to support this study. The central underlying tenet of the framework (TPACK) is that a lecturer depends on three domains of knowledge for effective integration of ICT into teaching and learning. These domains and their interactions are represented in the diagram below by Luhamya, Bakkabulindi and Muyinda, (2017).

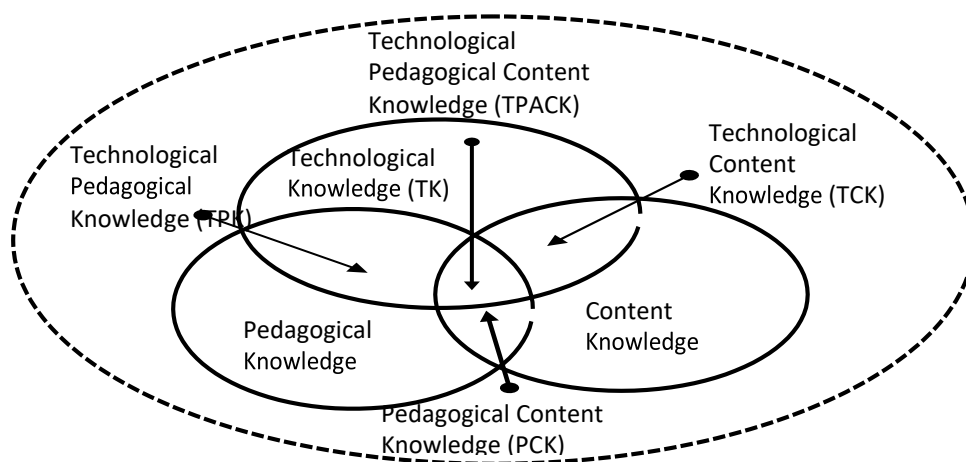


Figure 1: TPACK Framework by Mishra and Koehler (2006). **Source:** Luhamya, Bakkabulindi & Muyinda, (2017), pg-3

The domains of knowledge on which lecturers depend on for effective integration of ICT into teaching and learning include content knowledge (CK), pedagogical knowledge (PK) and technological knowledge (TK) (Luhanya, Bakkabulindi & Muyinda, 2017). These domains of knowledge are interdependent, that is to say, they interact with one another. CK refers to knowledge about the actual subject matter that is to be learned or taught. The implication of this domain is that lecturer's knowledge to the subject matter taught in agricultural education would assist them in selecting subject matters to be taught using PowerPoint. In addition, PK is viewed as the in-depth knowledge about the techniques of teaching and learning. This may include values, aims, classroom management, lesson planning, and student evaluation. The theorists posited that a lecturer with deep PK is likely to integrate technology in teaching while considering the best way students can learn in the classroom situation and also taking cognizance of the nature of learners. Hence, if agricultural education lecturers have deep pedagogical knowledge they will be able to develop and use PowerPoint for quality instruction in Nigerian Universities. TK has to do with the knowledge about standard technologies, such as books, chalkboard, and more advanced technologies such as the Internet and digital video, and how to operate those technologies. Mishra and Koehler (2006) asserted that a lecturer with TK has good knowledge of operating system and computer hardware, the ability to use standard sets of software tools (e.g. PowerPoint, word processors, spreadsheets, browsers, e-mail) and how to install and remove peripheral devices, install and remove programmes, create and archive documents among others. This implies that Agricultural Education lecturers with good TK can effectively integrate PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities.

More so, Mishra and Koehler (2006) posited that the interplay of these three knowledge domains; CK, PK and TK gives rise to three paired knowledge domains namely pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), technological content knowledge (TCK) and technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK). Mishra and Kohler defined PCK as the knowledge of pedagogy that is applicable to the teaching of specific content such as knowing what teaching approaches fit content, and likewise, knowing how elements of the content can be arranged for better teaching. Mishra and Koehler defined TCK as the knowledge about the manner in which technology and content are reciprocally related. The authors further asserted that a lecturer needs to know not just the subject matter he/ she teaches but also the manner in which the subject matter can be changed by the application of technology. Mishra and Kohler (2006) defined TPK as knowledge of the existence, components and capabilities of various technologies as they are used in teaching and learning settings and conversely, knowing how teaching might change as the result of using particular technology. According to the diagram shown above (*Figure 1*), TPACK is the intersection of all the three bodies of knowledge (CK, PK & TK). Mishra and Kohler argued that the development of TPACK by lecturers is central for effective teaching with technology because understanding. TPACK is above and beyond understanding technology, content, or pedagogy in isolation, but rather how these forms of knowledge interact with each other for effective integration of ICT into teaching and learning (Luhanya, Bakkabulindi & Muyinda, 2017). This implies that the development of TPACK by lecturers of agricultural education will assist them to effectively integrate PowerPoint into teaching in Universities. Hence, agricultural education lecturers need to improve their practices on the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities.

REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Past and recent studies have focused more on the advantages and disadvantages of PowerPoint utilization in education. PowerPoint is undoubtedly a veritable instrument which enhances delivery of lectures in Universities. Its limitation in educational technology is that it depends on the nature of subject matter to be delivered and secondly, the lecturer's technological competence (Szabo & Hastings, 2000; Lowry, 2003; Jones, 2006; Babb & Ross, 2009; Vernadakis, et. al., 2011). However, researchers have devoted more time in studying the roles, impacts, or effects of the utilization of PowerPoint presentation on education when compared to traditional teaching methods (Chalk or Whiteboard method). The utilization of PowerPoint has been found to enhance teaching and learning. It enhances material understandability, academic achievement and retention of students among others (Brock & Joglekar, 2011; Erdemir, 2011; Sabra & Yogin, 2011; Rajabi & Ketabi, 2012; Ozaslan & Maden, 2013; Swati, Suresh, & Sachin, 2014; Alipanahi, 2014; Amosa, Hamdalat and Sherifat, n.d ;). Meo *et al.* (2013) argued that both PowerPoint and the chalkboard have strengths and limitations, and both have pedagogical value in teaching and learning. Therefore, methods of teaching that integrate the two are more effective.

Specifically, Erdemir (2011) carried out a study to investigate the effect of the use of PowerPoint presentation on student's achievement when compared to the traditional lecture method. The post-test results of this study revealed that the students who were exposed to PowerPoint Presentation-supported lectures were more successful than those in traditional lectures after the instruction. More so, findings of the study showed that the use of PowerPoint is not only for conveying declarative subject matters but could also improve students' understanding of more complex ideas that are presented during instructions. Thus, Erdemir (2011) concluded that the teaching method supported by PowerPoint presentations had a positive impact on the student teachers' achievement. Sabra and Yogini (2011) examined the possible relationship of the use of PowerPoint slides and teaching effectiveness. The findings of the study revealed that the use of presentation software such as PowerPoint varies depending on instructors' teaching styles. The connection between the number of PowerPoint slides used in class and perceived teaching effectiveness is not shown to be very robust, rather the character and use of slides is the main focus in student feedback. The suggested rule of thumb is no more than three bullet points or 20 words per slide. The researchers concluded that developing more visual slides is important as it's using PowerPoint to structure argument and to develop concepts that cannot be easily captured in words. Rajabi and Ketabi (2012) studied the effect of PowerPoint presentation on enhancing learners' application of cohesive devices to their academic writing. The findings of this study clearly revealed the role of PowerPoint in developing productive language skills namely speaking and writing. Ozaslan and Maden (2013) concluded that course material presented through some visual tools such as PowerPoint, results in better learning and higher interest in the course. The researchers laid emphasis that using PowerPoint presentations made the content more appealing and attracted students' attention more. Alipanahi (2014) investigated the impact of PowerPoint presentation on vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension ability of EFL high school learners. The results of the study showed the success of PowerPoint in both cases.

In contrast, Daniel, Missaye and Gebeyehu (2015) carried out a comparative study on the PowerPoint presentation and traditional lecture method in material understandability, effectiveness and attitude. The purpose of this study was to examine the possible relationship of the use of PowerPoint slides and effective teaching. The findings of the study revealed that lecture method had more positive impact on students' material understandability; also it was more effective in teaching/learning process than the use of PowerPoint presentation. Researchers concluded that though the result of this study is discouraging to the use of technology in education it is not safe to conclude and generalize, hence the intelligent use of technology is needed during instructions to improve students' academic achievement. Based on the review above, recent studies on the utilization of PowerPoint have bordered more on examining its effect on teaching and learning. Unfortunately, there is little or no empirical study on practices required by lecturers in developing and utilizing PowerPoint for quality instruction in universities; hence this study sought to bridge the gap.

METHODOLOGY

A survey research design was adopted for the study. This design was suitable for this study because data was collected from respondents using questionnaire with the objective of generalizing the findings on the entire population. The area of study was in South-East Nigeria. It is one of the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria with 5 member States. These member States that make up South-East Nigeria include: Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo. The South East States have boundaries with Delta State by the West, Benue State and Cross-River State by the East, Akwa-Ibom State and River State by the South and Kogi State by the North. The choice of the area was borne out of the fact that there are 6 universities in South-East Nigeria that offer agricultural education programme with lecturers that could help to generate data for the study. Also, it was in this area that the researchers identified the problem for the study. The target population of the study was 56 persons made up of 34 male and 22 female lecturers of Agricultural Education in 6 public universities in South-East Nigeria. The study used universe or census; hence there was no sampling. This is because the entire population of study was manageable by the researcher.

A researcher-developed structured questionnaire titled: "PowerPoint Development and Utilization Practices Questionnaire" (PDUPQ) was used as an instrument for data collection. This instrument was adapted by the researcher from review of related literatures (Brill, 2019; Collette, 2019; Penciner, 2013; Real, 2014; Segun *et.al.* 2013; Smith, 2012). The PDUPQ was structured on four point scale of Agreed, Strongly Agreed, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed with corresponding values of 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The questionnaire consisted 27 items and was grouped into 2 sections. The first section comprised the status of respondents (Male and Female). The second section comprised 2-clusters, Cluster-A comprised 17 items on practices required by lecturers of Agricultural Education in development of PowerPoint for quality instructions while cluster-B contained 10 items on practices required by lecturers of Agricultural Education in utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction.

The instrument was validated by 3 experts, one Computer Educationist from the Department of Science Education, one Agricultural Educationist from the Department of Agricultural and Home Science Education and one Computer technologist from the Department of Computer Science, all in Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike, Abia State. Some items were reconstructed to elicit desired information from respondents based on the suggestions of experts after face validation. A pilot study was carried out with 10 lecturers of Agricultural education in Akwa Ibom with the aid of a research assistant and the internal consistency of PDUPQ was determined at an acceptable reliability index of .86 using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient test. The director of Research and Ethics in each of the South-East Nigerian public universities granted ethical clearance and approval through the Head of Departments of Agricultural Education to use agricultural education lecturers as participants in the study. Researchers sought the consent of respondents and their participation in the study was entirely voluntary. Therefore, fifty six copies of the PDUPQ were successfully administered by researchers to the respondents with the help of 5 research assistants in 5 South-East Nigerian public universities. Administered copies of the questionnaire were successfully retrieved from respondents.

Data collected for the study were confidentially analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation. Mean was used to answer the research questions while standard deviation was used to determine degree of responses. Independent Sample test was used to test the 2 stated hypotheses at 0.05-level of significance. The following rules guided decisions reached in the study: questionnaire items with mean scores ≥ 2.50 on 4-point scale were described as "Agreed" while mean scores < 2.50 average on 4-point scale were described as "Disagreed". In testing the hypotheses, *t-cal.* values less than ± 1.96 were taken as not significant (NS). Data collected for the study were organized using EXCEL and analyzed using SPSS -version 22 by the researchers.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study and discussion are presented in the Tables below.

Research Question 1: What practices are required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities?

The results for research question 1 are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of respondents on practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in development of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities (N = 56)

S/N	Item Statement	μ	σ	Remark
1	Create three documents for a particular lecture (instruction notes, a handout and PowerPoint slides for instruction)	3.20	.829	A
2	Notes on slides should be concise	3.04	.602	A
3	Avoiding bullet points on slides	3.23	.952	A
4	Use narration format in developing instructions	3.02	.724	A
5	Use suitable images instead of text to backup narration	3.32	.777	A
6	Avoid fanciful transitions of slides	3.03	.577	A
7	Avoid fanciful and excessive sounds	3.51	.732	A
8	Use 20/60/30 rule (slides should not be more than 20, presentation is done under 60 minutes and the font is not smaller than 30 points)	2.61	.598	A
9	Create student-centred activities on slides	3.03	.594	A
10	Insert short Videos where necessary to buttress narration	3.23	.548	A
11	Avoid colour riots on slides	3.46	.642	A
12	Use moderate attractive colour on slides	3.33	.533	A
13	Instructions on PowerPoint should have beginning, middle and end	3.38	.488	A
14	Key words should be noted on slides	3.25	.592	A
15	Ensure using the right font type that will be clear to the students	3.52	.502	A
16	Use a good font size in adding texts to the slides	3.08	.580	A
17	Frameworks explaining notes on PowerPoint should be developed	3.20	.672	A

μ = population mean, σ = standard deviation for population. A= Agreed, D= Disagree, N = Population of study,

Data in Table 1 reveal that mean responses of respondents in all the 17 items range from 2.61 to 3.52 which are above 2.50 on 4-point scale. This indicated that respondents agreed to the information represented by the 17 items as practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in development of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities. Standard deviations of the 17 items range from .488 to .952; this shows that their responses were close to the mean and to one another in degrees of responses.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities.

The results for testing hypothesis 1 are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: *Independent Sample Test of respondents on practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in development of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities*

Respondents	N	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	df	t-cal.	t-critical	Sig.(2-tailed)	Decision
Male	34	54.11	.385	54	.051	± 1.96	.420	Accept H_0
Female	22	53.99	.434					

\bar{X} = Mean, N = number of respondents, df = Degree of freedom, Sig. (2-tailed) = corresponding p-value, t-cal. is significant at $\geq \pm 1.96$ (t-critical.)

Data in Table 2 indicate that the *t-cal. value* from independent sample t-test of the mean responses of respondents is .051 which is less than ± 1.96 . This means that there was no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female lecturers of Agricultural education on practices required in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in Universities in South-East Nigeria. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities is not rejected in this study.

Research Question 2: What practices are required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities?

The results for research question 2 are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: *Descriptive Statistics of respondents on practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities (N = 56)*

S/N	Item Statement	μ	σ	Remark
1	Instruct students in a conversational manner following the PowerPoint slides and instruction note	3.16	.059	A, NS
2	Ensure the use of remote control to transit from one slide to the other	2.56	.671	A, NS
3	Instruction on PowerPoint should be procedural	2.54	.662	A, NS
4	Avoid reading notes on slides	2.68	.000	A, NS
5	Direct students' attention to important passages where necessary	3.04	.618	A, NS
6	Instruction on PowerPoint should be interactive	3.22	.680	A, NS
7	Avoid using PowerPoint for instruction in the dark	3.08	.613	A, NS
8	Guide presentation on PowerPoint with the instruction note	3.35	.545	A, NS
9	Rehearse before using PowerPoint for instruction	3.03	.479	A, NS
10	Give students detailed handout in line with PowerPoint instruction	3.22	.521	A, NS

μ = population mean, σ = standard deviation for population. A= Agreed, D= Disagreed, N = Population of study



Data in Table 3 show that mean responses of respondents recorded in all the 10 items range from 2.54 to 3.35 which are above 2.50 on 4-point scale. This indicated that respondents agreed to the information represented by the 10 items as practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities. Also, standard deviations of the 10 items range from .000 to .680; this implies that their responses were close to the mean and to one another in degrees of responses.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. The results for testing hypothesis 2 are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: *Independent Sample Test of respondents on practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities (N = 56)*

Respondents	N	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	df	t-cal.	t-critical	Sig.(2-tailed)	Decision
Male	34	29.70	.530	54	.068	± 1.96	.601	Accept Ho
Female	22	30.02	.629					

\bar{X} = Mean, N = number of respondents, df = Degree of freedom, Sig. (2-tailed) = corresponding p-value, t-cal. is significant at $\geq \pm 1.96$ (t-critical.)

Data in Table 4 show that the *t-cal. value* from independent sample t- test of the mean responses of respondents is .068 which is less than ± 1.96 . This indicates that there was no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities is not rejected in this study.

DISCUSSION

The study found that respondents agreed to the 17 items as practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction South-East Nigerian universities. On the other hand, respondents agreed to the 10 items as practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian universities. The study also found that there was no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. Specifically, the study also found that practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities included creating three documents; the instruction note, the handout and the PowerPoint slide, having concise note on slides, avoiding bullet points, using narrations and suitable images, avoiding fanciful transitions and excessive sounds, creating student-centred activities

on slides, use of short videos, avoiding colour riots, instructions should have beginning, middle and end among others. Isseks (2011) agreed to some of these practices when he stated that in developing a PowerPoint for instruction a teacher should remove bullet points, avoid fanciful transition of slides and sound effects. In agreement, Penciner (2013) shared one of the opinions of Isseks when he suggested that teachers should consider not using bullets in developing PowerPoint. In line with the findings of the study, Penciner (2013) further stated that teachers should create three documents, the speaker note, a handout and slide, use relevant images and narration, consider not using bullets and limiting information on slide. Collette (2019) in agreement to one of Penciner's opinion which is in line with the findings of the study advised that instructors should be aware that too many words on the slides can be confusing to some students. Brill (2019) asserted in line with the results of the study that PowerPoint can be used by teachers to create dynamic, student-centred and hands-on-learning activities.

In addition, the findings of the study on practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the use of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities included instructing students in a conversational manner following the PowerPoint slides and instruction note, ensuring the use of remote control to transit from one slide to the other, instruction on PowerPoint should be procedural, avoiding reading on slides, directing students' attention to important passages where necessary, rehearsing before using PowerPoint for instruction, avoid using PowerPoint for instruction in the dark, instruction on PowerPoint should be interactive among others. In line with some of the findings of the study, Segun *et al.* (2013) stated that PowerPoint enables the teacher to prepare a topic and present such in the classroom in an interactive manner with the learners using computer system and a slide projector. In agreement, Collette (2019) advised that reading every word aloud on the slide aloud can be boring for an audience that can already read materials. Penciner (2013) shared this opinion when he stated that in using PowerPoint, teachers should not read words on slides. More so, the finding of the study revealed that there was no significant difference between the mean responses of male and female Agricultural education lecturers on practices required in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. The implication of this to the study is that the responses or perceptions of both male and female agricultural education lecturers were not significantly different from each other with respect to the practices required in the development and utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities; hence the null hypothesis is not rejected.

CONCLUSION

The following conclusions were made based on the findings of the study.

- There are 17-practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the development of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. These include; creating three documents; the instruction note, the handout and the PowerPoint slide, having concise note on slides, avoiding bullet points, using narrations and suitable images, avoiding fanciful transitions and excessive sounds, creating student-centred activities on slides, use of short videos, avoiding colour riots, instructions should have beginning, middle and end among others.



- There are 10-practices required by Agricultural Education lecturers in the utilization of PowerPoint for quality instruction in South-East Nigerian universities. These include; instructing students in a conversational manner following the PowerPoint slides and instruction note, ensuring the use of remote control to transit from one slide to the other, instruction on PowerPoint should be procedural, avoiding reading on slides, directing students' attention to important passages where necessary, rehearsing before using PowerPoint for instruction, avoid using PowerPoint for instruction in the dark, instruction on PowerPoint should be interactive among others.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the conclusions of the study.

- Agricultural education lecturers should adopt the 17-practices on the development of PowerPoint identified by this study for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian Universities. Some of these practices among other include; creating three documents; the instruction note, the handout and the PowerPoint slide, having concise note on slides, avoiding bullet points, using narrations and suitable images, avoiding fanciful transitions and excessive sounds and creating student-centred activities on slides.
- Agricultural education lecturers should adopt the 10-practices on the use of PowerPoint identified by this study for quality instructions in South-East Nigerian Universities. Some of these practices among others include; instructing students in a conversational manner following the PowerPoint slides and instruction note, ensuring the use of remote control to transit from one slide to the other, instruction on PowerPoint should be procedural, avoiding reading on slides, directing students' attention to important passages where necessary, rehearsing before using PowerPoint for instruction.

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THE IMPACT OF CHILD LABOUR ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS IN OLORIN EAST, KWASA STATE, NIGERIA.

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed the impact of Child labour on academic achievement of pupils in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State, Nigeria. Two research questions were raised and were tested with two null hypotheses. Survey research design was adopted. The population for the study was all the eighty-three public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government. Five schools were selected as sample and forty respondents from classes 5 and 6 from each school were randomly selected for the study, making total of two hundred respondents. The instruments used for data collection was the score in the report card of the students for 2015/2016 academic session. Frequency distribution and percentages were used to analyze the demographic data obtained from the respondents while a t-test was used to test the null hypotheses generated at 0.05 level of significance. The findings showed that, there is a significant difference in the academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, and there is a significant difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State. The study recommended among others that children exposed to labour should be given equal right to attend school regardless of any engagement in labour activity. It also recommended that government/parents should develop strategies to reduce or eradicate child labour activities.

KEYWORDS: Abuse, primary, academic, child abuse.

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Introduction

There are numerous ethnic groups in Nigeria, but three major tribes comprise the majority of the people; the Igbo in the East, the Yoruba in the West and the Hausa in the North. The Nigerian nation is endowed with rich natural resources and extensive human resources but has not developed the necessary technology, industrial, managerial and political know-how to pull its resources together in a stable economy to take care of the basic needs of its population (Ebigbo, 2003). Thus, poverty and unfavorable living condition seem to be prevalent factors affecting children. Therefore, the country is characterized by cultural conflict, religious crisis, economic and social factors, family disintegration, environmental threats, and political challenges facing the country.

Consequently, Nigerian children are highly vulnerable to income gap or poverty, cultural values, religious incidence and unacceptable economic and social factors. These include urbanization and migration; health challenges; environmental intimidation; domestic violence and family disintegration; social exclusion and discrimination; harmful traditional practices based on cultural values and educational disadvantages (Nicola, Nicholas & Banke 2012). It is assumed that poverty is the single largest factor behind child abuse, although religious and socio-cultural values and unequal gender relations are also important determinants. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines child abuse as "all forms of physical or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or child labour/commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power"(WHO, 2016).

In Nigeria, mostly, girls are trafficked primarily into domestic service, street hawking and commercial sexual exploitation. While boys tend to be trafficked into street vending, agriculture, mining, petty crime and the drug trade, (Nicola et al. 2012). Thus, to a reasonable extent, the economic divide has placed the Nigerian child in fosterage, with its associated risks and abuse. The situation according to Nicola et al. (2012) reveals that approximated 15 million Nigerian children are involved in child labour Nigeria, in different hubs of the economy, informal or semi-formal sectors. Thus, the economic necessity significantly seems to be the driven much of the children who are often forced into long hours and dangerous situation that are harmful, because physiological, psychological growth are not appropriate. The effort to survive has exposed them to accidents, violence, sexual exploitation, trafficking, and HIV infection. Heady (2003) also observed that a child engaged in child labour activities faces exhaustion or a diversion of interest away from academic concerns.

In Nigeria, it has been observed that the academic performance of children in public primary schools in the State is becoming low. One wonders if such low academic performance is as a result of the maltreatment children are exposed to. In almost all parts of Nigeria today, children are crying for freedom; freedom from oppression and suppression; freedom to go to school; freedom to make decisions that affect their lives; they want their rights as human. They may be black, poor and illiterate, beggars, hawkers, deprived their right but needs respect and can be respected. In the whole World children must be free from the clog of abuse of any sort. Child maltreatment affects students' academics, behaviors, emotional well-being, and social development. It is important for educators to understand the various



impacts of childhood maltreatment. The study therefore seeks to find out if child abuse has any influence on the academic performance of primary school pupils. Specially, the question is; does physical and emotional abuse influence the academic performance of primary school pupils?

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to assess the impact of child labour on academic performance of children in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State. Specifically, this study intends to:

1. Find out the differences in academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.
2. Determine the differences in the achievement of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.

Research Questions

As a guide, the following research questions were raised and answered.

1. What is the difference in academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State?
2. What is the difference in the academic achievement of male and female children exposed to labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State?

Research Hypotheses

The research questions were transformed into two hypotheses: The following were raised and tested;

1. There is no significant difference in academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.
2. There is no significant difference in academic achievement of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Concepts of child abuse

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines child abuse as "all forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or child labour/commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power"(WHO, 2016). In the United States, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) use the term child maltreatment to refer to both acts of commission (abuse), which include "words or overt actions that cause harm, potential harm, or threat of harm to a child". And an act of omission (neglect), meaning, the failure to provide for a child's basic physical, emotional, or educational needs or to protect a child from harm or potential harm.

The United States Federal Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act defines child abuse and neglect as, at minimum, "any recent act or failure to act on the part of a parent or caretaker which results in death, serious physical or emotional harm, sexual abuse or exploitation" and/or "an act or failure to act which presents an imminent risk of serious harm" (Herrenkohl, 2005).

Types of child abuse

The World Health Organization distinguishes child abuse on the following:

Physical abuse

Professionals and the general public often do not agree on what behaviour constitute physical abuse of a child (Noh, 1994). Physical abuse often does not occur in isolation, but as part of a constellation of behaviors including authoritarian control, anxiety-provoking behavior, and a lack of parental warmth (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008). WHO defines physical abuse as; intentional use of physical force against the child that results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in harm for the child's health, survival, development or dignity. This includes hitting, beating, kicking, shaking, biting, strangling, scalding, burning, poisoning and suffocating. Much physical violence against children in the home is inflicted with the object of punishing (WHO, 2016).

Sexual abuse

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is a form of child abuse in which an adult or older adolescent abuses a child for sexual stimulation (Medline Plus, 2008) Sexual abuse refers to the participation of a child in a sexual act aimed toward the physical gratification or the financial profit of the person committing the act (Theoklitou, Kabitsis & Kabitsi, 2012). Effects of child sexual abuse on the victim(s) include guilt and self-blame, flashbacks, nightmares, insomnia, fear of things associated with the abuse (including objects, smells, places, doctor's visits, etc.), self-esteem difficulties, sexual dysfunction, chronic pain, addiction, self-injury, suicidal ideation, somatic complaints, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder and anxiety.

Psychological abuse

John (2014) viewed psychological abuse as: spurning, terrorizing, isolating, exploiting, corrupting, denying emotional responsiveness, or neglect, a repeated pattern of caregiver behaviour or extreme incident(s) that convey to children that they are worthless, flawed, unloved, unwanted, endangered, or only of value in meeting another's needs. Some have defined it as the production of psychological and social defects in the growth of a child as a result of behavior such as loud yelling, coarse and rude attitude, inattention, harsh criticism, and denigration of the child's personality (Theoklitou, Kabitsis and Kabitsi, 2012). Other examples include name-calling, ridicule, degradation and destruction of personal belongings. (John, 2014).

Neglect

Child neglect is the failure of a parent or other person with responsibility over the child to provide needed food, clothing, shelter, medical care, or supervision to the degree that the child's health, safety, and well-being are threatened with harm. Neglect is also a lack of attention from the people surrounding a child, and the non-provision of the relevant and adequate necessities for the child's survival, which would be a

lacking in attention, love, and nurture (Theoklitou, Kabitsis & Kabitsi, 2012).

Child labor

Child labor refers to the employment of children in any work that deprives children of their childhood, interferes with their ability to attend regular school, or is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful (International Labour Organisation, 2012). The International Labour Organization considers such labour to be a form of exploitation and abuse of children (International Labour Organisation, 2011). Child labour refers to the exploitation of children through any form of work that deprives children of their childhood, interferes with their ability to attend regular school, and is mentally, physically, socially or morally harmful. Such exploitation is prohibited by legislation worldwide, although these laws do not consider all work by children as child labour; exceptions include work by child artists, family duties, supervised training, and some forms of [child work](#) practiced by [Amish](#) children, as well as [by indigenous children](#) in the Americas. (*International Labour Organization 2011, 2012, United Nation 2006*).

Concept of child labour

The employment of children Act 1938 said that anyone under fifteen (15) years is a child. However, the Child Act 1974 laid down sixteen (16) years as the age of maturity. Children are internationally described to be human beings below the eighteen (18) years of age. They are special link between the present and future generations. This fact about children could be one of the major reasons, which motivated the General Assembly of the United Nations (UN) at its convention on the 20th of November, 1989 to identify and adopt the children's rights. The right was ratified by a World submit on Children's Rights by UNICEF in 1990. The right of the child has fifty-four (54) articles. Odusanya (2002) defined a child as someone who is under fourteen (14) years of age that is time of care, protection and learning. During this period, there are many issues that the child cannot deal with: the parents and society are expected to take responsibility for whatever a child does during this period and determine the kind of adult he/she will become. Children are special and they hold the key to the future of any nation. There should be more concrete programmes and welfare and safety of vision children, to aid their growth to full physical and intellectual potentials in a technology driven world.

Causes of child labour

Childhood is the most innocent stage in a human life. It is that phase of life where a child is free from all the tensions, fun-loving, play, and learns new things, and is the sweetheart of all the family members. But this is only one side of the story. The other side is full of tensions and burdens. Here, the innocent child is not the sweetheart of the family members, instead he/she is an earning machine working the entire day in order to satisfy the needs and wants of his/her family. Child labour includes working children who are below a certain minimum age. Child labour causes damage to a child's physical and mental health and also keep him deprived of his basic rights to educations, development, and freedom. There are various causes and effects of child labour which include the following:



(i) Poverty and unemployment

Poverty is the primary cause of child labour. Poor parents send their children to work, not out of choice, but for reasons of economic expediency. Poor children and their families may rely upon child labour in order to improve their chance of attaining basic necessities. About one - fifth of the Worlds six billion (6,000, 000,000) people live in absolute poverty. The intensified poverty in parts of Africa, Asia and Latin America causes many children there to become child labourers.

(ii) Adult unemployment and urbanization

Adults often find it difficult to find jobs because factory owners find it more beneficial to employ children at cheap rates. Adult exploitation of children is also seen in many places. Elders relax at home and live on the labour of poor helpless children.

(iii) The global economy intensifies the effect of some factors. As multinational corporations expand across borders, countries compete for jobs, investment and industries. This competition sometimes slows child labour reform by encouraging corporations and governments to seek low labour costs by resisting international standards.

(v) Laws and enforcement are often inadequate

Child labour laws around the World are often not enforced or include exemptions that allow for child labour to persist in certain sectors, such as agriculture or domestic work. Even in countries where strong child labour laws exist, labour departments and labour inspection offices are often underfunded and under-staffed, or courts may fail to enforce the laws. Similarly, many state governments allocate few resources to enforcing child labour laws.

(vi) Worker's rights are repressed

Worker's abilities to organize unions affect the international protection of core labour standards, including child labour. Attacks on worker's abilities to organize make it more difficult to improve labour standards and living standards in order to eliminate child labour. For example, in 2001, ten thousand (10,000) workers were fired and four thousand (4,000) workers were arrested as a result of their union activity according to the international confederation of Free Trade unions.

Forms of child labour

Child labour is often defined as work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development. Work that interferes with the child schooling by: depriving them of the opportunity to attend school, forcing them to leave school prematurely or requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work can be referred to as "child labour". There are many reasons attributed to child work; poverty, lack of education, lack of knowledge of one's rights and cultural tradition are all contributing factors. The United Nation's Children Fund (UNICEF, 1998) divided the profile of child labour in Nigeria into three categories:

1. Domestic servants in private households

This constitutes domestic workers in household of elite and sub-elite families who worked in the middle and upper echelons of bureaucracy private areas. Child labour problem is closely linked to the continents poverty, and can only be eliminated with increase in family income and children's educational opportunities.

2. Child trafficking

Child trafficking includes recruitment, transportation or receipt of a child for the purposes of sexual or labour exploitation, forced labour or slavery. Trafficking in children is a human right tragedy estimated to involve over a million children worldwide. Child trafficking is only one of the more pernicious aspects of a much broader problem. Africa is said to have the highest incidence of child labour in the world. Trafficking is conceived to be a new form of slave trade and has grown in security and magnitude in recent years particularly in southern Nigeria.

3. Hawking

Hawking entails carrying ware's about for sale. It may involve the hawker offering the goods from door to door. Of the categories of child labour in the United Nation's Children Fund (UNICEF) profile, hawkers have received the most controversial attention. They constitute a majority of sixty four point three percent (64.3%) of children working in public places. The young traders are seen throughout the day and every day of the week. Ebigbo (2003) rightly observed, the streets in the major city centers of Nigeria were filled with children hawking, he further maintained that this was not a good way of preparing a child for future employment.

4. Child begging

Another form of child labour that many Nigerians might not have noticed is child begging. This has become a kind of profession where children are tactically involved and exploited. This form of labour has many faces. In some cases, children who are well and fit to be in school, but for some reasons are taken to the streets to beg. Some serve as beggar guides and are normally settled by their employers who are either old people or blind adults. Sociologically, begging is a social deviance and a social problem which includes gaining material benefit by asking for money from other persons, with no intent to reimburse the money or to provide service in return (Claire & Madalina 2012).

Child labour and academic achievement

Child labour is often a complex issue sustained by employers' vested interest, class distinction and poverty, which has denied the child the opportunities to have basic education. According to Garrison (1965) "Reliability of young people to embrace the opportunities for employment will depend to a large extent upon the type of education and training they receive". In Nigeria, education can hold the key towards successful livelihood, while lack of it can spell doom for the individual. If lower attendance is meaningful for human capital accumulation, it should translate into lower schooling attainment. Moreover, beyond attendance, work may undermine human capital accumulation by interfering with learning as evident in test scores or schooling completion rates. Lylhydal (1990) reported that working part time in

high school actually raised grade point average (GPA) as long as student worked less than thirteen point five (13.5) hour per week.

Heady (2003) observed that a child engaged in child labour activities faces exhaustion or a diversion of interest away from academic concerns. It may imply that it is not working that harms educational performance, but a lack of motivation that affects both work and learning. Heady (2003), made use of a special living standard measurement survey in Ghana, that included information on test scores. It was found that child work had relatively little effect on school attendance. But had a substantial effect on learning performance in reading and mathematics. The effect remained strong even after controlling for the child's innate ability using Raven's test. Based on the fact that attendance was unaffected, the adverse consequence of child labour on student learning was attributed to exhaustion or lack of interest in academic performance rather than child time in school.

Some studies have found that child labour and schooling may be complementary activities (Patrinos & Psacharopoulos, 2007). A definitive answer on whether child labour lowers cognitive attainment requires direct estimation of the educational production function. Menezes and Filho (2003) observed negative effect on age on school performance when they analyzed the cause of the decline in achievement scores that occurred between the Standard American Examination Board (SAEB) examinations administered 1995 and 2001 in Brazil. According to Edmond (2007) panel, data in child labour histories were rarely available, so studies typically compared current labour supply to current attainment. This is hard because current work status necessarily depends on past education and work histories, as these affect the value of child time and whether it's optimal for child to work.

Empirical studies

Fetuga, Njokanma and Ogunlesi (2007), conducted a study to find out if working children have worse academic performance. The study was a descriptive cross-sectional school-based study conducted in public primary schools in Sagamu Local Government Area of Ogun State, Southwestern Nigeria. The sample size was randomly drawn from a population of school children. The results for Fetuga et al (2007) research showed no significant difference in the mean rate of school absence ($p = 0.80$), mean aggregate examination scores ($p = 0.1$) and proportion of class repeaters ($p = 0.16$) among working school children ($p = 0.017$). Similarly, the control group performed better than working school children of four core subjects but significant differences were observed only in Social Studies and Science ($p = 0.006$ and 0.001 respectively). This research was different from the present study in the sense that the researchers used experimental research while the present researcher will use survey design. Also these researchers carried out their study on primary school children in classes 4, 5 and 6 both boys and girls using age and gender while the present study focuses only primary 5 and 6 pupils.

Basil, Chen, Black and Saltzman (2007) carried out a research study on socio-economic factors influencing students' academic performance in Nigeria, the research was a survey research; the time frame of the study conversed the period of 2004 to 2007. The study was an attempt to find out the relationship between the indices of socio-economic factors and students' academic performance in a local survey in Oyo State. The sample size population was 120 and questionnaires were the instrument

for data collection. The similarity of Basil's research with the present research was the use of pupils who are in school for more than two years. The present research for impact of child abuse on academic achievement of pupils of five (5) and six (6) in the public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State, Nigeria. This is because these pupils have more than a year record of their performance. Basil et al. (2007) was more concern with the socio-economic factors affecting students who were older than the pupils in the present study and the use of a longer time for the research. Dosunmu and Abidogun (2011) affirmed that children from poor parental background are mostly engaged in child labour to make ends meet hence, find it difficult to continue in school since school attendance is interspaced with spells of employment. The present research dealt with pupils under child labour and those who are not. The present study will use 125 children giving room for a more reliable results and better analysis for the study.

Appraisal of Related Literature Review

It is shown that Child abuse in Nigerian and other parts of the world are cancerous because the environments, socio-political and economic developments of children are jeopardized at the altar of neglect. The Nigerian child and like every other child in world have equal right to live and such protect them from trampling on their right. It is noteworthy, that almost parts of the country are involved in child abuse. Children in Nigeria are exposed vulnerably to engage in street/highway hawking, exploitative labour and domestic help, street begging and girl-child marriage, illiteracy and female genital mutilation. However, championing the campaign against child abuse in Nigeria, the Federal Government of Nigeria enacts Child Right Act 2003 with the view to curtail the menace of child abuses in Nigeria and to join hands in the campaign of giving the child a place in the country as the future hope of a nation. Thus, it is worrisome that irrespective of the child Act and the role NGO's has played to save the needy (Nigerian Child) have not yielded convincing outcome to salvage the campaign. The persistence of child abuse in Nigeria continue to change shape and form everyday thereby exposing the lives of the innocent children to kidnappers, knocked to death by drivers, ritualists and wretched seen at the street crying for help without seeing one.

Therefore, the hope of a Nigerian child seems to reveal that the acceleration to socio-political and economic development is either perverted, or insipid. The past period of independence-struggle in Nigeria certainly was a time when the child was alive to its political responsibilities but this sense of devotion was short-lived. Nigerian Child seems to have degenerated to the point of almost becoming liability instead of an asset, in varying degrees throughout independent of the country, the situation in Northern Nigerian, the practice of almajirai (street begging) as part of living, is against the background of human existence. From the review, few of the literature discussed impact of child labour on school attendance and academic achievement of pupils in public primary schools particularly in Kwara State. It is this gap that the result of this study will help to fill.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Survey research design was adopted in this study. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2010) observed that this design enables the researcher to describe an event, situation or phenomenon as it is at the time of the study. It also helps the researcher to systematically document current opinions and information on research work. The population for the study comprises of students in eighty-three (83) existing public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government. The targeted population are classes five (5) and six (6) pupils of the public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 5 public primary schools out of which 40 students each were selected randomly to make a total of 200 samples for this study. The research instrument for this study is the score obtained by pupils in their report cards for 2014/2015 academic section. The research questions and hypotheses were given to the research experts in the field of test, measurement and evaluation for validation; consequently, the score obtained by the pupils for was recommended and checked after collection.

Data Analysis and Results

The data collected were analysed to test the research hypotheses generated. This gave a response return rate of 100%.

Analysis of Demographic Information

Table 1: Age of the Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent
8-10yrs	58	29.0
11-13yrs	98	49.0
13 & above	44	22.0
Total	200	100.0

From table 1, result shows that the respondents that are between 8-10yrs are 29% (58), respondents that are between 11-13yrs are 49% (98) and the respondents that are 13yrs and above are 22% (44). This shows that majority of the respondents are between the ages of 11-13years.

Table 2: Gender Distribution of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	84	42.0
Female	116	58.0
Total	200	100.0

From table 2, result shows that the male respondents are 42% (84) while the female respondents are 58% (116) which makes the total number of respondents to be 200. The result implies that the female respondents are more than the male respondents.

Hypotheses Testing

Two research hypotheses postulated for this study were tested using t-test at 0.05 level of significance.

Research Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in academic achievement of children expose to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.

Table 3: t-test analysis on the difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig (2 tailed)	Decision
Exposed	142	35.4	10.16	.603	198	.001	Rejected
Not Exposed	58	27.2	7.06				

p<0.05

Result from table 3 shows the t value yielded .603 which is significant with P value .001<0.05. This means that there is a significant difference in the academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.

Research Hypothesis Two: *There is no significant difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.*

Table 4: t-test analysis on the difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools.

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig (2 tailed)	Decision
Male	84	32.7	8.94	.524	198	.031	Rejected
Female	116	33.7	9.26				

p<0.05

Result from table 4 shows the t value yielded .524 which is significant with P value .031<0.05. This means that there is a significant difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State.

DISCUSSION

It is clear from the findings that, there is a significant difference in the academic achievement of children exposed to child labour and those who are not in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State ($P < 0.05$). Also, the children exposed to labour have low academic achievement scores, compared to those who are not exposed to labour ($X = 27.2 < 35.4$). These findings corroborate the submission of Fetuga, Njokanma and Ogunlesi (2007) that, working children have worse academic performance. Most of the pupils not exposed to labour had advantage over those exposed to labour academically. By implication this showed that, greater number of these pupils would be found wanting academically, which may lead to low academic achievement, and inability to cope with future academic challenges in schools. The findings of the study also revealed that, there is a significant difference in the academic performance of male and female children exposed to child labour in public primary schools in Ilorin East Local Government, Kwara State ($p < 0.05$). Lastly, labour activities affect more female respondents as shown in the school attendance of the female respondents. Female pupils' school attendance found to be more affected by labour than their male counterparts, which is a source of concern.

CONCLUSION

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that, children who are exposed to child labour are deficient in academic achievements compare to their counterparts who do not engage in child labour. Also, female students engaging in labour, have low school attendance compare to their male counterparts.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were put forward:

1. Children exposed to labour should be given equal right to attend school regardless of any engagement in labour activity.
2. Parents and community should be mindful of age and sex of their children before exposing them to labour.
3. Children exposed to labour activities should be given equal right to attend school regardless of any engagement in labour activity.
4. Parents and the school authority should ensure that female pupils are retained in school by providing girl child friendly environment.
5. Extra free classes should be introduced to children exposed to labour by the curriculum planners, with special preference to the female pupils exposed to labour.
6. The Government/Community should develop positive strategies to labour reduction or eradication towards a fruitful fulfillment of children's school attendance and academic achievement.

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