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Editorial

This year's volume of *Nkumba Business Journal* (NBJ) carries a little over a dozen papers contributed by authors based at universities and (private and government) organisations in Nigeria, Swaziland, Tanzania and Uganda.

The papers touch on aspects of business in agriculture, corporate management, counselling psychology, financial services and education. Under agriculture, the impact of agricultural modernization on the socio-economic status of smallholder farmers in two districts of Uganda is discussed. Corporate management touches on the rationale for and suggestions for the improved participation of corporations in the development of sports in Nigeria and on taxation. Counselling psychology touches on the evaluation of university students' psychosocial problems; the transformation of financial constraints through structural family counselling approaches; and on improvement of the quality of life of the elderly in Uganda. Financial services includes papers on social capital as a predictor of financial inclusion and on the impact of the national youth policy model on job creation in Uganda. Finally, under education, studies on child labour and the development of private secondary education in Nigeria are reported. Studies on teaching and learning and on universal primary education are also included.

It is our hope that readers find in this geographical and subject diversity the kind of interdisciplinary approach to the study and understanding of business that NBJ aspires to promote.

As we publish this volume, I wish to thank the anonymous reviewers who vetted the quality of the manuscripts and the journal's production team for their contribution to the journal. I also invite submissions for the next volume as indicated in the note to contributors at the end of this issue.

Professor Wilson Muyinda Mande

Editor

Impact of Agricultural Modernization on the Socio-Economic Status of Smallholder Farmers in Luweero and Nakaseke Districts in Uganda

Gerald Wamala, Mohammed Bogere, Margaret Angucia

Abstract. *The aim of this paper was to study the impact of agricultural modernization on the socio-economic status of smallholder farmers in Luweero and Nakaseke Districts. The study adopted a cross sectional research design using a sample size of 350 respondents who were randomly selected from eight Sub-counties in the two districts. Primary data collection was done through the use of self-administered questionnaires, interview guides and focused group discussions. The data was analysed using the independent samples t-test. The findings revealed that low adopters of modern agricultural practices were significantly at a disadvantage when it comes to the acquisition of valuable assets compared to high adopters. Findings further indicated that food security, household income and expenditure were significantly higher among high adopters than low adopters. Promotion of awareness about the benefits inherent in agricultural modernization as a vehicle for improving smallholder farmers' socio economic status is recommended.*

Keywords: Agriculture, Poverty alleviation, Small holder farming.

Introduction

Given the rising population in many countries on one hand and the decline in the carrying capacity of its agricultural land, over the recent years, strategies have been initiated to increase farm output to feed the growing population and one of such mechanisms has been urging farmers to adopt modern agricultural practices. Accordingly, in realization of its contribution to the economy, the government of Uganda started Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) in 2001. This was in realization of the fact that although about 80 percent of the country's population live in the countryside and derive their livelihood from farming, they face enormous constraints to increased productivity such as soil infertility, limited access to agricultural inputs, pests and diseases, lack of skills and knowledge, lack of capital and access to credit, market problems, poor roads and transport networks, among others (MAAIF & MFPED, 2012).

In this paper, a modest attempt was made to study the impact of Agricultural Modernization (AM) on the Socio-Economic Status (SES) of smallholder farmers in Luweero and Nakaseke Districts. The topic was particularly chosen in light of the objectives for which the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) was started as one of the major

tools for eradicating mass poverty through changing the dominant subsistence agriculture to business-oriented farming (Ssekandi and Chen, 2005). At that time, it was envisaged that modernization of the agricultural sector would result into the creation of more jobs especially in rural areas where 22 million Ugandans live and increase household income which would enable farmers improve their lifestyles, ensure food security among others (MAAIF, 2012).

According to Chuanqi (2012), agricultural modernization is an aspect of world modernization comprising of the transition from traditional agriculture (self-sufficient agriculture) to preliminary modern agriculture (marketized agriculture) as well as the transition from preliminary modern agriculture to advanced modern agriculture (knowledge agriculture). In the same vein, Ghosh et al. (2008) cited by Masoud and Asghar (2011) allude that agricultural modernization involves a process in which awareness is created, attitudes are changed and favourable conditions for adoption are provided. Among other things, the main characteristics of agricultural modernization are hybridization, mechanization, fertilizers and pesticides and large scale and intensive farms as Dibua (nd) indicates. Hybridization is the process of crossing two genetically different plants to result in a third crop variety with a different, often preferred, set of traits (Alemu and Tripp, 2010). Mechanization comes with higher capital intensity whereas chemicalization implies that farmers adopt practices that increase the efficiency in the use of fertilizer and chemicals required to produce a certain level of outputs (Otchia, 2014). In his submission, Villar (2000) explains that the process of transforming the agricultural sector into one that is dynamic, technologically advanced and competitive is reflected in the continuous increase of agricultural efficiency and farmer income, improvement in farmers' socio-economic status, assurance of agricultural product supply-demand balance and national food security.

Among the main reasons for agricultural modernization are the increase in labour productivity in order to increase profit; increase in food security, improving agricultural productivity, employment creation, the reduction of the unitary cost of production to beat the competition; and to enable the implementation of the agro-industrial complex in the country (Brum, 1988 cited by Caio, Ricardo and Marco, 2012). This can be achieved by developing and disseminating yield increasing practices and application of these practices by smallholder farmers. Thus, owing to its role in improving incomes for a vast

proportion of the population especially in countries of the developing world, agricultural growth is considered as the most effective means of addressing poverty. In these countries, nearly 75% of the poor people who live on less than a dollar a day work in the agricultural sector and projections suggest that more than 60% will remain rural until 2040 (Ravallion et al. 2007 quoted by Kalsey, 2013). For this reason, Gunnar (1968) quoted by Olawepo and Ibrahim (2013) succinctly stresses that it is in agriculture where the battle for long-term economic development will be won or lost.

Theoretically, the study was rooted in the diffusion of innovation theory developed by Everett Rogers in 1962. Described as the foundation of agriculture outreach methods by Garry (2003), the theory is based on the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. Specifically, the diffusion of innovation theory states that “an innovation (that is to say, an idea, new technique and new technology) diffuses or spreads throughout society in a predictable pattern”. The theory predicts that an innovation will initially be adopted by a small group of innovative farmers as soon as these innovative farmers hear of it, while others will take longer to try something new and still others will take much longer. Over time, this innovation will spread to other farmers. For example, when introducing a new improved crop variety, extension workers introduce the variety to a particular area and progressively other farmers adopt innovation through the diffusion process (Siegfried and Mbugua, 1972). That is, an innovation is first adopted by only a few, others follow and more and more are converted through the multiplier effect. Once a certain section of a social unit (model farmers) has adopted an innovation, technology or agricultural practice, it spreads automatically, as long as the diffusion process is not interrupted by intervening factors. Special importance is attached to persons through whom an innovation finds entry into a social unit. The early adopters may seek attention for their innovative behaviour and may act as model farmers. In Uganda for example, the government through the NAADS supported model farmers with various inputs to catalyse transformation from subsistence to commercial agriculture. For this purpose, extension workers were recruited to offer quality advisory services to farmers with four staff being employed per sub-county to provide this support. Following the diffusion process, many farmers responded after learning from model farmers and from advisory

services given out in respect to transformation from subsistence to commercial farming.

In Uganda, agriculture plays a pivotal role in the economic and social development of the country since the sector contributes about 43 percent to the country's Gross Domestic Product (MAAIF and MFPED 2012). The sector also accounts for 85 percent of foreign exchange earnings and provides employment to 80 percent of the population. However, in many parts of country, including the districts of Luweero and Nakaseke, a major characteristic of the agricultural sector is that agricultural output mainly comes from about 3 million smallholder farmers who constitute three quarters of the total and the hand- hoe is the predominant technology being used for cultivation (FAO Corporate document repository, nd). Although factors cited in the literature for the low farm output are enormous, one of the major factors is that a considerable proportion (99.4%) of smallholder farmers in Uganda use traditional, rudimentary and obsolete practices and methodologies (Masinde, 2013). In most parts of the country, farm power in agriculture to a great extent has continued to rely on human muscle power, based on operations that depend on the hoe and other hand tools. Such tools have implicit limitations in terms of energy and output. In this paper, it was envisaged that establishing the impact and outcome of a broad intervention across a sector like agriculture on poverty and food security over the long term is important in order to make rational conclusions as to whether agricultural modernization has contributed significantly towards improving smallholder farmers' socio-economic status.

Statement of the Problem

Smallholder farmers' socio-economic status cannot meaningfully improve if crop yields remain markedly low. In recognition of the importance of agricultural modernization in accounting for the remarkable improvement in farm productivity, various efforts have been made by the government of Uganda to develop strategies and policies aimed at increasing the adoption and uptake of modern farming by smallholder farmers. One of such strategies was the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) which was started in 2001 as one of the major tools for eradicating mass poverty by enabling farmers adopt new methods of production thereby changing the dominant subsistence agriculture to business-oriented farming. The uniqueness of

this study stems from the fact that since its inauguration in 2001, nobody, to the knowledge of the researcher has carried out an impact assessment of the role of PMA in the Districts of Luweero and Nakaseke with an aim of understanding the impact and helping to redress the policy failures experienced (if any) with modern agricultural farming in the two Districts. In fact, some anecdotal evidence points to no significant improvement in agricultural production, food security and income levels in terms of a genuine change from predominantly subsistence agriculture to an economy with a commercial agricultural sector (Egwel, 2012). In view of the above submission, the intent of this paper was to add to the scholarly body of knowledge by carrying out an empirical study on the impact of agricultural modernization on the socio-economic status of smallholder farmers in Luweero and Nakaseke Districts.

Purpose

The study sought to establish the impact of agricultural modernization on the socio-economic status of smallholder farmers in Luweero and Nakaseke Districts.

Objectives

1. To establish the extent to which the level of AM impacts on asset ownership among smallholder farmers
2. To find out whether the level of AM affects Food security among smallholder farmers
3. To establish whether the level of AM influences smallholder farmers income
4. To determine whether the level of AM impacts smallholder farmers' expenditure

Hypothesis

1. The level of AM impacts on asset ownership among smallholder farmers
2. The level of AM affects Food security among smallholder farmers
3. The level of AM influences smallholder farmers income
4. The level of AM impacts smallholder farmers' expenditure

Scope

The geographical scope of the study was restricted to two districts in Luweero triangle that include Nakaseke and Luweero Districts. In terms of content scope, the research was undertaken to determine the impact of agricultural modernization on smallholder farmers' socio-economic status in terms of asset ownership, food security, income level and total expenditure on agricultural inputs and non-agricultural expenses such as school fees, medical care, clothing, foot wear, soap, recreation and expenditures on saving schemes. In terms of time scope, the study considered a period of 14 years starting from 2001 when PMA was launched to the year 2014.

Related Literature

It is a general fact that modernization of the agricultural sector plays an important role in agricultural development and can contribute to an increase in agricultural yields and improvement in the welfare of farmers including other people living in rural areas. This section provides a review of the related literature regarding the hypothesized effect of smallholder farmers' participation in agricultural modernization on their socio-economic status based on what previous empirical studies have revealed.

Starting off things in Nigeria, Merga and Urgessa (2014) analysed the factors affecting modern agricultural technology adoption by farmers and the impact of technology adoption decision on the welfare of households in the study area. The result of the propensity score matching estimation showed that the average income and consumption expenditure of adopters are greater than that of non-adopters. Sofoluwe, Tijani and Ogundari (2013) evaluated the potential impact of indigenous agricultural technology adoption on poverty of farm households. Through an empirical investigation of the relationship between adoption of indigenous innovation of the crop protection type, and wellbeing of farm households in Nigeria, the result revealed a positive and significant effect of adoption on adopter's income suggesting that there is a large scope for enhancing the role of indigenous agricultural innovation in 'directly' contributing to poverty alleviation. In Malawi, Simtowe, et al (2012) investigated the welfare effects of agricultural technology adoption between adopters and non- adopters. In the analysis the study found positive and significant impacts of improved groundnut variety adoption on per capita consumption expenditure and

on poverty reduction. Using the comprehensive data set collected from 238 rice producers during 2011, Akhter, Olaf and Bahadur (2014) found out that adopter households have a higher income compared to non-adopting households. In Nigeria, a study by Awotide, et al (2012) examined the impact of improved rice varieties adoption on rice productivity and farming households' welfare. Among the key findings of their analysis, there was a significant positive impact of Agricultural Technology Adoption on rice productivity and total households' expenditure. This suggests that adoption of improved rice varieties significantly generates an improvement in farming household living standard.

On their part, Caio, Ricardo and Marco (2012) analysed the impacts and externalities of agricultural modernization in Brazilian states. The Spearman correlation test was used to verify the relationship and in the analysis, there was a significant and positive correlation between the agricultural modernization and per capita GDP and trade balance per capita. This means that agricultural modernization contributes to increased production, exports and the levels of socio-economic development of the states. Mariapia's (2007) study analysed the potential impact of agricultural technology adoption on poverty alleviation strategies through an empirical investigation of the relationship between technological change, of the Green Revolution type, and well-being of smallholder farm households in two rural Bangladeshi regions. The outcomes of his analysis revealed a robust and positive effect of agricultural technology adoption on farm household well-being. In Uganda, Kijima et al. (2008) studied the impact of NERICA varieties and found that NERICA adoption reduces poverty without deteriorating the income distribution. More recently, Dontsop, Diagne, Okoruwa and Ojehomon (2011) also examined the impact of NERICA adoption on farmers' welfare in Nigeria. The result of the study shows that adoption of NERICA varieties has a positive and significant impact on farm household income and welfare measured by the per capita expenditure and poverty reduction in rural Nigeria.

In contrast, Babatunde (2009) estimated the effects of new agricultural technology on poverty reduction. The study noted that participation in agricultural technology does not automatically lead to the reduction in poverty headcount levels and does not disproportionately improve the income of the poorest adopters in comparison with the non-adopters. The study thus concluded that although new agricultural practices have a potential to lead to poverty reduction and increase food security, this

does not mean that poor African countries should invest more in such technologies without consolidating the technical improvement of farmers where necessary, and for that reason, the new agricultural technology would not expressly lead to poverty reduction in poor countries. Another contrasting finding was reported by Hossain et.al. (2003 cited by Awotide, et al 2012) in Bangladesh where adoption of improved varieties of rice only had a positive impact on the richer households but this effect was negative to the poor. Furthermore, in another study, Bourdillon et al. (2002 cited by Awotide, et al 2012) revealed that the adoption of improved varieties of maize leads to a moderate increase in income of the adopters.

From the review, it can be seen that a number of studies have been conducted to analyse impact of adoption of agricultural technologies on farmers' socio-economic status. However, some have reported positive while others found negative impacts. In short, the results have been mixed and in other situations, the results have been weak in terms of statistical significance across the different methods, model specifications, and outcomes analysed, making it difficult to draw definitive and generalizable conclusions. This has resulted to scepticism regarding the validity and reliability of the results due to some contradictory and exaggerated results. Besides, most of the empirical studies that have tried to explore the issue of agricultural modernization and socio-economic status have been conducted outside Uganda. Within this mixed history of hopes, doubts, exaggerations and contradictions, this paper sought to assess whether agricultural modernization has brought the intended results among people in the war ravaged region of Luweero district.

Methodology

The study adopted a cross sectional research design since data was collected at a defined time. According to Dillman (2000), cross-sectional survey collects information from a sample that has been drawn from a pre-determined population at just one point in time. The study population comprised of smallholder farmers in the districts of Luweero and Nakaseke and the sample constituted a representative total of 350 respondents who were randomly selected from a total of eight Sub-counties in the two districts. Data collection was done by contacting the

respondents for first-hand information through the use of self-administered questionnaires, interview guides and focused group discussions. Statistical Analysis involved the use of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) programs and the main statistical test used was the independent samples t-test with an aim of comparing whether significant differences exist between low and high adopters of modern agricultural practices with regard to food security, asset ownership, income level and total expenditure

Findings and Discussion

This part of the paper presents and discusses the major findings of the study. It begins with some key background information of the respondents followed by the results of the statistical analysis and discussion under each objective of the study.

Background Information about the Respondents

Regarding gender distribution, males were represented by nearly 55 percent while females were represented by 45 percent. In, more than three quarters (77.1%) of the sampled homes were headed by males and nearly two thirds of the respondents were married while a sixth (16%) of the though not legally married, were living together as husband and wife. In relation to academic attainment, 57 percent had primary level as their highest academic attainment while 32 percent of the respondents had secondary education. The proportion of individuals with no education was almost nine percent (8.9%) while 1.7% was the proportion that had attained higher education. The results generally reflect low education levels among the sampled households and this perhaps explains why most of them chose to join farming. The average age was 46 ± 13 while the modal age was 45 years indicating that a typical smallholder farmer was economically active. When it comes to farming experience, the study found out that on average, respondents had practiced farming for 23 ± 15.1 years.

Turning to household size, the mean size of a household was 7 ± 3.8 and out of this, the average number of children (below 6 years) was 2 ± 1.6 which means that on average, the dependency ratio was generally low. The average number of children aged 6-17 years was 3 ± 2.4 while that of adults in the age bracket of 18-59 years was 2 ± 1.6 . Children aged 6-17 and adults aged 18-59 years were considered to be the ones in the

productive age. This means that a typical household in the two study areas on average had five members providing farm labour (i.e. $2.9+2.4=5.3$). In relation to land ownership, the number of acres included all the land on which the household had full ownership and the acres she/he was renting, borrowed or was under lease.

Agricultural Modernization

In this paper, smallholder farmers constituted farmers with small farms of less than one hectare of land supporting a single family with a mixture of cash crops and subsistence farming and are mainly dependent on family labour. These farmers were categorized as either low or high adopters of modern agricultural practices. In measuring the level of adoption, eleven questions were formulated and respondents were asked to indicate whether they have practiced each or any of the 11 practices and the responses were based on No and Yes responses. The responses for these questions had binary responses where the former was given a code of zero (0) while the latter was assigned a code of one (1). A sum of scores on these questions was obtained and these ranged from 0-11 with higher score signifying higher level of adoption and vice versa. For comparative purposes, respondents whose score was between zero and five were considered to be low adopters while high adopters were those whose scores on the index of adoption was between six to eleven. The lead question was: in the last two years, have you practiced/used any of the following on your farm? Figure 1 presents a summary of the responses.

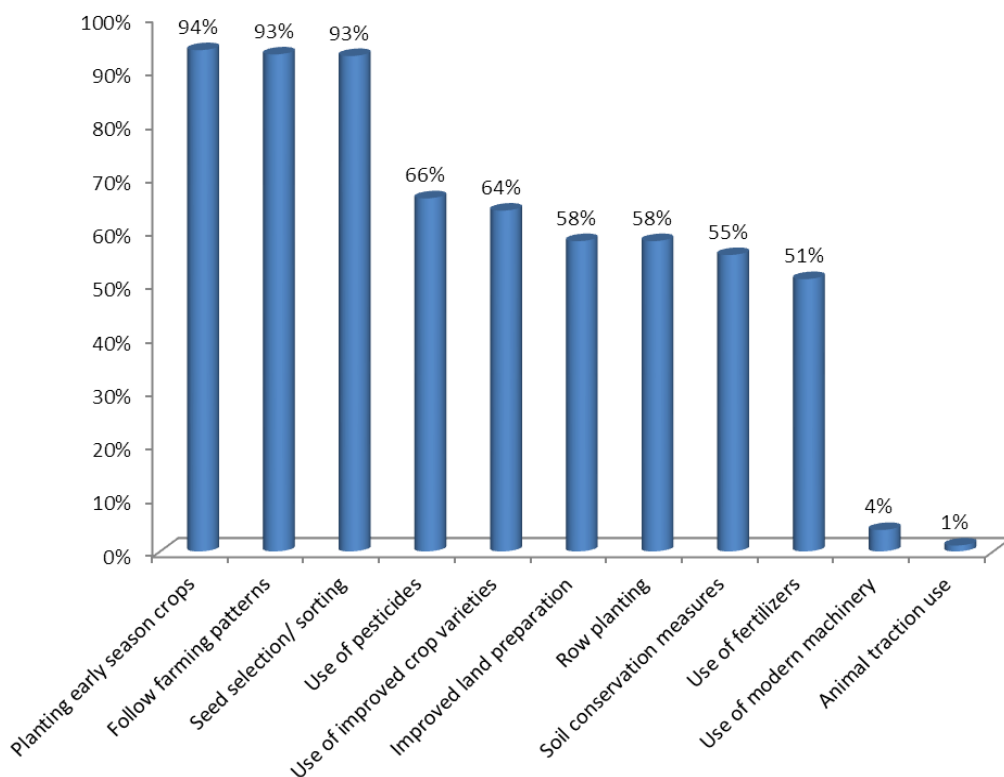


Figure 1: Farming Practices Adopted by Smallholder Farmers in the Last Two Years

Source: primary data (2015)

In Figure 1, the major farming practices adopted by smallholder farmers include planting early season crops, following farming patterns and seed selection/ sorting. Indeed, these three practices are aimed at ensuring food security in the home, avoiding losses due to failure to follow appropriate farming patterns and guaranteeing high quality output at the time of harvest respectively. Use of pesticides and use of improved crop varieties also emerged among the farming practices with outstanding percentages. The use of pesticides on the farm is aimed at reducing the incidence of diseases while the use of improved crop varieties is that as opposed to traditional varieties, the former has the advantage of being less vulnerable to diseases, heat, drought, and other stresses. Practices such as improved land preparation like levelling of plot before planting, row planting, use of soil conservation measures and use of fertilizers were moderately practiced. While emphasizing its importance, Klein and Zaid (2015) mention that land preparation is

important in the provision of the necessary soil conditions which will enhance the successful establishment of the young offshoots or the tissue culture plants received from the nursery. On the other hand, row planting enables the plant to have sufficient light, walking space within the garden and sufficient space for root development. The study established that use of modern machinery such as tractors in tilling the land and animal traction use is extremely low. According to the findings, the rate of use for modern machinery stands at 4 percent while animal traction is the least with 1 percent.

In the process of constructing the index for agricultural modernization, the response category was collapsed to create dichotomous variables on the basis of whether or not an individual adopted any/each of the practices summarized in Figure 1 above. Consequently, it was established that out of a total sample of 350 respondents, 112 (32%) were low adopters while 238(68%) were regarded as high level adopters of modern agricultural practices which implies that using the 11 indicators, the intensity of agricultural modernization stands at 68 percent in the two study areas. The two groups were then compared against the four dependent variables to determine whether the level of adoption significantly impact on their SES as measured by: household wealth, food security, household income and household expenditure on things such as agricultural inputs, school fees, medical care, clothing, foot wear, soap, recreation and expenditures on saving schemes.

Agricultural Modernization and Socio-economic Status

Drawing from previous studies (such as Irz et al., 2001; Msuya, 2010; Mariapia, 2007; Merga and Urgessa, 2014 Seidu, 2011; Awotide, Diagnen and Omonona, 2012) that established that adoption of modern agricultural practices influences the poor by raising their economic wellbeing, the contention of the researcher was that when farmers take advantage of modern agricultural practices, asset ownership, household income, food security and household consumption expenditure would all increase. This assumption is based on Kusz's (2014) statement that modernisation of the agricultural sector is supposed to ensure productivity growth, reduction in poverty by increasing profitability of farms among rural households as well as ensuring food security. In order to ensure that the better socio-economic status of high adopters compared to low-adopters is caused by the level of technology

adoption, four indicators were used and these included asset ownership, income from different activities, food security and consumption expenditure (such as school fees, medical care, clothing, foot wear, soap, recreation and expenditures on saving schemes).

Following studies that have also assessed the impact of different agricultural programs on farmers' welfare, the current study also uses proxies to measure household welfare outcome. For example, Simtowe et al (2012) used annual income (from crop) and household annual consumption expenditure as proxies in measuring household welfare. In this regard, Mariapia (2007) maintains that as long as technology adoption is random, we can compare income of similar households in different technological status, and in this context, high or low levels of technology adoption. Accordingly, in his study, Mariapia (2007) used the level of gross income consisting of a combination of income from land and non-land assets and off-farm income. The other indicator used in estimating households' welfare was food security access scale derived from Terri, Coates, Swindale & Bilinsky, (2011). Food security was measured with nine-question USDA Household Food Security Scale Module adapted for developing countries. A full description of each of the four proxies is described in the following subsections.

Agricultural Modernisation and Asset Ownership

Household's endowment is usually used as a measure of SES and can reveal a lot about the living condition of farmers (Awotide, et al 2012). Economic improvement was measured in terms of household possession of assets that included possession of: radio, television, mobile phone, personal computers, sofa chairs, sewing machine, bicycle, motorcycle and vehicle. It was hypothesized that other factors remaining constant, adoption of modern agricultural practices leads to production of high farm output which is sold off. The income from this output increases their purchasing power which makes them well-endowed with the above-mentioned assets. A comparison of household assets was therefore made between low and high-adopters of modern methods of farming with an aim of determining if the level of adoption has an impact on households' assets. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for both low and high adopters' including the weights attached to the different assets possessed by households.

Table 1: Level of adoption by household endowments

Household Endowments	Weight attached	Low adopters (n=112)	High adopters (n=238)	Pooled data (n=350)
Ownership of a mobile phone	03	85.70%	91.20%	89.40%
Ownership of a radio	07	88.40%	93.30%	91.70%
Ownership of a TV	15	12.50%	13.40%	13.10%
Ownership of a personal computer	20	0%	0.80%	0.80%
Ownership of a sewing machine	17	7.10%	5.50%	6.00%
Ownership of a bicycle	20	75.00%	81.50%	79.40%
Ownership of a motorcycle	50	24.10%	29.40%	27.70%
Ownership of a motor vehicle	80	0.90%	2.10%	1.70%

In Table 1, a significant proportion of low and high adopters own mobile telephones and radios. Although high adopters appeared to be relatively more endowed with these two assets, the differences appeared to be small. In the pooled data, 89% and 91.7% own mobile phones and radios respectively an indication that access to information via these two ICTs is not a major constraint to most farmers. In terms of TV ownership, only 12.5% and 13.4% of the low and high adopters respectively had access to televisions. This means that access to information via television is a constraint militating against accessing agricultural information for the two groups. On the other hand, ownership of a sewing machine was slightly skewed in favour of low adopters. In the analysis, although 6 percent was the overall proportion of respondents who owned a sewing machine, the percentage of low adopters was 7.1% whereas that of high adopters was less at 5.5 percent. Regarding ownership of the means of transport, more than three quarters (79.4%) mentioned that they own bicycles. Among the low-adopters, only 75 % owned bicycles while the percentage of their counterparts was higher by 6.5% more which means that in measuring households economic being using this proxy variable, high adopters are better off than the low adopters. However, few respondents owned motorcycles and motor vehicles. Among the low adopters and high adopters, the proportion of households that owned motorcycles was 24 and 29 percent respectively. Regarding vehicle ownership, the trend was not very different among the two groups as indicated by 0.9% and 2.1% of the low and high adopters respectively. Overall ownership of motorcycle and vehicles stood at 27.7% and 1.7% as indicated by the

percentages in the pooled data column. This shows that regarding the ownership of the means of transport, most of the smallholder farmers (79.4%) depend on the bicycle to transport agricultural inputs and merchandise or as a means of transport to reach centres where extension services are provided.

In order to determine whether higher adoption level has a significant impact on socio-economic status of smallholder farmers, a wealth index was calculated for each respondent and an overall score obtained. The weight attached to the different assets is also indicated in Table 1. For example; a score of 3, 7, 20, and 80 was given to a respondent who owned a mobile phone, radio, computer, motor vehicle respectively. Accordingly, the highest possible score was 227 while the lowest was zero which implies that such a household did not own any of the assets mentioned in the Table. A household was considered to have higher socio-economic status if his/her wealth index was higher and vice versa. A t-test for independent samples was subsequently used to determine whether the level of adoption significantly influenced the economic improvement of the respondents. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Analysis of the impact of Level of adoption on household wealth index

Level of adoption	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean difference	t	p-value
High (6-11)	238	48.58	30.01	6.58	1.868	0.063
Low (0-5)	112	42.00	32.29			

For high adopters, the mean score was 48.58 ± 30.01 while that of low adopters was 42 ± 32.9 . The finding suggests that as the level of adoption increases, households' wealth also follows suit. The mean difference between households in the two cohorts was 6.58 and this difference was statistically significant at 10 percent level ($.063 < 0.1$). The results are therefore in line with the researcher's postulation that adoption status has a significant bearing on household wealth. As earlier noted, as farm productivity increases, part of the output is sold off which boosts income levels. As income level goes up, purchasing power parity also goes up and consequently, an individual would be in position to acquire a wide range of assets. Overall, the outcome of this analysis has demonstrated that low adopters are at a disadvantage when it comes to the acquisition of valuable assets compared to their counterparts who adopted a wide range of modern farming practices.

Agricultural Modernisation and Food Security

Food security is generally defined as the condition to which all people at all times have enough food for a healthy and productive life (Msuya, 2010). Hunger is one of the major threats to many people particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. For the case of Uganda, a 2013 expenditure review for 2012 in the Directorate of Social Protection in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (quoted by Anguyo, 2013) cited drought, floods and economic shocks such as high prices for goods and inputs and low prices of farm produce as the most reported risks to poverty and subsequently food insecurity. Several measures have been put in place to address the problem of food insecurity among households. Examples of such measures include increasing agricultural production through technology improvement, provision of credit to farmers and diversification to farm enterprises (Msuya, 2010). This section determines the extent to which agricultural modernization has impacted on food security of low and high adopters of modern agricultural practices.

Food security status was measured using a standard metric scale for household hunger developed in 2006 with an aim of providing a valid tool for use in a developing country context that would be capable of measuring food insecurity in a comparable way (Terri, Coates, Swindale and Bilinsky 2007). The Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) tool consists of nine occurrence questions and nine frequency-of-occurrence questions. The occurrence questions ask whether or not a specific condition associated with the experience of food insecurity ever occurred in a household in the last one month. These indicators provide specific, disaggregated information about the behaviours and perceptions of the surveyed households. Descriptive statistics were used to provide summary statistics of households' responses on the nine questions.

Table 3: Responses on Food security by adoption status (%)

		Level of adoption of agricultural modernization	
		Low (n=112)	High (n=238)
Did you or any household member have to eat a limited variety of foods?	No	59.8	60.9
	Yes	40.2	39.1
How often did this happen?	Rarely	29.5	69
	Sometimes	40.9	25.9
	Often	29.5	5.2
Did you or any household member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat?	No	55.4	58.8
	Yes	44.6	41.2
How often did this happen?	Rarely	27.7	54.8
	Sometimes	27.7	33.9
	Often	44.7	11.3
Did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed?	No	71.4	82.4
	Yes	28.6	17.6
How often did this happen?	Rarely	61.3	64.9
	Sometimes	22.6	35.1
	Often	16.1	
Did you or any other household member have to eat fewer meals in a day?	No	70.5	81.9
	Yes	29.5	18.1
How often did this happen?	Rarely	48.3	67.9
	Sometimes	31.0	28.6
	Often	20.7	3.6
Was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household?	No	88.4	79
	Yes	11.6	21
How often did this happen?	Rarely	55.6	60
	Sometimes	11.1	26.7
	Often	33.3	13.3
Did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	No	88.4	93.3
	Yes	11.6	6.7
How often did this happen?	Rarely	50	80
	Sometimes	40	20
	Often	10	
Did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	No	88.4	99.2
	Yes	11.6	.8
How often did this happen?	Rarely	50	
	Sometimes	40	100
	Often	10	

Households were categorized as being increasingly food insecure if they responded affirmatively to more severe conditions and/or experienced those conditions more frequently. On the other hand, households who

were food secure experienced none of the food insecurity conditions, or just worried, but rarely. In the analysis, the percentages in the table show that respondents with low levels of adoption were more likely to choose affirmative responses to the different conditions and were also more likely to experience such conditions more frequently compared to households whose level of adoption was high. For example, compared to the low adopters, households with high adoption levels were less likely to worry about not having enough food sometimes or often, and/or unable to eat preferred foods, and/or eat a more monotonous diet than desired and/or some foods considered undesirable. The findings further show that a severely food insecure household had at some point resorted to for instance cutting back on meal size or number of meals often, and/or experience any of the three most severe conditions (running out of food, going to bed hungry, or going a whole day and night without eating). According to Terri, et al (2011), any household that experienced one of these three conditions even once in the last one month is considered severely food insecure and as seen in the descriptive statistics, this probability increased among low adopters.

To compute the level of food insecurity, a HFIAS score variable was calculated for each respondent by summing the codes for each frequency-of-occurrence question. Prior to adding the codes, all cases where the answer to the corresponding occurrence question was “no” were given a code of zero (that is, if i_1a=0, then i_1b=0, if i_2a=0, then i_2b=0 and so on). In case a households response to all nine frequency-of-occurrence questions was “often”, coded with response code of 3, the maximum score for a such a household was therefore 27 while the minimum score was 0 (in case the household responded “no” to all occurrence questions). Accordingly, the higher the score, the more food insecurity (access) the household experienced. The lower the score, the less food insecurity a household experienced (Terri, Coates, Swindale and Bilinsky 2011). Table 4 gives a summary of the t-test results for Households Food security score in relation to the level of adoption of modern agricultural practices.

Table 4: Impact of the level of adoption on Households Food security score

Level of adoption	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean difference	t-value	p-value
Low (0-5)	112	4.38	6.04	2.4	4.775	.000
High (6-11)	238	2.01	3.26			

The analysis shows that on average, low adopters (households which adopted 0-5 practices) were food insecure compared to high adopters as indicated by an average of 4.38 and 2.01 respectively with a mean difference between the two groups being 2.4. In specific terms, high adopters were significantly ($0.000 < 0.01$) more food secure than households whose level of adoption was low, an indication that the modernisation process was the driving force behind food security among high adopters. It is however worth pointing out that considering the fact that the maximum level of food insecurity was 27, a key point to note is that, the level of food insecurity was generally low among the two households bearing in mind that 4.38 and 2.01 were the average level of food security for low and high adopters respectively.

The observed significant difference in the means render support to much of the previous studies conducted in different countries under different conditions to determine the impact of technology adoption on household food security. In the first place, the findings are in corroboration with Setotaw *et al.* (2003) who found adoption of improved agricultural technologies (improved varieties and agronomic practices) to have a positive and significant impact on food security of households in Ethiopia. In the same vein, the t-test result conform the analysis of Kassie *et al.* (2012) regarding the impact of the intensity of improved maize varieties adoption on food security and poverty in rural Tanzania. Similar to the results of the current study, increase in food security was found to be positively and significantly correlated with households' adoption of maize technology. Furthermore, the results match with the findings of Msuya (2010) regarding the contribution of Special Program for Food Security (SPFS) introduced by Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) from 1996 and launched in Tanzania 1998. The study found changes in food security before and after the program and this was attributed to the project.

Agricultural Modernisation, Income and Expenditure

In 2007, Mariapia (2007) reported that globally, 75 percent of the people living on less than a dollar per day live and work in rural areas. It was further estimated that over 60% will continue to do so in 2025. The 2013 expenditure review for Uganda 2012 quoted by Anguyo (2013) revealed that about 67% of Ugandans are either poor or highly vulnerable to poverty, spending below the poverty line of \$ 1.20 per day. With a current population of 34.6 million people (UBOS, 2016), this means that

about 23.2 million people are prone to poverty. Therefore, the need to increase household income by encouraging smallholder farmers to increase the uptake of modern agricultural innovations is seen as a plausible avenue for increasing agricultural production. As to whether the level of uptake for modern methods of farming contributes to poverty reduction is the empirical question this paper sought to address.

This section focuses on the impact of households' level of adoption of modern agricultural practices on estimated annual income (farm, livestock and off farm income) and expenditure on food and non-food items. The expenditure pattern of people has been used to measure the poverty status of households. In other words, the things on which people spend their incomes can be used to ascertain whether progress is being made in the fight against poverty. These proxies of household welfare have also been used in the estimation of poverty levels by researchers such as Simtowe et al (2012) and Mariapia (2007). Thus, in terms of the impact of adoption levels on economic improvement, a comparison was made between high adopters and low adopters for both household income and expenditure. *An independent samples t-test* was used to test for differences in income and expenditure between high adopters and low adopters. Table 5 presents the analysis of the level of adoption on annual income and total agricultural and non-agricultural expenditure for the two types of households.

Table 5: Impact of Level of adoption on average household income and expenditure (Shs) 1USD=3240.646UGX

Variable	Pooled data (n=350)	High (n=238)	Low (n=112)	Mean Difference
Household income				
Farm Income	2,485,118.3	2,912,327.3	1,577,299.1	1,335,028.2***
Livestock income	543,605.7	612,831.9	396,500.0	216,331.9**
Off farm income	1,046,471.4	1,026,218.5	1,089,508.9	-63,290.4
Total income	4,098,616.1	4,570,581.9	3,090,905.4	1,479,676.5**
Expenditure				
Agricultural expenditure	298,542.9	367,521.0	151,964.3	215,556.7**
Non-agricultural expenditure	2,637,908.6	2,787,399.2	2,320,241.1	467,158.1
Total expenditure	2,936,451.4	3,154,920.2	2,472,205.4	682,714.8*

*** Significant at $p < 0.01$, ** significant at $p < 0.05$ and * significant at $p < 0.1$

In the analysis, high adopters differ from low adopters in all characteristics related to income and expenditure. In particular, the analysis shows that the average annual farm income of high adopters

was shillings 2,912,327.3 whereas shillings 1,577,299 was the average income for low adopters with a statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) mean difference of shillings 1,335,028.2. The table also shows that farmers who were involved in livestock rearing in total had an average income of 543,605.7/=. From this total, high adopters contributed 612,831.9/= while the average income obtained by low adopters from livestock was 396,500/= and the mean differences in the two groups were statistically significant at the 5 percent level. Therefore, these findings are indicative of the significance of livestock rearing on household economic improvement. Regarding off farm income, low adopters were better-off (mean=1,089,508.9) than the high-adopters (mean=1,026,218.5) but not to a statistically significant extent. This is quite understandable given that a significant proportion of low adopters depended on off farm income (such as formal employment, casual labour, business etc.) for a livelihood.

The index for total household income was obtained by summing up the cash obtained from all income sources and according to the results given in Table 5, there was a significant difference in the total income between high and low adopters, with the former having an average of 4,570,581.9/= while low adopters' average was 3,090,905.4/= with a mean difference in the income equal to shillings 1,479,676.5 and significant at the 5 percent level. This implies that the welfare of high adopters was better than that of low-adopters which perhaps explains why they were able to spend significantly ($p < 0.1$) more (mean=682,714.8/=) than the low- adopters whose annual expenditure value was shillings 2,472,205.4.

In this study, annual expenditure was considered to be a reflection of the effective consumption of households on agricultural, non-agricultural and total expenditure on these two activities. Accordingly, high adopters had a significantly higher expenditure ($p < .05$) on agricultural expenses than low adopters with a mean difference of shillings 215,556.7, significant at 5 percent level. This was expected because most of the low adopters depended mainly on off farm activities and as a result, their expenses on farm implements and other agricultural inputs could not match that of their counterparts whose major source of livelihood was farming. Also in the analysis, although high adopters' average on non-agricultural expenditure was higher than low adopters as indicated by the mean difference of 46,158.1/=, the findings show that the former seem not be better-off than the latter if economic improvement is measured in terms of non-agricultural

expenditure for a household. This is because of the insignificant value of the t-statistic at all levels. It therefore means that if we were to exclusively use non-agricultural expenditure as the indicator of households' economic improvement, the level of economic improvement for the two categories of households would be the same. The things that comprised non-agricultural expenditure included: school fees, medical care, basic needs (such as food, clothing, foot wear, soap etc.), recreation and expenditures on saving schemes.

Regarding overall expenditure, the table shows that the estimated annual household expenditure is 2,936,451.4/= for low and high adopters. Annual consumption expenditure of the high adopters was Shs 3,154,920.2 while that of low adopters was Shs 2,472,205.4 with a significant ($p < 0.1$) mean difference of Shs 682,714.8 indicating that high adopters had more annual consumption expenditure than low adopters. The implication of this finding is that high adopters had a better welfare than low adopters

Lending support to the findings, Merga and Urgessa's (2014) results of the propensity score matching estimation showed that the average income and consumption expenditure of adopters are greater than that of non-adopters of Modern Agricultural Technology. According to their findings, most of this difference was a result of adoption of modern agricultural practices. The results of Afolami, et al (2015) also revealed that adoption of improved cassava varieties increases the annual income and the annual consumption expenditure of producing households' thus increasing welfare in South West Nigeria. In a study by Seidu, (2011) irrigation was used as a proxy for agricultural modernization. Among the major findings, irrigation farming was found to have a positive effect on the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries by way of improvement in their income levels, food security and education of their children.

Additionally, the analysis validates Awotide, et al (2012) results which showed a significant positive impact of adoption of improved rice varieties on not only rice productivity but also total households' expenditure. The results are further supported by the findings of Tesfaye, et al (2016) which analysed the impact of improved wheat technology adoption on the productivity and income in Ethiopia. In their analysis, the average income of adopters was greater than the non-adopters. In the same vein, Mignouna, Rusike, Mutabazi and Senkondo (nd) also showed that adoption of imazapyr-resistant maize (IRM) raises farm household income. The findings are also in tandem with Mariapia

(2006) who found a robust and positive effect of agricultural technology adoption on farm household improvement. Moreover, Kijima *et al.* (2008) found that NERICA adoption reduces poverty in central and western Uganda. Other empirical studies done elsewhere whose findings are worth mentioning include Mendola (2006) who found technology adoption to reduce poverty, Wu *et al.* (2010) found that adoption of agricultural technologies had a positive impact on farmers' well-being thereby improving household income.

Conclusions

All in all, a straightforward comparison between asset ownership, food security, income and expenditure of high and low adopters of AM shows that the level of uptake of modern farming practices impact significantly on smallholder farmers' status. The findings have shown that for all the four measures of SES (household wealth, food security, income and expenditure), high adopters' SES is much better than that of low adopters. Accordingly, a combination of the findings from this study and empirical studies conducted done elsewhere emphasize the notion that modern agricultural practices are important in improving the socio-economic status of smallholder farmers. This leads to the conclusion that in order to achieve the much desired reduction in poverty through the current Operation Wealth Creation; government should intensify efforts by ensuring that farmers have access to modern agricultural practices at the right time and place. This will be one of the practical ways of achieving Uganda's target of becoming a middle income country by the year 2020.

Recommendations

Since high level of adoption of agricultural modernization was a key factor in increasing smallholder farmers' SES, the study recommends that one of the ways to increase food security, income and wealth among smallholder farmers, all necessary efforts should be intensified with an aim of creating smallholder farmers' awareness about the benefits inherent in agricultural modernization. This could be through increased extension contacts with the farmers coupled with in-depth practical training on the use and importance of the innovation and other modern agricultural practices. This is most likely to make smallholder

farmers change their attitude and begin to look at farming as a profession and make them develop a business attitude.

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Effect of Board of Directors' Characteristics on Corporate Tax Aggressiveness of Quoted Companies in Nigeria

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Abstract. *This study examines the effects of board of directors' characteristics (BC) (i.e. board size [BSIZE] and diversity [BDIV]; managerial ownership [MOWN]; independent director [INDEP] and proportion of non-executive directors to the executive director [NEDED]) on tax aggressiveness (TA) as measured by the Effective Tax Rate (ETR) of 42 quoted financial service companies in Nigeria (2005 to 2014). The data used were subjected to Hausmans' specification test which results in the supremacy of random effect over fixed effect for interpretation purpose while R^2 (0.5467) and Wald Statistics (113.91) attests to the individual and joint significance of the independent variables. The study finds that BDIV, INDEP, MOWN and NEDED are statistically significant at 1% and 5% but the more the BDIV and INDEP on board composition the lower the TA while MOWN and NEDED are positively correlated with TA. BSIZE and the control variables (i.e. return on assets, leverage and firm size) were all insignificant. It was concluded that BC has varying impacts on TA, depending on the variable of BC used but recommends reduction in MOWN, increase in BDIV while less attention should be paid to BSIZE with a view to reducing TA and ensuring economic growth in Nigeria.*

Keywords: Tax aggressiveness, Board characteristics, Effective Tax rate.

Introduction

Taxation occupies a central place in economic development of an economy as provides revenue for government to fund her activities, ensures resources redistribution, and generates employment. Despite these obvious benefits of taxes, tax non-compliance is an issue prevalent in every society where taxes are levied and it is as old as tax itself (Uadiale, Fagbemi & Ogunleye, 2010); especially at the corporate level (Hundal, 2011). This menace of tax avoidance remains prevalent among corporate taxpayers as income taxes is adjudged to take away greater proportion of the firms' pre-tax earnings and subsequently reduce their distributable profits, (Christensen and Murphy, 2004). To prevent reduction in profitability, companies do employ tax experts who assist in arranging their activities, taking advantage of the loop-holes in the tax laws; thereby paying less taxes.

This practice of reducing explicit corporate tax liabilities according to Hairul, Ibrahim, and Siti (2014) is termed Tax aggressiveness (TA) and is used interchangeably with tax management; tax planning; tax sheltering; and tax avoidance in the literature.

Hence, companies have converted their tax departments to profit centres where management incentives is tied to tax saved; this led to adoption of adoption of tax management strategies at the expense of the possible penalties and reputational risk the company may be exposed to if caught (Richard, 2014). Therefore, TA is one of the most challenging issues of our generation as it represents a serious loss of revenue to government

However, when company is tax aggressive, investors may not be the benefactors (Martinez, Ribeiro, and Funchal, 2015) as the complicated transactions and professional cost used to avoid taxes were so expensive and cost the company much. In some cases it had caused negative effects on the level of provision of public goods (Hanlon and Slemrod, 2006). Information asymmetry as evidenced in Henderson Global Investors (2005), revealed considerable reluctance by management to disclose tax governance related information to their shareholders, and this may lead to agency problems as the (board of directors) may not align with the shareholders (investors), thereby making the tax issues complicated (Duke and Kankang, 2011).

As corporate scandal became proliferated across the globe, investors gradually lost confidence in the Capital Markets; which on the average led to decline in company's stock prices when there is news about its involvement in TA (Hanlon, and Slemrod, 2006). Also, Klein and Leffler (1981) opined that customers and suppliers might become wary of dealing with such firms associated with TA, thereby increasing future transaction costs and perhaps causing customers and suppliers to deal with other companies. This is because; engagement in TA activity could lead to prosecution and associated costs (Khurana, and Moser, 2013). Desai and Dharmapala (2009) thus opined that TA may signal dishonesty being extended to the financial accounting statements.

Against these backdrops was the need for effective corporate governance (CG) variables including BC as mechanism for mitigating against wide spread corporate scandals, resolve the agency problem and also restore investors' confidence.

A number of high profile corporate failures (Enron Corporation, World Com) brought about the CG reforms to protect stakeholder's interest, ensuring accountability and shareholders wealth maximization(Gompers, Ishii, and Metrick, 2003). This scenario according to Lanis and Richardson, (2011) prompted the US Congress to enact the Sarbanes-Oxley Act (SOX) in order to protect investors by improving the precision and reliability of the financial information

disclosed by listed companies. This law imposed stricter rules on executive compensation and accountability and induced more conservative behaviour by managers, mitigating negligent behaviour and moral hazard, such as inhibiting risky investment decisions with the aim of increasing personal gains (effective CG). Therefore, due to the nexus between TA and CG, provisions of the SOX Act which establishes a more rigorous overall governance rules, could have impact on TA (Armstrong, Blouin, and Larcker, 2012).

In Nigeria, emphasis on the need for CG reform began with the incidence of fraudulent financial reporting concerning Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Afribank Nigeria plc. and other financial failures caused by poor management, high gearing ratios, overtrading, creative accounting, and fraud (Osemeke, 2012). Therefore, a number of CG codes were put in place including: Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) reviewed code 2014, Bank and Other Financial Institution Act (BOFIA), Security and Exchange Commission (SEC) reviewed code 2011, National Insurance Commission (NAICOM) Code 2009 and Pension Commission (PENCOM) Code 2008 with the view of enhancing transparency and accountability in the financial sector

According to Bebeji, Mohammed, and Tanko (2015), despite these CG codes, the role played by board members in the recent collapse of some financial institutions (Oceanic Bank, Intercontinental Bank and Afribank) indicated that BC is related to the magnitude of TA carried out in most organizations. Croson and Gneezy (2009) opined that BDIV can directly or indirectly impact an organisation's TA while Lanis and Richardson (2011) show that the inclusion of a higher proportion of outside members on the board reduces the likelihood of TA.

The studies of Laundry, Deslandes and Fortin (2013 and Khaoula (2013) in America, Khaoula and Ali (2012 in Tunisia were all on CG/board characteristics and TA. However, in Sub-Sahara Africa, these concepts have not been adequately addressed; for instance, the studies of Osemeke (2012) and Bebeji, Mohammed and Tanko (2015) could be useful but not directly related. By inference therefore, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, none of such studies could be found in Nigeria. As such, this study is not an academic futility but a necessity for expanding the academic frontier for securing companies' going concern.

Because board of directors' characteristics is multidimensional (board size, board diversity, shares held by directors, number of independent director on the board, ratio of non-executive to executive directors; the exigency of this study is justified on the need to ascertain which of the

board characteristics has the potential of reducing TA and agency problems in Nigeria where corporate investors have lost confidence in the capital market that is characterized with low returns and had led to low patronage of traded securities. This resulted to the following research questions:

1. Does board size have any significant influence on TA?
2. What impact does the presence of women on the board (board diversity) has on TA?
3. What is the relationship between independent director on the board and tax aggressive?
4. What influence does the number of shares held by directors have TA? and;
5. What effect does the proportion of non-executive directors (outside directors) over executive director (inside director) have on tax aggressive?

More so, the need to improve government revenue generation became imperative as the price of crude oil (major source of income for the country) nosedive continuously; this had made the clarion call for economic diversification (improve on tax income) very pertinent.

The main objective of this study is to investigate the effect of board of directors' characteristics on corporate TA of quoted financial service companies in Nigeria to serve as policy directives for regulators, government, shareholders and business managers. Specifically, the study examines the effect of: board size, board diversity, independent director managerial ownership and proportion of non-executive to executive directors on TA of quoted financial service companies in Nigeria.

Corresponding hypotheses were formulated for each board characteristics and were tested using data from forty-two (42) selected listed financial service companies on the Nigeria Stock Exchange between 2005 and 2014 because codes relating to board characteristics became operational in Nigeria in 2004.

Conceptual Clarifications

Baysinger and Butler(1985) posited that board of directors, maintains the power to hire, fire, and compensate management and serves to align interests of management and shareholders. It is in the director's best interest to increase the value of the firm through effective management

of the firm's tax expenditure (Yermack, 2004). Thus, the board plays an important role in CG of every organisation (Fama and Jensen, 1983).

CG practices are the essential codes to achieving and maintaining public trust and confidence in the financial sector. Poor CG may have contributed to corporate failures in Nigeria, which in turn had led to unemployment and a negative impact on the economy

Board of director characteristics refers to board size, the division of function between the chairman and the Chief Executive Officer, and finally its composition and diversity. According to SEC (2011) code of CG, the board of directors should be of a sufficient size, relative to the scale and complexity of the company's operations and be composed in such a way as to ensure diversity of experience without compromising independence, compatibility, integrity and availability of members to attend meetings.

TA has no universally accepted definition but is based on the degree of risk undertaken by a company (Richard, 2014) but it is a firm's effort spent on minimizing its tax payments legally, regardless of its ethical implication (Hanlon and Heitzman, 2011).

Theoretical Discussion

The stakeholder theory and agency theory are the two prominent theories upon which CG mechanisms rests. Agency theory explains the problems arising from the separation of ownership (providers of corporate finances) and control (management) of firm affairs in that the two parties often have different goals and different attitudes toward risk (Lanis and Richardson, 2011). Evidence from Cheung, Jiang, and Limpaphayom, 2010) shows that managers take advantage of the opaque internal control function for their own personal gains at the expense of shareholders, thus making them tax aggressive.

The stakeholders' theory provides that the firm is a system of stakeholders operating within the larger system of the host society that provides the necessary legal and market infrastructure for the firm's activities (Khurana, and Moser, 2013). The purpose of the firm is to create wealth or value for its stakeholders by converting their stakes into goods and services to align the interests of these critical stakeholders with the interests of outside, passive shareholders. Although stakeholder theory can be many things to many people but it is a slight shift from a narrowed view (shareholders) to a broader view

(stakeholders), as management seeks to satisfy the interest of all stakeholders and not just the shareholders alone.

Thus, the interest of stakeholders are not adequately protected as a firm becomes tax aggressive since codes of best practices are violated as well as ethically and morally requirements to their stakeholders; thus, they tend not to be socially responsible by minimizing their tax liabilities. For instance, TA affects the stake of the government directly and the public indirectly; as reduction in tax liabilities shrinks government revenue for providing infrastructures for the country, thereby slow down economic growth and development.

Empirical Discussions

Khaoula and Ali. (2012) examined the effect of BC on corporate tax planning of selected companies listed on the Tunisian Stock Exchange Market from 2000 to 2007. The general least square regression model result revealed that CEO duality and diversity of the board of directors significantly influences tax planning while no relationship exists between board size, independent directors and corporate tax planning. However, the study of Khaoula (2013) on influence of CG on tax planning of selected American companies from 1996 to 2009 using multiple regression analysis finds no significant relationship between board size and effective tax rates.

Lanis and Richardson (2011) examined the association between corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate tax planning (CTA) of selected publicly listed Australian corporations in 2008/2009. The base regression model finds that the higher the level of CSR disclosure of a corporation, the lower the level of CTA

Issam, Staglianò and Jamal (2015) examined the effect of different activities of CSR on CTA using partial least squares regression analysis which reveals that a firm's TA depends on the nature of its CSR. However, Landry, *et al* (2013) concluded that socially responsible firms that are concerned about preserving their good reputation should be less tax aggressive while Dyreng, Hanlon and Maydew (2010) finds that individual executives exhibit different proclivities toward TA and as such this variation across executives affects their firms' TA in ways that cannot be explained by firm characteristics.

Martinez and Ramalho (2014) examined whether family firms are more aggressive in terms of tax planning than non-family firms in Brazil

from 2001 to 2012. The regression analysis result revealed a significant relationship between family firms and TA.

Jalali and Jalali (2013) investigated the impact of board of directors' structure on tax avoidance in companies Listed in Tehran Stock Exchange between 2010 and 2012. Logistic regression method was used and it was revealed that the independence of the board had a significant relationship with the aggressive tax policies. However, the ratio of non-executive members of the board did not show a positive and significant relationship but as the number of non-executive members increases the less the aggressive tax policies

Armstrong *et al.*, (2014) examined the link between CG, managerial incentives, and tax avoidance of listed firms on Compustat for the period 2007 to 2011. The quartile regression analysis reveals that CG decreases extremely high levels of tax avoidance and increase extremely low levels of tax avoidance.

Martinez *et al.*, (2015) investigated the effects of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act (SOX) on the TA of Brazilian firms between 2004 and 2012. Partial regression analysis model used for analysis provides evidenced that the implementation of more stringent internal controls does not inhibit aggressive tax practices of Brazilian firms.

The results of Rawiwan (2013), Ibrahim, Hairul, and Siti (2013) concluded that CG acts as monitoring mechanism to manage tax level for the companies in order to save tax through tax planning or earn TA benefits while Zemzem, and Ftouhi (2013) concludes that board size and the percentage of women in the board affect TA activities; but Stavroula(2015) finds a strong negative association between tax evasion and the percentage of shares held by the owner and its family members and also the percentage of stock held by board members. Kraft (2014) indicate that multinational firms have more possibilities to reduce the tax burden

Osemeke (2012) studied the relationship between BC and CSR in Nigeria between 2003 and 2009; and finds that board size and diversity have positive and significant relationship with firms' social responsibility. However, executive directors showed a negative insignificant relationship with social responsibility of the organization. The result of Bebeji, *et al* (2015) is not at variance with this

In addition to the important role played by the board and scanty/inadequate studies on the connection between CG and TA in sub-Sahara Africa, this study used different proxies to capture the

boards' influence on TA in depth rather than using one general corporate governance score.

Methodology

Model Specification

A multiple regression equation is set up to investigate the hypothesized relationships between the dependent (TA) and independent (Board characteristics) variables as follows:

$$ETR = f(\text{Board characteristics}) \text{-----} (i)$$

This study added (managerial ownership and proportion of non-executive directors to executive directors) which are areas that had been profusely abused in Nigeria to board size, existence of independent director on the board used as explanatory variables by Zemzem, &Ftouhi (2013). Leverage was added to the existing control variables they used (return on asset and firm size) due to the nature of Nigerian financial system.

The regression model for the empirical analysis is therefore given as follows:

$$ETR = f(BSIZE, INDEP, BDIV, MOWN, NEDED, ROA, FSIZE, LEV) \text{--}(ii)$$

Specifying equation (ii) becomes:

$$ETR_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 BSIZE_{it} + \alpha_2 BDIV_{it} + \alpha_3 MOWN_{it} + \alpha_4 INDEP_{it} + \alpha_5 NEDED_{it} + \alpha_6 ROA_{it} + \alpha_7 FSIZE_{it} + \alpha_8 LEV_{it} + \mu_{it} \text{-----} (iii)$$

Where:

ETR = tax aggressiveness/Effective Tax Rate (ETR) = Total Tax Expense / Pre-tax income

BSIZE = total number of directors on the board at the end of financial year for company *i* in time *t*

BDIV = Board diversity= percentages of women in the board for company *i* in time *t*,

MOWN = Managerial ownership = the number of shares held by the directors to the total number of issued and fully paid shares for the year for company *i* in time *t*,

INDEP = percentage of independent directors on the board for company *i* in time *t*,

NEDED: Proportion of Non-executive directors to executive director for company *i* in time *t*

ROA: Return on Asset = ratio of operating income to total assets for companies *i* in time *t*. It is also used to measure corporate performance because companies are interested in tax optimization in order to

improve business performance. Thus, this variable is used to control the performance and highlight the specific effect of tax optimization.

FSIZE: Firm Size = natural log of the book value of total assets as it is believed that total asset increases as corporate performance improves. It is thus expected that company size would be positively related to firm performance, because larger companies normally have more market power; thus, the need for the inclusion of this control variable is imperative.

LEV: Leverage= long-term debt/total assets. Companies enjoy tax reliefs on interest thereby reducing their tax burdens and as such would subscribe to debt financing as part of its TA strategy. The essence of introducing leverage as a control variable is to control for the risk characteristics of the company.

it: the sampled 42 companies (*i*) and the ten (10) year time period(*t*) considered;

μ_{it} : Error Term

This model was estimated using panel data analysis which employs fixed effect and random effect regression technique. The population for this study consists of all the 56 financial service companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) as at 2014 while the sample is restricted to only 42 based on data availability. Data were sourced from annual reports and accounts of selected companies for the period 2005 to 2014.

Analysis

The study hypotheses were tested using inferential statistics of regression and correlation tests while fixed effect and random effect regression analysis were employed to evaluate the impact of board characteristics on TA and correlation analysis was carried out to establish the degree of association of board characteristics proxies with that of TA and as well test for multicollinearity. For the purpose of obtaining a stronger empirical evidence to support this study, Hausman Specification test for the fixed and random effects were conducted to reduce the effect of a bias.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1: Correlation Matrix

VARIABLES	BSIZE	BDIV	ETR	FSIZE	INDEP	LEV	MOWN	NEDED	ROA
BSIZE	1.000								
BDIV	0.551	1.00							
ETR	0.163	0.11	1.000						
FSIZE	0.144	0.127	-0.0225	1.000					
INDEP	0.583	0.322	0.0086	0.312	1.000				
LEV	0.102	0.075	-0.0016	0.0808	0.0346	1.000			
MOWN	-0.309	-0.194	0.033	-0.0079	-0.0994	-0.064	1.000		
NEDED	-0.370	-0.142	-0.287	-0.051	-0.338	-0.0084	-0.0389	1.0000	
ROA	-0.109	-0.131	0.059	-0.075	-0.155	-0.0123	0.246	-0.0232	1.000

The result of pair-wise correlation test conducted to examine the existence or otherwise of interdependence among the study variables (table 1), shows that FSIZE, LEV and NEDED are negatively related to ETR while all other variables are positively related to it. Equally, there are mixtures of positive and negative relationship among the variables. Yet, the coefficient of correlation is less than 0.5 for all the variables. Therefore, the correlation among them is weak which signifies lack of problem of multicollinearity among them.

Regression Results

Table 2: Fitness and joint significance test of the regression models

MODEL	TEST	Goodness of fit R-squared (R^2)	Joint significance Test Statistics	P-value
Fixed effect regression		0.5083	F Statistics =9.74	0.0000
Random effect regression		0.5467	Wald Test Statistics = 113.91	0.0000

The R^2 statistics that measures goodness of fit of the panel regression models (fixed and random effect) estimated in this study as presented in table 2 are 0.5083 and 0.5467 respectively. This is an indication that the fitness of all the models is good. It means the fixed and random effect regressions respectively show that 50.83% and 54.67% changes in ETR is explained by changes in the independent variables (BSIZE, MOWN, NEDED FSIZE, BDIV, INDEP, ROA and LEV). Thus, all the two models have a good fit and their estimates are valid for empirical inferences. More so, the result of the test of joint significance tests of the variables displayed in table 3 gave 9.74 and 113.91 (F-statistics and Wald Statistics) for fixed and random effects respectively. This is a clear

indication of the rejection of the null hypothesis and the establishment of joint significance of the independent variables in those models (p=0.0000). Thus, the independent variables considered individually and jointly have significant impact on the dependent variable.

Table 3: Result of Hausman Test

	Coefficients			
	(b) fix	(B) ran	(b-B) Difference	sqrt(diag(V_b-V_B)) S.E.
boardsize	-.013856	.1173529	-.1312089	.078775
boardd	.6857174	.7439265	-.0582091	.084341
mown	-.7200185	-2.922363	2.202345	1.004403
indep	1.231019	1.280869	-.0498499	.225768
neded	-1.014266	-.9215604	-.0927052	.1057009
firmsize	-.1442195	-.0985579	-.0456616	.3277674
roa	.1552471	.3393372	-.1840901	.3434197
lev	.0002235	.0004797	-.0002563	.0004175
_cons	12.80489	11.7567	1.048181	2.594329
b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtreg B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtreg Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic $\chi^2(9) = (b-B)'[(V_b-V_B)^{-1}](b-B)$ $= 13.21$ $\text{Prob}>\chi^2 = 0.1535$				

Because both fixed and random effects have good fit and overall significance, Hausman test was conducted to select between the two models for discussion and conclusion. The result of this test in table 6 reveals Chi-square = 13.21 and p-value = 0.1535 indicating the insignificance of the chi square. Thus, the null hypothesis is accepted such that random effect regression is better for this study. Therefore, the discussion of findings and conclusion of this study is based on the results of the random effects regression.

Table 4: Fixed and Random Effect Regression Results

VARIABLES	Fixed effect	Random effect	½ of stad errors (a)
Board size (BSIZE)	-0.01386 (0.4312)	0.1174 (0.4350)	a = 0.0587 t = 0.4350
Board diversity (BDIV)	0.6857*** (0.1798)	0.7439*** (0.1640)	a =0.3719 t =0.1640
Managerial ownership (MOWN)	-0.7200 (1.6968)	-2.9224** (1.4207)	a =1.4612 t =1.2809
Independent directors (INDEP)	1.2310*** (0.3574)	1.2809*** (0.2887)	a =0.6404 t =0.2887
Non-executive (Outsider) directors (NEDED)	-1.0143*** (0.2515)	-0.9216*** (0.2353)	a = -0.4108 t =0.2353
Firm size (FSIZE)	-0.1442 (0.4275)	-0.09856 (0.2911)	a =-0.04928 t =0.2911
Return on Asset (ROA)	0.1552 (1.1427)	0.3393 (1.1202)	a =0.1697 t= 1.1202
Leverage (LEV)	2.235e-04 (0.003553)	4.797e-04 (0.003619)	a =-0.0002 t= 0.003619
Constant	12.805*** (3.4548)	11.757*** (24124)	a=5.878 t= 2424
R-squared	0.402	0.5467	
Observations	420	420	

Standard errors in parentheses. ***, ** and * denote 1%, 5% and 10% level of sig. respectively.

The result of the random effect regressions in table 4 shows that MOWN, NEDED FSIZE are negatively related to ETR while BSIZE, BDIV, INDEP, ROA and LEV are positively related to ETR. Meanwhile, Board diversity (BDIV), Managerial ownership (MOWN), Independent directors (INDEP) and Non-executive (Outsider) directors (NEDED) are statistically significant at 5% and 1% level (t= 0.1640, 1.2809, 0.2887, and 0.2353 respectively). Reported R square of 0.5467 indicating that 54.67% of the variability of the ETR is explained by the independent variables.

With respect to BSIZE, $t > a$ ($0.4350 > 0.0587$) signifies insignificant impact BSIZE on TA of Nigerian companies. The study supports the findings of (Khaoula *et al*, 2012) and (Kraft, 2014) who found no significance among the variables in the Tunisian and Germany contexts respectively. However this contradict the work of (Zemzem, *et al*, 2013) that finds that board size is significant to TA of listed French companies.

Board diversity was found to exert significant influence ($t < a$) on TA in Nigeria such that a person increase in the number of women on the board, induces 0.7439 corresponding increase in effective tax rate (ETR). This implies that increase in the number of women on the board

significantly reduces TA; thus the null hypothesis is rejected. This result corroborates the studies of (Francis, Hassan, Wu, Yan, 2014) and (Boussaidi and Hamed, 2015); in America and Tunisia respectively, which revealed that gender diversity on the board was very significant.

Further analysis reveals a significant positive relationship between INDEP and ETR in Nigeria since $t < a$ Nigeria. This implies that existence of a higher percentage of independent directors on the board increases the effective tax rate; which by inference lowers TA/ impacts negatively on tax aggressiveness. This result agrees with the work of (Riwawan, 2013), in Thailand, but contradict the works of (Martinez *et al*, 2015) and (Jalali *et al*, 2013) which showed INDEP had no significant effect on the corporate tax planning of Brazilian and Iranian firms respectively. Such divergence might result from peculiarity of the regulatory bodies and how they monitor compliance with codes of best practices; since SOX Act, provides that the existence of an independent director on the board makes a board more independent.

Conversely, (MOWN) has a negative significant impact on effective tax rate. This implies that a unit increase in the number of shares held by directors leads to -2.9224 reduction in ETR (increases TA activities). Hence, the higher number of shares held by directors in Nigeria the higher the TA activities they are involved in. Usually, control and ownership are separated and as such, the potential existence of agency conflicts is envisaged. However, insider ownership helps to reduce this conflict as managers are also shareholders, therefore they will be more averse to implement decisions or to invest in non-value maximizing activities. Therefore, personal gains are enhanced because more money saved through TA is gained back in form of dividend and improved capitalization. The finding is consistent with the works of (Boussaidi *et al*, 2015) and Ying, 2011) which revealed the existence of negative significant relationship between the MOWN and TA.

The study revealed further the existence a negative relationship between (NEDED) and ETR which means that a person increase in the number of non-executive directors on the board leads to -0.9216 reduction in ETR (increase in TA) in Nigeria financial service companies. This result was consistent with the work of (Jalali and Jalali, 2013) and (Florackis, 2008), which showed that more non -executive members of the board did not show a positive and significant relation with TA in Iran. This might be because these executive directors play passive roles in company policies, as they are less informed because their appointments are mostly politically motivated in Nigeria

Consequently, none of the control variables (Return on Asset, Leverage and Firm size) were significantly associated with TA (Since $t > a$ in all cases).

Conclusion Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that there exist a significant but varying relationship between board characteristics and TA of quoted financial service companies in Nigeria. Specifically, board size and firm size have insignificant impact on TA in Nigeria, but the more the number of independent directors on the board and increase in the number of women on the board significantly reduces TA of Nigerian companies. This indicates that size (board or firm) are not of importance but how independent the directors are in making uninfluenced decisions regarding tax planning and this is reflected in women being corporate governance compliant (being less tax aggressive) than men. More so, the more the proportion of non-executive directors on the board, the more the increase in tax aggressiveness by Nigerian companies.

In line with the conclusions reached, the following recommendations are put forward for financial service firms in Nigeria:

1. They give less attention to the BSIZE, but rather focus on the quality, competence and integrity of the members of the board in terms of cognate experience and expertise on board matters with a view to reducing TA;
2. Better involvement of female as well as independent directors on the board should be encouraged as their presence reduces TA;

CBN and SEC should monitor/minimize proportion of shares held by directors in such firms as managerial ownership seems to strengthen tax aggressiveness as managers enhance their personal gains through rent extraction that can be both enabled and masked by opaque tax avoidance activities.

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University Students Evaluation of Psychosocial Problems Scale[©]

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Abstract. *The University Students Evaluation of Psychosocial Problems (USEPP) scale is a multidimensional, self-administered psychological instrument measuring psychosocial problems among university students. It discriminates university students with or without psychosocial problems and it can predict psychological distress. The scale can be applied for research purposes and for clinical evaluation. The scale development was premised on a rational-empirical approach utilizing two theories/models. Namely, the Vulnerability-Experience-Manifestation-Prevalence model (Chun, Eastman, Sue, & Wang, 1998) to build a grounded theory for the instrument-items generation that could depict those personal and environmental factors and experiences of psychosocial problems among the students. And the Item Response Theory, specifically, the derivative Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), a statistical multivariate analysis technique (Crockett, 2012) used toward creating a psychometrically sound instrument focused on the unique contextual environment of university students in a developing world. Experts in instrument development look at SEM as a 'must' for social scientists when designing new instruments and validating existing ones (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).*

Introduction

The University Students Evaluation of Psychosocial Problems (USEPP) scale was developed and validated at Nkumba University-Uganda for a PhD study by Dr. Norman David Nsereko and published in 2014 (Nsereko, Musisi, & Holtzman, 2014). It was registered as a literary work No.80/2015 at Uganda Registration Services Bureau in Uganda under the name Norman David Nsereko in accordance with section 43(6) of the Copyright and Neighbouring Rights Act, 2006, effective from 28th September 2017.

Psychometric Properties

The psychometric properties of USEPP namely, the scale structure, reliability and validity were demonstrated by two studies of diverse respondents using both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. The scale has 17 items under four subscales that measure emotional, antisocial, academic problems and traumatic experiences as predictors of psychosocial problems among university students. Each item is rated on a scale from 0 (not at all) to 3 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the USEPP total scale (Reliability) is (0.81) and the four subscales: Emotional Problems (0.70); Antisocial Behaviour (0.73); Traumatic Experiences (0.60) and Academic problems

(0.63). The instrument was validated by the Hopkins Symptoms Checklist (HSCL-10) as a gold standard to establish its construct validity and by the Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) curve for its predictive validity.

Scale Administration

The scale takes between five to ten minutes to score. The instrument can be used by trained mental health workers such as university counsellors, clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, psychologists etc. at university counselling centres and health facilities. Private mental health practitioners and researchers etc. can apply the instrument (Nsereko, 2015). It is recommended for use as a campus routine assessment activity of university students' psychosocial functioning.

The use of the instrument in other settings outside the developing world will enable its properties to be better understood and its generalizability to wider groups to be clearer.

Permission to Use the Scale

Currently the scale is entirely in manual form. Permission to use the scale can be obtained from the author on email address nnsereko@nkumbauniversity.ac.ug who will provide its user manual. A fee is levied on the use of the scale. Efforts are being made to generate a computer/net version of the scale.

University Students Evaluation of Psychosocial Problems

You are asked to go through the issues/concerns listed below. Indicate your level of agreement with those that are current concerns for you by circling the number on your right from the following options:

Not at all = 0 Somewhat Agree = 1 Agree = 2 Strongly Agree = 3

Circle one response for each item and do not leave any blank

Issues/concerns experienced and are current concerns for me

Feeling stressed, being in low mood	0	1	2	3
Unpredictable/Insecure tuition fees status	0	1	2	3
I am involved in behaviours I should be ashamed of if they became public	0	1	2	3
I am not able to concentrate on my studies as I would have liked	0	1	2	3
Experiences of irrational fears/phobia	0	1	2	3
Often lacking welfare/pocket money for personal use	0	1	2	3
I am involved in one way or the other in academic mal practice	0	1	2	3
Low academic grades	0	1	2	3
Sometimes experiencing wishes of being dead	0	1	2	3
Adjustment problems in my new environment i.e. hostel, campus life	0	1	2	3
I take sexual advantage of others	0	1	2	3
Inadequate study skills to meet university academic demands	0	1	2	3
I have problems of concentrating in life generally	0	1	2	3
My family is experiencing problems to which I am of great concern	0	1	2	3
I engage in gambling/betting for financial gain	0	1	2	3
I sometimes find it difficult to sleep or I sleep too much	0	1	2	3
I indulge in uncontrolled drinking of alcohol	0	1	2	3

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Social Capital as a better Predictor of Financial Inclusion in Wakiso and Kiboga Town Councils, Uganda

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Abstract. *This study analysed the role of social capital in enhancing financial inclusion in Wakiso and Kiboga Town Councils in Uganda. A mixed methods approach was adopted. The study was guided by theories of financial intermediation and social capital. A random sample of 384 respondents was selected from a target population of 9,880. It was found that there is a significantly positive relationship between social capital and financial inclusion ($r = 0.443$, $p < 0.001$). This means that strong social networks among consumers are more likely to enable an even bigger number of people to access and use financial services. Therefore, a social clustering model was developed as a possible means of improving financial inclusion among Ugandan communities.*

Key words. Financial inclusion, Social capital, Microfinance.

Introduction

This study focused on the relationship between social capital and financial inclusion in Uganda with Kiboga Town Council in Kiboga District, and Wakiso Town Council in Wakiso district as case studies. These two areas of study were chosen to help cast a picture into the differences between social capital and its effect in an urban and rural set up with Wakiso representing an urban set up while Kiboga shed light on the status in a rural setting. Besides, the two areas share a common characteristic namely, the high levels of mobility which greatly affects the quality of social capital. This topic of study was undertaken because of the high levels of inability of many people in the area of study to access financial services for their needs in the development realm despite the evident existence of financial intermediaries. Besides, the number of people accessing financial services from the informal sources as compared to the formal ones is high, which was projected to richly inform the study on its fundamental interest of exploring the extent of inclusion. For this purpose therefore, the study was limited to formal financial intermediaries that are regulated by the Bank of Uganda in Tiers 1 – III including Commercial Banks, Micro-Finance Deposit-Taking Institutions as well as Micro Finance Intermediaries and not the informal ones not regulated under the Bank of Uganda. In order to have a meaningful survey of the study, a deeper understanding of the underlying factors behind the variables of study was taken.

Uganda has witnessed a rapid and significant growth in financial services development characterized by increased growth in the number

of financial intermediaries over time. The services have moved closer to people with more access points available and with the advance of technology, challenges associated with distances to service points have been minimally low. This has been attributed to structural and individual challenges. The World Bank, (2013) notes that some groups are more financially excluded than others: Women, rural poor, and other remote or hard-to-reach populations, as well as informal micro and small firms are most affected. For example, the gender gap in developing countries is estimated at 9 percentage points: 59% of men reported having an account in 2014, while only 50% of women did. Various studies conducted in Uganda point to a fact that there are bottlenecks experienced by people seeking financial services especially the women's access to loans from financial banks (Karuhanga 2002; Namunyoro 2000; Synder 2000). Kakuru (2008), while studying small and micro enterprises in Uganda also found out that there are many systematic cultural, social and legal impediments that give an advantage to men to access higher level credit than women yet Synder (2000) found that women are more faithful in paying back their loans compared to men. This phenomenon may largely be attributed to cultural values inculcated in men and women through socialization.

Lack of self-esteem and shyness have been found to be problems women encounter in mixed gender negotiations and have been perceived by both men and women as key stumbling blocks to the negotiation process (Kibanja and Munene 2009).

The above scenario has confined and limited a number of people to informal credit access of money lenders and borrowing from friends and relatives where the strength of social ties and personal relationships override the structural complexities in accessing financial services especially credit. In many other instances, the majority of these people are restricted to group lending as it has remained the only alternative to structural challenges to accessing financial services.

Statement of the Problem

The Financial Intermediation sector in Uganda as a country has been liberalized and is characterized by many financial institutions from the Local to the National levels with an intention of reaching out to so many people so that the socio-economic wellbeing of these targeted people is improved through their inclusion. However, the usage of financial services in the country is still low. While 54% of Ugandans are served, an overwhelming 46% of Ugandans do not have access to either formal bank or non-bank formal services with the majority of these in the

upcountry (Finscope 2013). Financial access is still very low in rural areas where the access is half as much compared to the urban areas. Of the entire population able to access the services, only 20% use Tier 1 of commercial banks, Tier 2 of credit Institutions and Tier 3 of Microfinance Deposit Taking Institutions (Finscope, 2013). This therefore means that the other component of the population uses informal means to access finances such as money lenders, Rotating Savings and Credit Associations, Village Savings and Lending Associations, investment clubs, and other welfare funds while others are totally excluded who are characterized by saving in secret places, shops, or friends as well as borrowing from family friends.

Furthermore, the disparity between rural and urban access to financial services is so wide with urban access at 48% compared to rural access at 35%. This therefore suggests that more than 12 million adults in rural areas do not have access to financial services, (BOU 2013).

The trend analyses of financial institution size and depth of these financial institutions points to an upward trend meaning that there has been more investment in ensuring that services are moved closer to people in the areas of study. An even more depth in-look into the ease to access financial services similarly shows that over the period of five years, both Wakiso and Kiboga Town Councils experienced a 4 percent reduction in the ease of access to financial services from 44% in 2009 to 40% in 2013 for Wakiso and 34% in 2009 to 33.7% in 2013 for Kiboga town council. This situation is even worsened by the fact that usage of financial services in Wakiso Town Council equally reduced by 3 percent from 38% in 2009 to 35% in 2013 while Kiboga town council recorded a 4 percent reduction in the same aspect from 29% in 2009 to 25% in 2013 (Table 1).

Table 1: Size and Depth of Financial Institutions (2009-2013)

Table 1. Size and Depth of Financial Institutions (2009–2013)										
Year	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
Independent variable (count)										
Area	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB	WK	KB
Financial Institution size	8	2	10	2	14	5	14	5	19	8
Financial depth	22	5	19	5	25	10	31	12	39	11
Dependent variable (%)										
Ease of access to financial services	44	34	46.5	35	45	33	42	33	40	33.7
Financial services usage	38	29	44.4	29	37	32	35.8	30	35	25

Key: WK = Wakiso: KB = Kiboga

Moreover, the category of people in these areas has been described as the needy. (Wiegratz, 2008) Still, given the nature of the communities

where the above trend is observed, there is a high level of interdependence on each other for information, financial advice and guidance regarding potential investment opportunities meaning that the people in these communities have a significant influence on each other given the strong social ties. Alarming, even with the same social circles where some of these unbanked people live, there are instances of a very sharp rift between those that are financially able to access services and those that do not even know of their existence.

This study therefore tried to investigate why financial inclusion levels are still low despite the existence of a number of financial intermediaries in Uganda with Wakiso and Kiboga as case studies since they would give a very realistic comparison between urban and rural inclusion, how the social relationships amongst the financial services users affect the levels of intermediation by given financial intermediaries and how these equally affect one's inclusion and or otherwise

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was threefold: to examine why the levels of financial inclusion have not significantly increased to match with the intermediation levels in Uganda; to explain how the social capital aspects that the communities of Wakiso and Kiboga town councils have influenced this trend; and to develop a model that enhances financial inclusion.

Related Literature and Hypothesis

Gleaser, Laibson and Sacerdote (2002) argued that social capital is an individual level variable in addition to being a community level variable. Financial inclusion requires a lot of trust between clients and financial institutions. This is especially so in contexts where formal contracts enforcement mechanisms are rather fragile. Armendariz and Murdoch (2005) believe that in low income communities, the lending business so much suffers from informational asymmetries since borrowers have better information on their credit worthiness and risk taking than does the lender. A typical scenario of social capital being an enabler/disabler of financial inclusion is when individuals stand in for a community member intending to access financial services or the community members/ community leadership refuse to back an individual intending to access financial services in a given intermediary. Coleman (1990) argued that social sanction created by trust, forces people to behave cooperatively in the society. When providing financial

services such as loans, banks always require assurance for future repayment by asking for collateral from borrowers.

The poor especially in developing countries, lack physical collateral to secure the loans. Thus, they use their social capital in form of interpersonal and generalized trust and social sanction to substitute and guarantee the loan and its future repayment (Atemnkeng, 2009; Stephen & Knack, 2003). Ghatak & Guinnane (1999) argument resonates well with the above assertion when they reasoned that semi-formal and informal community based institutions typically rely on the threat of social sanctions in ensuring repayment of loans. These semi-formal and informal institutions equally rely on the screening of potential borrowers by a given group where group borrowing is the norm based on the extent and quality of the potential borrowers' connections with the group.

Coleman (1990), avers that social sanctions created by trust, force people to behave cooperatively in the society. When providing financial services such as loans, banks always require assurance for future repayment by asking for collateral from borrowers.

Kibanja and Munene (2006) argue that business women often receive low payoffs from bank negotiations particularly when dealing with male loan officers. They also argue that in such circumstances, women may not obtain the loan and when they are able to secure the loan, they are given a lower than what they applied for. Studies have however shown that businessmen and businesswomen may obtain the same loan amount from the same commercial bank for the same loan period but with varying interest rates charged. Kibanja and Munene (2009) posit that women are often charged a higher interest rate than men. They contend that such outcomes from bank loan negotiations may be attributed to the cultural values inculcated in men and women through socialisation.

Credit markets in developing countries especially in Africa including Uganda have changed overtime and adopted mechanisms that avoid credit constraints. Potential borrowers who have no connection with financial intermediaries without credible information about their credit worthiness with these intermediaries and are equally lacking in collateral security have instead to the use of social capital to improve their accessibility to credit. Putnam (1993) defined Social capital as connections among individuals that characterize social networks where norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness arise. These social networks comprise groups of people who interact directly, frequently, and in comprehensive ways (Bowels & Gintis, 2002, p.420). The networks may involve colleagues, neighbourhoods, friends, professionals,

businessmen, gangs and students among others. Social capital in such networks promotes interpersonal trust, provides for sanctions against those who deviate from the norms and serves as a substitute for institutional and legal deficiencies. This explains why informal finance is thriving in Ugandan communities with such characteristics at their core. Clients of informal finance seek no legal enforcement for their activities. The contractual basis from which they get the financial services rely more on a sense of moral duty than absolute rights. There are no binding conditionalities on either end of the supply chain of financial services in this case. However, they put in place effective informal borrowing channels and means of governance based on reputation and relationships and thus promote investments and support economic growth and development. Social capital therefore enables access to private information that is unavailable to credit markets; it enables monitoring of members' behaviour and punishing individual members who go against the social norms. Sharing information amongst members reduces transactions costs, and yet the sense of belonging facilitates collective decision-making and creates the solidarity and reciprocity that emerge from the networks while diminishing opportunistic behaviour. It is therefore absolutely important to understand how these social networks enhance credit access to the majority of individuals especially the poor rural and urban Ugandans. The majority of them suffer poor access to formal credit due to lack of assets to secure loans and poor information keeping. To this lot, social capital is thought to boost their creditworthiness.

Social capital and access to finances, both from formal or informal sources, interact at various levels and manifest through various intertwined relationships. While social capital in different forms and at various levels substantially increases the provision for and access to financial services and economic empowerment, access to finance also impacts social capital at various levels. Not only provision for financial services, social capital has also been found to improve the impact of financial access on micro-entrepreneurs through various economic and social processes and vice versa, Khaki and Sangmi (2012).

Sanders and Nee (1996) illustrates the positive effect of social capital in the form of social relations on a micro-entrepreneur. He argues that this effect is evident in the form of instrumental support, productive information and psychological aid. Instrumental support in the form of start-up support through non-interest bearing capital usually by friends and family members can directly affect the performance of a micro-entrepreneur.

Social Capital can help in improving the earnings of a micro-entrepreneur through productive information dissemination; this information maybe in the form of advertising through the word of mouth, providing valuable leads and customer referrals (Holzer,1987), information about trusted suppliers and competitors which can improve productivity.

There is a general consensus built around the fact that social capital is positively associated with economic progress. Through linkages at various levels, wider social and economic impacts can occur through the labour market, the capital market, the social capital at various levels, and through clients' participation in social and political processes (McGregoret al.2000).

Microfinance has been found to reduce Putnam effects; Rafael and Gomez (2001) establish a microeconomic foundation for the effect of social capital on improved economic performance. Small-scale self-employment which is synonymous with micro-entrepreneur is a group of low income self-employed people with fewer resources at disposal and lesser assets to offer as collateral. Microfinance heavily relies on group formation for financing micro-entrepreneurs by leveraging their social capital as collateral by replacing financial collateral.

This social association between these groups acts as social collateral (Goldmark, 2001) suggesting methods which work through social enforcement of maintaining reputation and social standing within the community making group mechanisms more secure leading to high repayment rates (Woolcock,2001; Gomez & Santor, 2001).

Various studies have established that Social Capital has a positive implication for micro-finance institutions that rely heavily on the idea that individual social capital can overcome a borrower's lack of financial collateral. Lack of sufficient social capital and interconnectedness in the population, especially in the form of lack of cooperation among businesses and among support organisations, is believed to obstruct the successful provisioning of micro-finance services (Lashley, 2002).

Therefore, it was hypothesized that "there is a relationship between social capital and financial inclusion".

Methodology

Design

The study was largely rooted in the analytical research paradigm. The researcher was convinced that the research problem existed in a

negative exponential distribution. This was been chosen because by its nature, it enables a presentation of a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship, McIlwaine and Vanda, (2011). This helped in the analysis of characteristics of a population and phenomenon of interest. The advantage of using analytical research is that it helped describe the situation in terms of its characteristics and equally created a set of categories or classified the information, that is to say, analytical research enabled the explanation of the phenomenon of financial inclusion using the particular characteristics of the studied population.

Population

The study population from the two geographical areas of study namely Kiboga and Wakiso town councils, was 9,843 households, and 7 formal financial institutions registered. This was credible source of data because the study populations either directly or indirectly interact with the services on offer by any of the financial intermediaries and besides, these were the people who either used the financial services through inclusion and access or didn't because of exclusion. The study population for qualitative data was purposively chosen because on top of having very few institutions supervised by the Bank of Uganda (six), the two districts still rate high among National poverty indices. Besides, Kiboga being one of the rural districts, it is one of the districts with low financial services and access to such services by the population (Finscope 2013). On the other hand, Wakiso, being semi-urban, was able to show a comparative picture of what financial inclusion is in the rural and urban districts, the triangulation of which gave a better aggregated position of financial intermediation and inclusion in Uganda.

Sample

The sample size was determined basing on Slovin's formula (Slovin 1960) guidelines for estimating sample size thus:

$$n = N / (1 + Ne^2),$$

Where: n- is the required sample size

N- Total population size

e= level of precision 0.05

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus: } 9880 / [1 + (9880 * 0.05)^2 * 0.05] \\ 9880 / 1 + [494 * 0.05] \\ 9880 / 1 + 24.7 \\ = 384 \end{aligned}$$

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents

Category	Population		Sample size		Sampling technique	Reason for choice
	Wakiso	Kiboga	Wakiso	Kiboga		
Households	5,890	3,990	167	167	Simple random	Systematically derived
Key informants						
Bank Managers	03	02	03	02	Purposive	Limited respondents
MFIs managers	04	01	04	01	Purposive	Limited respondents

Data Quality

In order to ensure that data was accurate, a pre-test of the study tool was done with 47 respondents which helped the revision of the tool to ensure data accuracy. To ensure that the instruments which were used for the study are consistent, accurate and stable Cronbach alpha coefficient was used (cf. Struwig & Stead, 2001: 130). The reliability of 0.70 or more was used as the alpha coefficient to test the reliability of this study, which is in line with the recommendation of Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Validity was concerned with measuring all the constructs developed from the concept and the various theories used for this study. This focused on the empirical and theoretical support for the interpretation of the construct to be measured. (Foxcroft et al, 2004).

An in-depth analysis of the theories used in this study was carried out in order to ascertain that all the measures are consistent based on the theories. The researcher extracted and used measures that are consistent with the concepts in existing research. Item scales were then developed and convergent and discriminant validity were considered. This was through factor analysis, and components with Eigen values greater than one and items with correlation coefficient equal or greater than 0.5 were extracted (Gummesson, 2005).

Factor extraction to establish the correlations between underlying constructs was done as recommended (Farrington, 2009) and this was followed by Principal Component Analysis with a Varimax Rotation where the extraction and rotation method for the sub models for constructs correlation was established. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used with an intention of assessing the potential of factor-analysis of the data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was also used to gauge the factor-analysability of the data. The closer a KMO is to 1, the more factor-analysable the data is (Rennie, 2002). For the purpose of this study, data with KMO's of $>+0.7$ ($p<0.05$)

is considered factor-analysable. In addition, Eigen values of greater than 1 are considered significant and are used to explain the variance captured by a factor. Eigen values of less than 1 are considered insignificant and therefore excluded (Chong, Lin, Keng-Boon and Raman, 2009; 17). The Eigen values and the Percentage of Variance levels were explained.

Content validity involved measuring all constructs included and represented in particular theories used in the study (Crocker & Algina, 1986; DeVellis, 1991; Gregory, 1992). Content validity index obtained by dividing the proportion of items declared as valid by the total numbers of items was carried out (Amin, 2005). Stability of the items and constructs was considered in the instrument as recommended by Neuman (2006) and components with Eigen values greater than one and items with correlation coefficient equal or greater than 0.5 were be extracted.

Findings and Discussion

In this section of the paper, findings, interpretation and discussions are all handled at the same time. What is presented is in line with the study objective and hypothesis 3. The key variables examined are financial social capital and financial inclusion. The interaction between these variables is explained.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's test of social capital

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.704
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3549.292
	Df	1128
	Sig.	.000

The social capital variable with its factors recorded a sampling adequacy of 0.704 which is well above the recommended minimum suggested by Field (2006) meaning that the results yielded by the survey of this variable are reliable. Regarding the degree to which the dimensions are inter-related measured using the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with an expected minimum significance of (sig.<.05), the study yielded a test value of Sig 0.000 meaning that four factors of trust and reciprocity, collection action, bridging and bonding are related under the social capital construct and thus plausible. Thirteen questions relating to financial intermediation in the four factors of trust and reciprocity, collective action, bridging and bonding were factors

analysed using principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation.

The analysis yielded all four factors accounting for a total of 66.024% of the variance for the entire set of variables. Factor 1, which was trust and reciprocity, had high loadings contributing to a combined variance percentage of 34.024%. The collective action factor recorded high factor loadings yielding a total variance of 14.763% while the significantly loaded constructs under the factor of bridging totalled a percentage contribution of 9.454% of the variance meaning this factor is another important aspect of social capital with bonding contributing a combined 7.784% of the total variance.

Table 4: KMO and Bartlett’s test of Financial Inclusion

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.809
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2611.383
	Df	351
	Sig.	.000

On the basis of Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, 2 factors were extracted. With the study yielding a sampling adequacy of .809 well above the minimum recommended value of 0.6, it can be deduced that the sampling was adequately ideal. Relatedly, the inter-relatedness of the variables of study was significant. Field (2006) noted that for variables of study to be inter-related, the level of significance should be <0.5. The level of significance however between financial services access and usage is a significant 0.000 showing a high degree of inter-relatedness between the two.

The factors studied under financial inclusion i.e. financial services usage and financial services access yielded a total variance percentage of 64.703%. The financial services usage factor loading contributed to a total 46.948% of the total variance while Financial services access factors equally loaded significantly with the majority beating the acceptable minimum load of >0.5 contributing to 17.755% of the total variance.

Table 5: Correlation between Social Capital and Financial Inclusion

	Mean	SD	1	2	3
Social Capital-2	3.409	.768	.602**	1.000	
Financial Inclusion-3	3.021	1.116	.381**	.443**	1.000

***.* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In the table above, the relationship between social capital and financial inclusion revealed a significant and positive relationship between social capital and financial inclusion ($r = 0.443$, $p < 0.001$), which means that

the higher the social network among consumers of financial services, the higher the likelihood of these consumers being reached and served by the financial intermediaries affirmatively answering whether there is a relationship between these two variables of study and rendering support to the hypothesis that there is a relationship between social capital and financial inclusion.

In order to get grounded, the survey focused on the role of the critical aspects of social capital like trust and reciprocity, bonding, bridging and networking in lieu of regulated intermediation. Most of the constructs yielded significant factor loadings meaning that social capital is a reliable predictor of financial inclusion. From the responses, it is clearly deduced that social capital benefits an individual both as a sole entity and as member belonging to a group given the numerous benefits that emerge thereof. From the interactions in the focus group discussions, it was clear that social networking fabrics such as the status of a person in a community and whether they can be commended by any renowned individuals in the community for financial services access from organised community groups such as Village Savings and Loans Associations and Savings and Credit Associations (SACCOs) are very critical. It was further revealed that even if one is a member of such an association as a saver, they still require community support and its social benefit. This means that it is not enough for an individual to save with the group in order to enjoy its benefits beyond saving. This finding confirms findings of Sharma & Zeller (1998), Bastelaer & Leathers (2006), Cassar, Crowley and Wydick (2007) and Karlan (2007) who, having studied the impact of social capital in the microfinance context, discovered that there was a significance impact of social capital on repayments in group lending as opposed to intermediation that required collateral as security to access finances and thus social capital becomes the physical collateral for allowing access to financial services especially loans.

However, in some circumstances, regulated intermediation also uses social capital as a basis for advancing loans to given members of the society especially those that are renowned. *"Sometimes, because of one's status in society and their being public figures, we give them loans because they have more to lose in terms of their reputation and status in case they fail to pay back"* noted a bank manager of one of the prominent financial Institutions branches

Since a majority of the respondents expressed a lack of trust of people in the areas of study, which could be rooted to the fact that majority of the respondents had lived for less than 5 years in the area and so the levels of trust were low, it means that at an individual level, access to

finances, even in an unregulated intermediation, still remains low because social capital, which has trust as one of its basic tenets is low in the areas of study. There is also a big likelihood of low intermediation from financial intermediaries given the low levels of trust that intermediaries have in a prospective client to pay back which subsequently causes less access to services as Greif (1993) equally argues.

Social capital can be understood at three basic levels: that is at the higher level which is the country, at the mid-level where we have the community and at lowest level is the individual.

From a community level perspective, social capital comprises of neighbourhood networks (Jacobs, 1961), with features of social life – networks, norms and trust (Putnam, 1993) that enable an individual to pursue collective goals with a collective effort. And at an individual level, social capital refers to individual characteristics like; charisma, status, individual interactions and access to networks (Gleaser et.al, 2000). Evidence from this study points to a positive association between social capital and economic progress especially at the individual and community levels, a finding that resonates with the arguments of McGregor et al., (2000).

Not-for-profit community lenders, such as credit unions and community development finance institutions (CDFIs), provide consumers with access to financial services. These and microfinance institutions heavily rely on group formation for financing micro-entrepreneurs by leveraging their social capital as collateral which eventually replaces financial collateral. Evidence to the effect that three out of 5 individuals belonged to a village group explains the phenomenon of social capital as collateral for finances.

Social investment has a role to play in helping certain community lenders to scale and diversify their products to reach a wider market. The principles of microfinance, which is a commonly used form of financial inclusion such as SACCOs lay its foundations on group mechanism for lending. There is a general contention that group lending is an effective mechanism to get rid of various hazards involved in microfinance, more particularly in case of government backed and sponsored programs.

Research evidence proves that adverse selection and moral hazard can be minimized to a large extent by provision of services through a mechanism of group lending (Stiglitz,1990; Varian,1990; Ghatak,1999; Wydick,1995, Coleman,1999). Group lending may however introduce self-selection which can in turn lead to adverse selection (Coleman,1999; Gineet.al.,2006); which may turn into a moral hazard if the choice of

selection of fellow partners is left with the self-selected members (Coleman,1999; Gineet.al.2006).

These results also pointed to a positive implication for intermediaries that rely heavily on the idea that individual social capital can overcome a borrower's lack of financial collateral. Lack of sufficient social capital and interconnectedness in the community such as through cooperation among businesses and support organisations, is believed to obstruct the successful provisioning of microfinance services, Lashlye (2002), Sanders and Nee (1996) explain the positive effect of social capital in the form of social relations on a micro-entrepreneur through Instrumental Support, Productive Information and Psychological Aid. Instrumental support in the form of start-up support through non-interest bearing capital usually by friends and family can directly affect the performance of a micro-entrepreneur. This also explains why the biggest source of information regarding finances for most of the respondents comes from the family members and friends given their social ties which are attributed to simple fact of basic honesty and trust in this cohort.

Besides this, the issue of ethnicity seems to play a more important role here as clusters of communities in both the rural Kiboga and urban Wakiso exhibited stronger ties amid settlements where people spoke more of the same language than mixed patterns. This could be highly attributed to the fact that there is a high level of mobility given the business opportunities presented by the urban setting of Wakiso and its closeness to the Central Business District of Kampala. The same could however not be said of Kiboga town council where social capital was higher and involved interactions among all the people in the community regardless of social classes and their financial status.

In addition, the study found that people from a rural setting in Kiboga shared stronger social ties than their urban counterparts of Wakiso. These characteristics make social capital a reasonable explanation for the higher levels of trust, closeness and happiness that are higher in rural than urban areas. These stronger ties can be largely attributed to a more stable settlement pattern in rural Kiboga than urban Wakiso where the population is denser and hence more difficult to know people at the individual level but also the rate of mobility is high with more people settling in and out of Wakiso. It is safer therefore to conclude that social capital is stronger in areas that have constant settlement patterns and people and so from this study, social capital is stronger in rural than urban areas.

While the traditional understanding of poverty was limited to the lack of access to basic facilities and sources of income, a new concept of the same includes the various social and economic parameters in a

multidimensional context. It thus involves the lack of assets or sources of income, powerlessness, lack of skill, vulnerability and volatility in returns or income among others. The determining assets may be human such as capacity build up, natural, physical, social like social capital and networks, and financial including access to credit, World Bank, (2000). The lack of access to these enabling assets incapacitates an individual to take on profitable activities and thus leading to multiple deprivations including inclusion in the various financial service portfolios.

The neighbourhood effects of social capital are equally important fundamentals in increasing inclusion levels among people who share a certain geographical and or social set up. Rashid Khaki et al (2016) believe that better neighbourhood characteristics like access to suitable market space, marketing arrangements, etc. give rise to an increased number of opportunities which can equally lead to increased impact of strengthening and empowering interventions by way of additions. These have an in and out movement which either direction lead to an aggregate positive effect. This explains why revelations in this study point to a fact that all social groups have been formed around people who are either neighbours or enjoy neighbourhood benefits with other households; hence they form groups with such to leverage benefits such as help and trust.

Social networks and their actors enhance availability of information about scarce resources and opportunities within a given society. WDR (2002) argues that communities where more ethnic groups exist in a given economy for instance, each with its own set of customs and norms for doing business, the complexity of the coordination problem mushrooms. As group size grows, information processing, command and enforcement within the group becomes difficult. Information flow about business opportunities may be available only to members of a group, with outsiders excluded because of linguistic or cultural barriers as well as their not belonging to this caste. Besides, information may also be shared during the process of intra community social occasions, thus, this may make it difficult for outsiders to gain access. Even in a social circle that has its own distinct aspects such communication using idioms or any other informal means, entrenchment into such a group is hard; thus limiting the potential opportunities to anyone outside that social order. Therefore, informal norms characteristic of a particular social grouping may limit trade and access to resources because it may exclude those who are not part of the social sanction.

While there was a big association between social capital and financial inclusion by the findings of this study, some studies, earlier studies conducted by Sharma and Zeller (1997) using credit groups in

Bangladesh, and Ahlin and Townsend (2004) using data from Thailand, found that groups with high levels of family relations have higher default rates. It could be argued that this is because family members may not be able to screen effectively for the credit worthiness of their members. However, Ahlin and Townsend (2006) and Wydick (1999) have severally reasoned that groups which have put in place measures such as threats of social sanctions for payment defaulters have recorded higher repayment. While this may be an effective means of ensuring inclusion and payback, it abrogates the social capital tenet of trust and may point to a bigger problem that could be endogenous and thus not easy to point to. Microfinance Programmes such as the famous group lending dynamics have been perceived to be a very vital means of creating the bond especially among individuals in the community that are seemingly deprived. Resultantly, there is an increase in the individuals' ability to spend on other services such as education and health care.

Conclusion

This study investigated the relationship between social capital and financial inclusion. From the findings, it can safely be concluded that the tested hypothesis of whether there is a relationship between social capital and financial inclusion was positive meaning that the assumption of relationship between the two variables strongly holds and hence a more reliable predictor and enabler of financial inclusion. This therefore means that financial inclusion is not only dependent on intermediation by the financial institutions and extension of services but also on the social capital that the various service users enjoy among themselves to build sustainable and development oriented relationships. At a policy level, Governments especially in the third World Countries should explore the possibilities of creating an enabling policy environment that provides for an inclusive approach through the use of social clusters as registered entities to substitute for collateral security especially in credit access among the highly socialized but financially disadvantaged poor.

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Socio-Cultural Correlates of Child Labour among Public Primary School Pupils in Aba Metropolis, Nigeria

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Abstract. *This study undertook to investigate the socio-cultural correlates of child labour among public primary school pupils in Aba Metropolis, Nigeria. It followed a correlational survey design. The sample consisted of 885 participants drawn from 15 public primary schools in the study area. A Child Labour Identification Questionnaire (CLIQ) was designed by the researcher to identify participants engaged in child labour. A Child Labour Effect Questionnaire was used to collect data on the effects of sociocultural correlates on child labour. Achievement Test in English Language (ATEL) and in Mathematics (ATM) were used as indices of academic performance. Three research hypotheses guided the study and were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation, t-test, Analysis of Variance and Multiple Regression Analysis. The findings were that both parental and child characteristics were strong determinants of child labour and schooling. Poverty was also found to be a major cause of child labour. Therefore, it is recommended that laws prohibiting child labour be strictly enforced and that government provides social welfare facilities to improve the circumstances of the parents of the children involved in child labour.*

Keywords: Child labour, Poverty alleviation, Education for all.

Introduction

Child labour constitutes a major obstacle to achieving universal basic education. This is captured in the sixth goal of Education For All (EFA) which calls for “improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills” as declared by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization and to which Nigeria was signatory (UNESCO, 2005). Nigeria is committed to the promotion and achievement of the above stated objective. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme is Nigeria’s strategy for the achievement of Education for All. As its major objective, the scheme is to provide free, universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school-going age; and ensuring the acquisition of appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills, as well as ethical, moral and civic values needed for laying a solid foundation for life-long learning (Ukommi, 2012). To achieve the goals of UBE, all children irrespective of sociocultural, economic and locational factors must be in school. However, it is clear that societal and institutional factors, particularly child labour, might be a major challenge to the

programme. Child labour is harmful not only to the welfare of individual children, but also hinders broader national poverty alleviation and development programmes (Khanam, 2010).

There seems to be a wide variety of estimates as to the number of working children under fourteen years of age, ranging from 200 to 400 million worldwide (ILO, 2014). In 2010, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that, in developing countries alone, there were at least 120 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 years working full time; while about 130 million children in this age group combined work and study (ILO, 2011). Osmet (2014) highlights that there are about 20 million Nigerian children under the age of fourteen years who are involved in child labour. Although the figure is a rough estimate, it still offers an approximate measure. The estimate suggests that child labour is evident and a problem of a large magnitude in Nigeria. The subject of child labour as a social problem has, in recent years, attracted a growing interest among sociologists, academics, professionals, researchers and the media. It has also moved from the national to the international arena. For example, the International Labour Organization Convention 138, which Nigeria ratified with other countries, makes clear the linkages between the elimination of child labour and access to quality basic education for all children (Education International, 2013). The implication of the convention on the links between child labour and education calls for the concern of the Sociologists of Education who are in a position to estimate the various facets of the linkages. This is evident in available literature on the link between child labour and education as reported by Sakurai (2006), Pascharopoulos (2013) and others.

According to the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour/ Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (IPEC/SIMPOC, 2011) national survey data of Nigerian children aged 5 to 14 years, 57.5 percent only study, 16.0 percent work and are not in school, 23.4 percent combine work and study, and 3.1 percent neither work nor in school. Of children aged 10 to 14 years, 27.2 percent of those who worked attended school. These statistics show that there is a significant number of children who continue to divide their time between working and studying. A critical research concern regarding child labour in Nigeria is whether working has a negative consequence on the academic performance of children that are involved. Therefore, better understanding of the socio-cultural correlates and effect of child labour on children's academic performance is important because it reveals possible areas of societal interventions concerning the problem. The socio-cultural correlates are children's age, gender, birth

order and relationship to the head of the household, as well as parental education and occupation, family size, poverty and cultural practices.

Poverty is the main push factor of child labour in developing countries like Nigeria. Vulnerability of poor families due to their desperation for survival “pushes” their children into child labour (UNICEF, 2016). In households with large numbers of children, if income is not sufficient to meet basic needs there will be pressure to send at least some children to work in order to supplement overall household income (Sunandamina, 2014). According to Levison (1991), parental education and occupation can be critical in influencing which children are most vulnerable to exploitation. Also, there can be cultural or traditional practices whereby in certain population groups children working with parents is considered as part of the socialization process (Osmet, 2014). The child’s age is an important determinant of likelihood of child employment. Children are desired as workers for their malleability and compliance; their young age is justification for low or no wages (Fetuga, 2005). Given work participation, the type of activity that children engage in may also be gender-specific. The birth order of the child can influence whether the child works for economic or cultural reasons. For example, the oldest child in the household may be expected to work and to contribute, along with parents, to the education and upkeep of younger children (Lindert, 1978). Biological relatedness is a strong predictor of the quality of care offered to children; hence, children of the household head are less likely to work than non-biological relation to the head of household (Khanam, 2004).

Studies on the interaction between child labour and academic performance produce a mixed grill of findings. There is indirect evidence that child labour limits a child’s human capital development (Rosati & Rossi, 2011). The World Bank (2012), using test scores data from a nationally representative survey of junior high schools in Cambodia, reports that work has a significant and detrimental effect on learning achievement, particularly among the eight-graders. The estimated results for literacy and numeracy test-scores (including children, parental, household and school characteristics) indicate that working every day before going to school reduces literacy and numeracy test scores of Cambodian eight-graders both by about nine percentage points.

Using data from the survey conducted for Young Lives International Study in Ethiopia, Wohldehanna and Gebremedhin (2015) show that child labour has a negative impact on children’s raw test scores. Hence, there is clear causal evidence that child labour has adverse effect on children’s educational performance. They conclude that overall, child

labour exhibits a negative effect on children's educational achievement. The study of Guarcello, Lyons, and Rosati (2005) with a sample of 600 working children aged 12 – 14 years in grades 7 – 10 in Kenya indicates that only exclusive involvement in economic activity appears to be detrimental to academic achievement; 56 percentage are rated as either "poor" or "very poor" in terms of academic performance, compared to 37 percent of non-working children. Children involved in household chores rate higher than non-working children in terms of school performance. They conclude that not working will improve students' performance for most children in all work categories.

Addressing child labour depends on what its actual correlates and effects are. Therefore, this study has attempted to identify the determinants of child labour. Identification of these determinants could then help policy makers and researchers in designing interventions to tackle issues and constraints faced by the household where children work. Moreover, estimating the effects of child labour on learning outcome, which is a major purpose of this study, provides data for educational interventions to mitigate the impact of child work on education.

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the socio-cultural correlates and the effect of child labour on academic performance of public primary school pupils in Aba metropolis. To guide the study, the following three hypotheses were tested:

1. There would be no significant relationship between parental characteristics, mainly educational attainment, occupation, family size, and poverty status, and child labour.
2. There would be no significant relationship between child characteristics mainly age, gender, birth order, relationship to the head of household, and child labour.
3. There would be no significant relationship between cultural practices and child labour.

Methodology

The researcher carried out a correlational study to assess the relationships among the occurring variables with the goal of identifying relationship. The design was considered appropriate for the present study because it helped the researcher to explain phenomenon of child labour in Aba metropolis in terms of its correlates, conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held by the respondents, practices that are going on, and consequences that are evident (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996). The study was conducted in Aba Metropolis. Aba is a

city in the South-East of Nigeria and commercial hub of Abia State. When Abia State was created in 1991, the main Aba was divided into two local government areas, namely: Aba South and Aba North. Aba is a major urban settlement and is surrounded by small villages and towns. This area was chosen because of its urban nature, which is characterized by a wide socio-cultural spectrum, and marked with growth in the number of urban child workers in recent years. Moreover, working children in urban areas like Aba are likely to be more endangered and deprived due to high rates of vehicular accidents, crimes and other metropolitan hazards than those in rural areas and, therefore, especially deserving of attention by researchers and policy-makers. The target population for this study comprised all primary school pupils (aged 8-13years) in Aba South and Aba North Local Government Areas of Abia State. However, the accessible population for the survey was the pupils of primary five in Aba North and Aba South public primary schools because they were within the age of child labour and stable cohorts that were not distracted by any external examinations. Also, public primary schools were preferred because education is free of cost compared to private ones, and even the poor can educate their children in the former.

The study adopted a multi-stage technique approach. Firstly, the schools were stratified according to local government areas. Secondly, stratified random sampling technique was used to select fifteen public primary schools from the two local governments that make up the Aba metropolis. Thirdly, four hundred and five respondents were randomly selected in Aba North and four hundred and eighty respondents were selected in Aba South. Thus, a total of eight hundred and eighty five respondents were used as sample for the study. Initially, nine hundred and thirty questionnaires were administered, and only eight hundred and eighty five questionnaires were retrieved and found usable. This put the response rate at 95%. The pupils in the primary five classes were administered Child Labour Identification Questionnaire (CLIQ) constructed by the researcher to ascertain their involvement in work activities. A dichotomous question format was adopted in which the respondents, due to their level of understanding, were allowed a choice of only two responses: "Yes" or "No". To ascertain the internal consistency, the Cronbach's alpha was used to obtain a reliability coefficient of 0.83.

Child Labour Effect Questionnaire (CLEQ) was also developed by the researcher to examine the effect of parental characteristics, child characteristics, poverty status and cultural practices on child labour. Responses to most of the items assumed "Yes" or "No" format for easy

understanding by the respondents. To ascertain the internal consistency of the instrument, the Cronbach's alpha was used to obtain a reliability coefficient of 0.87.

Standardized Achievement Test in English Language (ATEL) which consisted of a twenty-item multiple-choice questions was used to determine the literacy performance of public primary school pupils in Aba metropolis. Also, Standardized Achievement Test in Mathematics (ATM) consisting of twenty-item multiple-choice questions was used to estimate the numeracy ability of the sample. All the items both for English and Mathematics were consistent with the primary five scheme of work covered in the first term.

A pilot study was carried out in one public primary school in Aba metropolis that was not included in the study. The content validity of the instruments was established by experts in test development and Sociology of Education. A test-retest measure of stability of the instruments was used to establish the reliability co-efficient of the instruments using forty students (twenty boys and twenty girls) within two weeks of interval. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used and r of 0.87 was established between the two tests administered to the students indicating that the tests were reliable and adequate for the study.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics covering computation of means, mean differences, percentages, standard deviations, t-test, ANOVA and multiple regression were used to analyse data collected.

Results

Hypothesis One: There would be no significant relationship between parental characteristics in terms of educational attainment, occupation, family size, and poverty and child labour.

In order to analyse hypothesis one, the data collected on parental characteristics (educational attainment, occupation, family size, and poverty) were correlated with the data on child labour activities using regression analysis. The results (Table 1) revealed that poverty status ($r = -0.19$), father education ($r = -0.195$), and mother education ($r = -0.119$) contribute inversely and significantly to child labour activities. This implies that pupils from poor families, with parents of low education are likely to be involved more in work activities than pupils from rich families and are of educated parents.

Table 1: Correlation between Parental Characteristics and Child Labour

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Father education	1.0	.010	-.179**	-.021	.047	.028	-.195**
Sig.		.999	.000	.533	.158	.406	.000
2 Mother education		1.0	.042	.036	.095**	-.010	-.119**
Sig.			.208	.285	.005	.777	.000
3 Father occupation			1.0	.021	.144**	.000	.236**
Sig.				.534	.000	.991	.000
4 Mother occupation				1	-.015	-.008	-.017
Sig.							
5 Size of family					1.0	-.051	.095**
Sig.						.129	.005
6 Poverty						1.0	-.190**
Sig.							.000
7 Child labour							1

Table 1 also shows that a positive and significant relationship exists among father occupation ($r = 0.236$), family size ($r = 0.095$) and child labour.

Table 2: Multiple Regression Analysis of Parental Characteristics on Child Labour

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.371 ^a	.137	.132		.34108	.246

a. Predictors: (Constant), father education, mother education, father occupation, mother occupation, and family size.

b. Dependent Variable: child labour.

Table 3: ANOVA Showing Coefficient of Determination

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16.276	5	3.255	27.981	.000b
	Residual	102.260	879	.116		
	Total	118.536	884			

a. Dependent Variable: Child labour.

b. Predictors: Father occupation, mother occupation, father education, mother education, family size and poverty.

Table 3 indicates that coefficient of determination (Adjusted R^2) = 0.132, and gives proportion of variance to be (Adjusted $R^2 \times 100$) = 13.2%. This implies that the independent variables (parents' educational attainment, occupation, size of family and poverty) account for 13.2% of the variance in the dependent variable (child labour) in the study area. Hence, the joint effect of parental characteristics is significant to determine child labour activities $p = 0.000 < 0.05$.

Table 4: Relative Contribution of Independent Variables to Child Labour

Model		Coefficients*			t	Sig.
		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.110	.092		22.909	.000
	Father education.	-.055	.011	-.058	-4.932	.000
	Mother education.	.054	.009	.203	6.294	.000
	Father occupation.	.052	.008	.197	6.26	.000
	Mother occupation.	.071	.029	.077	2.420	.016
	Family size.	-.044	.008	-.183	-5.846	.000
	Poverty.					

* Significant, *p. value* < 0.05

Table 4 shows the relative contribution of independent variables to child labour. Evidence from the data reveals that father education ($B = -0.055$, $t = -4.932$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$); mother education ($B = 0.051$, $t = 3.337$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$); and poverty ($B = -0.044$, $t = -5.846$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) contribute inversely and significantly to child labour. In addition, father occupation ($B = 0.054$, $t = 6.294$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$); mother occupation ($B = 0.052$, $t = 6.290$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) and size of the family ($B = 0.071$, $t = 2.420$, $p = 0.02 < 0.05$) contribute directly to the child labour in the study area. The results further show that size of the family ($B = 0.071$) contributes significantly to child labour more than the other parental characteristics. This is followed by father education ($B = -0.055$), father occupation ($B = -0.054$), mother education ($B = -0.051$) and poverty ($B = -0.044$) respectively. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Two: There would be no significant relationship between child characteristics and child labour.

Table 5: Correlation between Child Characteristics and Child Labour

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Gender	1.0	.032	-.123**	.119**	.201**
	Sig.		.346	.000	.000	.000
2	Age		1.0	.065	-.168**	.026
				.052	.000	.446**
3	Birth order			1.0	-.009	-.270**
	Sig.				.790	.000
4	Relationship with head of household				1.0	.164**
	Sig.					.000
5	Child labour					1.0

The results on the relationship between child characteristics and child labour are presented in Table 5 which reveal that birth order ($r = -0.27$, $p = 0.00$) contributes inversely and significantly to child labour activities. This implies that first born child is more likely to be involved in work activities than later born child. The data also reveal a direct and significant relationship between gender ($r = 0.201$, $p = 0.00$) and relationship to head of the household ($r = 0.164$, $p = 0.00$) with child labour. On the contrary, there is no significant relationship between age of the child and involvement in child labour ($r = 0.026$, $p = 0.446$).

Table 6: Multiple Regression Analysis of Child Characteristics on Child Labour

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
2	.354 ^a	.126	.122	.34320

a. Predictors: Questions addressing child characteristics: Whom are you living with? What is your birth order? What is your gender? What is your age?

Table 7: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
2	Regression	14.884	4	3.721	31.592	.000 ^b
	Residual	103.651	880	.118		
	Total	118.536	884			

a. Dependent Variable: Child labour.

b. Predictors: Age, gender, birth order and relationship of child to the head of household.

The data in Table 7 indicate that coefficient of determination (Adjusted R^2) = 0.122, which gives proportion of variance to be (Adjusted $R^2 \times 100$) = 12.2%. This implies that the independent variables (age, gender, birth order and relationship to head of the household) account for 12.2% of the variance in the dependent variable (child labour) in the study area. Hence, the joint effect of child characteristics is significant to determine child labour activities $F = 31.592$; $df = 4.884$; significant value $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ as shown in Table 7.

Table 8: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables on Child Labour

Table 8: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables on Child Labour							
Model		Coefficients [*]				Sig.	Remark
		Unstandardized		Standardized			
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t		
2	(Constant)	1.665	.055		30.441	.000	Significant
	Age	.030	.015	.064	1.979	.048	Significant
	Gender	.109	.023	.149	4.650	.000	Significant
	Birth Order	-.065	.008	-	-7.987	.000	Significant
	Relationship of child to the head of household.	.046	.009	.254	4.798	.000	Significant
				.155			

a. Dependent Variable: Child labour; b. Independent variables: Age, gender, birth order and relationship of child to the head of household.

Table 8 demonstrates the relative contribution of independent variables (age, gender, birth order and relationship to the head of household) to dependent variable (child labour). Evidence from the data reveals that gender ($B = 0.109$, $t = 4.650$, $p = 0.00 < 0.005$) and relationship to the head of household ($B = 0.046$, $t = 4.798$, $P = 0.00 < 0.05$) contribute directly and significantly to child labour. In addition, birth order ($B = 0.065$, $t = 7.987$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) contributes inversely to the child labour in the study location. On the other hand, age of the child ($B = 0.030$, $t = 1.979$, $p = 0.05$) does not contribute significantly to child labour activities. The results further show that gender of the child ($B = 0.109$) is a major determinant of child labour activities in the study location. This is followed by birth order ($B = -0.065$), relationship to the head of household ($B = -0.046$) and age ($B = 0.030$) respectively. The null hypothesis is, therefore, rejected.

Hypothesis Three: There would be no significant relationship between cultural practices and child labour.

Table 9: Multiple Regression Analysis Cultural Practices and Child Labour

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
3	.341 ^a	.116	.115	.34446

a. Predictors: (Constant), cultural practices

Table 10: ANOVA^a Table Showing Coefficient of Determination

Model		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	13.766	1	13.766	116.018	.000 ^b
	Residual	104.770	883	.119		
	Total	118.536	884			

a. Dependent Variable: Child labour

b. Predictors: (Constant), cultural practices

Table 9 indicates that coefficient of determination (Adjusted R^2) = 0.115, which gives proportion of variance to be (Adjusted $R^2 \times 100$) = 11.5%. This implies that the independent variables (cultural practices) account for 11.5% of the variance in child labour. Hence, the joint effect of child characteristics on child labour is significant ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$).

Table 11: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables to Child Labour

Table 11: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables to China Easiness							
		Coefficients				Sig.	Remark
		Unstandardized		Standardized			
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t		
1	(Constant)	1.321	.050		26.641	.000	Significant
	Cultural practices	-.098	.009	.341	10.771	.000	

a. Dependent Variable: Child labour

Evidence from Table 10 reveals that cultural practices: $B = 0.098$, $t = 10.771$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$; contribute directly and significantly to child labour. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion

The testing of hypothesis one reveals that there is a significant relationship between parental characteristics (mainly educational attainment, occupation, family size and poverty) and child labour. Disaggregation of these characteristics shows that parental level of education is strongly and negatively correlated with the probability of combining work and study. This is consistent with most of the previous literature. Tzannatos (1998) reports that the father's educational attainment has a significantly negative effect on the incidence of child labour in Thailand. Fetuga (2005) observes that children of poorly educated parents are significantly involved in labour activities in Ogun State, Nigeria. A plausible reason for the finding is that more educated parents might have a better knowledge of the returns to education and be in a better position to enable their children to exploit the earning potential acquired through education. Turning to the parental occupation, the variable coefficient for father (.236) gives significant results. For example, if father occupation is trade, then it is more likely for the child to specialize in schooling (Osmet, 2014). This is because if a father is engaged in trade then positive income effect dominates to keep the children in the school. On the other hand, if the father of a child is a farmer, then it increases the probability that the child will combine "study and work". The coefficient of mother occupation is found to be insignificant in the sample. Also, the finding shows that there is a significant relationship between family size and the probability of combining work and study. This is in agreement with the view in Bhalotra and Heady (2003), which suggests a significant negative effect of household size on the probability of being in work and on the probability of combining work and study, relative to the probability of simply being in school. A possible explanation for the researcher's finding is that large family size reduces wealth per capita and makes the competition over scarce resources stiffer, which may in turn increase child labour to generate resources to sustain family members.

Poverty contributes significantly to child labour. To capture the poverty status, the study used a proxy variable for education level of the head household property index as well as proxies for parental occupation and type of accommodation inhabited by respondents. Households below the poverty line are likely to send their children to

work and study because they need additional income to support their family. It indicates that poverty is one cause of child labour. The finding of this study confirms a priori poverty theory of a positive link between poverty and involvement in child labour activities, while contradicting the findings of Coulombe (1998) and Canagarajah and Nielsen (2001), which typically have found this link to be absent. Similarly, Ray's (2010) study in Pakistan establishes a positive association between child labour and poverty.

Hypothesis two states that there would be no significant relationship between child characteristics; mainly age, gender, birth order and relationship to the head of household and child labour. The finding reveals that there is no significant relationship between age of the child and involvement in child labour. Similarly, Levison's (1991) study in Mexico finds no significant effect of age on the probability of combining work and study. On the contrary, Cartwright and Patrinos (1999) report that age increases the probability that a child will work either full time or a combination of work and school. Also, Oloko (1990) states that age sometimes constitutes an important intervening variable in the extent to which work constitutes socialization in Nigeria.

Gender has significant effect on the probability of combining study and work. Female children are more likely to combine study with work, since the odds of combining study with work for girls are higher than those for boys. This finding is not surprising, as the researcher included housework in the definition of work. It is, thus, consistent with the finding of Edmonds (2012) who also finds that if housework is included in the measurement of work, then girls are 14.1 percent points more likely than boys to combine work and study. Moreover, the established gender differential need not necessarily imply discrimination but rather reflect cultural beliefs, norms and values. However, other studies by Tanson (2009) and Ilahi (2001) that use conventional definition of work find that girls are less likely than boys to combine work and study. With reference to birth order, the finding shows there is a significant relationship between child's birth order and involvement in child labour. This implies that first child is more likely to combine work and study than later-born. The finding is in consonance with Oloko (1990) who observes that there is a societal belief in Nigeria that earlier-born children should take on more family responsibilities than later-born. Therefore, they are more likely to be chosen for work and school attendance by their parents. It can also be argued that earlier born children are able to command higher wages than their youngest siblings. The finding of this study further reveals direct and significant association between a child's relationship to the head of household and

child labour. The coefficient shows significant positive effect on the probability of combining work and study, which implies that son or daughter of the household head is also likely to study alone or combine study and work as opposed to the children of other relatives of the household head who may be denied schooling. This reflects that household head favours his or her own child with schooling or at least to combine school and work. Khanan (2004) confirms that if a child is the son or daughter of the head of the household, he or she is more likely to specialize in study and less likely to specialize in work. Most of the findings of this study align with the socio-cultural theoretical framework which postulates that parents, relatives, culture and society play vital role in forming certain levels of functioning in children, particularly child labour (Vygotsky, 1995).

The testing of hypothesis three indicates that cultural practices (beliefs system, norms and values) contribute directly and significantly to child labour. This finding is in agreement with Elijah and Okoruwa (2006) who are of the opinion that the practice of child labour in Yenegoa is mainly rooted in the cultural values. Culturally, it is probably believed that child labour is perceived as a form of socialization through which children are trained in the work and responsibilities of an adult.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study considers the socio-cultural correlates and the effect of child labour on the academic performance of public primary school children in Aba metropolis. From the results of this study it is concluded that both individual child's and parental characteristics are strong determinants of child labour. Also, there appears to be a poverty-child labour link in the data. Child labour thrives because of the cultural belief, norms and values that work is good for character-building of children.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations have been made:

1. Sociologists of education should organize seminars and workshops for children, parents, guardians, community leaders and teachers on the harmful effect of child labour on the academic performance of children.
2. Provision of social welfare facilities to improve the economic circumstances of working children's parents.
3. Laws prohibiting child labour need to be strictly enforced.

4. Educate the populace on the relationship between family and quality of life.
5. Child labour issues should be introduced into the curriculum of regular school programmes.
6. There should be intensive public education to eradicate culturally induced child labour practices.

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Development of Private Secondary School Education in Nigeria

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Abstract. *This paper examines historical development of private secondary school education in Nigeria (1859 – present). In the process, it examines the growth of private secondary school education with reference to quantity of resources since 1859, and the development of the education with reference to quality of the education. The study was done using historical research method because this study is historical in nature. Thus primary and secondary sources of data were used in the study. Moreover periodic and thematic analyses of the data were done in the fashion of historical research. It was found that private secondary school education in Nigeria was started by the Christian missionaries, the local communities subsequently established private secondary schools too. The government later established public schools. But the government was more interested in ensuring quality education at the schools (private and public). The private secondary schools did not give wide range of education initially but as a result of agitation by the educated elite in Nigeria the curriculum was widened. The quality was also increasingly better and the products could secure better jobs. However government's policy later made education free up to the end of junior secondary school (1999). It is concluded that the policy of free secondary education (junior secondary education) by government should be implemented in such a way that would prevent industrial actions by teachers. Moreover it is recommended that the free education policy should apply not only to junior secondary school education, but also to senior secondary school education.*

Keywords: Education; Privatisation; Nigeria.

Introduction

Western education was introduced in Nigeria by private agencies. Adebowale (2000:21-22) pointed out that its first introduction was in the south coast of Nigeria when the Portuguese merchants who established trading posts at Lagos, Benin, and Brass invited their Catholic home mission to establish schools for the sons of *Obas*, chiefs and influential citizens in the palaces of the *Obas* of the above mentioned towns. This first attempt at introducing western education in Nigeria did not reach the interior and it was later abandoned as a result of inter-tribal wars and the trans-Atlantic slave trade. The period of this first attempt was between 1515 and 1552 (Adebowale, 2000:21-22).

The second attempt, and successful introduction of western education was in September, 1842. According to Olawuyi (2004:19-21) the Wesleyan Methodist Society was the first Christian mission to arrive in Badagry, Lagos, followed by the Church Missionary Society (CMS), the Baptist and then, the Roman Catholic. No sooner they (the missions) arrived than they embarked upon the opening of primary schools for

general education of the converts. Thus, from this humble beginning, the Christian missions pioneered the establishment of schools which gradually spread from the coasts in Lagos, Badagry and Calabar to the interior (Ayandele, 1966: 12-15).

The research method used in this study is historical research method. This is because the study is historical in nature. Thus the study employed primary and secondary sources of data including diaries, log book, policies, minutes of meetings, journal, educational magazines, and other related materials. All these were subjected to periodic and thematic analyses in the fashion of historical research and in accordance with the context of this paper. In the process historical conclusions and sound recommendations were arrived at.

Growth of Private Secondary School Education in Nigeria

Just like the primary education was pioneered by the Christian missions, secondary school education in Nigeria also owed its origin to the activities of the various Christian missions. Adeyinka (1971:48-51) in his work on 'the development of secondary grammar school education in the western state of Nigeria' attributed the origin and development of secondary school education to the pioneering efforts of the Christian missions and later, to the encouragement given by the government.

The Christian missions at the initial stage were not interested in promoting education beyond the primary school level in Nigeria (Adeyinka, 1971:17-20; Bibby and Peil 1974:34-41; Eliasu, 1998:48-50). From their proselytization perspective, secondary education was repetitious and could turn its beneficiaries into materialistic and intellectually arrogant set of people.

It is important to note that since the introduction of western education in 1842 and the establishment of elementary schools by the Christian missions in Nigeria, the few Nigerian educated people began to agitate for the establishment of secondary schools. The reason is because, they desired a kind of post-primary education that would qualify their children to work as intermediate civil servants, and that would subsequently qualify them to gain admission into higher institutions of learning after which they could become doctors, lawyers, engineers, and so forth. Thus they could occupy leadership roles in the nation (Berman, 1975:15-17; Adebowale, 2000:43-44).

The persistent clamour for secondary school education by the few Nigerian educated people led to the establishment of the first secondary school in Nigeria – CMS Grammar School, Lagos, founded in June, 1859 (Adeyinka, 1971:34). It was a privately owned school as it was founded

by Church Missionary Society (CMS). This was the beginning of secondary school education in Nigeria. Adebowale (2000:44) stated that in 1876, Wesley Boys' High School, Lagos, was founded by the Wesleyan Methodist Society. This was followed by the establishment in 1878 of Wesley Girls' High School, Lagos by the same mission, while Saint Gregory's College, Obalende, Lagos was founded in 1879 by the Roman Catholic. According to Ayoade (2000:13) the Baptist Academy, Obanikoro, Lagos, that was founded in 1853 by the Southern Baptist Convention, America, later metamorphosed into two secondary schools in 1885; one for boys and the other for girls. Abeokuta Grammar School, founded in 1908 was added to the number of secondary schools that were established by the Christian missions (Ayandele, 1974:43-46; Isiaka, 1999:58-63).

The mission-owned secondary schools formed the first set of private secondary schools in Nigeria. According to Ukeje and Aisiku (1982:59-62) the schools were non-governmental because the colonial government did not show interest in education until 1872 when it gave the first grants-in-aid to the mission schools. Ukeje and Aisiku stated that the British colonial government came out with its first education ordinance in 1887. The available secondary schools were found to be inadequate, so, the agitation for more secondary schools in the country continued.

The second set of private secondary schools in Nigeria came into existence as a result of continued clamour for establishing enough secondary schools in various localities. According to Quadri (1984:24-25) the localities were the communities that felt the mission or government was not doing enough to satisfy its yearnings in the provision of secondary education for the populace. Consequently, more private secondary schools were established in the country. Some of the private secondary schools include: Ibadan Grammar School (1913), Ijebu-Ode Grammar School (1913), Eko Boys High School, Lagos (1913), Oduduwa College, Ile-Ife (1932), Agrey Memorial College, Arochukwu, (founded by AlvanIkoku in 1932), Enitonna High School, Port-Harcourt, (founded by Rev. Potts-Johnson in 1932), Ibadan Boys' High school (founded by Chief O. L. Oyesina in 1938), National Institute, Calabar (founded by Eyo-Ita, in 1938), Ilesa Grammar School, Ilesa (1939), and Kiriji Memorial College, Igbajo, (1952) (Quadri, 1984:29-35).

The activities of the Nigerian communities, individuals, tribal unions, professional groups and the educated elite regarding the growth and development of secondary schools in Nigeria are enormous. Moreover the involvement of private individuals, missions and private agencies in

educational provision in Nigeria has greatly increased in recent times (Omolewa, 2013:19-21).

The inability of government to cope with the increasing demand especially, for qualitative secondary education increased private involvement in the business of providing secondary education in the country. It needs to be pointed out that today, none of the educational levels (primary, secondary, tertiary) in Nigeria is left without the participation of private individuals, missions and private agencies.

Development of Private Secondary School Education in Nigeria

The development of secondary education in Nigeria generally, and private secondary school education in particular, was pioneered by the Christian missionaries when they arrived the country and introduced western education in the nineteenth century (Wise, 1956:39-44; Adaralegbe, 1983:27-31). Since the specific objective of the missionaries was to convert a vast majority of Nigerians to Christianity, Nigerian children and youths were taught to read the Bible and write. Adaralegbe (1983:43-47) stated that when the trading firms and colonial masters came and they needed clerks, interpreters, drivers, cooks, sanitary inspectors and so forth, the four R's (Religion, Reading, Writing and Arithmetic) as well as History, Geography, Hygiene and Nature study were taught in the schools.

Carr (1984:29-32) stated that the main objective of sending a boy to the first secondary schools in Nigeria was seldom for the purpose of enlarging his mind. It was rather, from the notion that additional schooling beyond primary education would fetch the young person more money in the employment market. He observed further that these early secondary schools taught a large number of subjects in such a way that very little of them could have been assimilated.

Fajana (1978:47-49) stated that the books ordered by Macaulay in 1859 when the first secondary school in Nigeria (CMS Grammar School, Lagos) was established included the usual ones of Grammar, Composition, Arithmetic, History, Geography, Latin Grammar, French Grammar and Philosophy instruction. Fajana (1978:51-54) stated further that the Methodist High School, Lagos (1878) listed more numerous subjects, including English Orthography, Writing, Dictation, Arithmetic, Algebra, Grammar, History, Geography, Classics, Prose and Poetry. In addition, there were two sets of optional subjects offered at extra cost, namely, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French and other modern languages, Geometry, Trigonometry, Book-keeping, Drawing, Rhetoric and Logic, Moral Philosophy and Political Economy constituting one set; and

Roman History, Greek History, Mythology and Antiquities, Physiology, Geology and Botany constituting the second set (Wheeler, 1969:13-16).

Adaralegbe (1983:38-43) observed that in terms of development, the Nigerian secondary school curriculum hardly improved on the above throughout the entire colonial period except in a few modifications of the number of subjects being offered, particularly due to shortage of qualified staff to teach. Significantly depressing in the list of school subjects offered by these earlier secondary schools for the next one hundred years, according to Adaralegbe (1983:43-45) was the absence of science, technical and technological subjects. Another disturbing feature in the development of private or earlier secondary schools identified by Adaralegbe (1983:47-49) was the evidence of little relevance of the school subjects to the improvement of the quality of life of the individuals and socio-political life of the nation. Yet another disturbing feature of the secondary school curriculum, as pointed out by Adaralegbe was its non-functionality in the sense that it was mainly examination oriented, depending mostly on rote-learning, with very little attention given to developing the mental and manual skills of its recipients. Carr (1984:12) described this as "encyclopaedic learning" which leads to nowhere.

Fajana (1978:50) held the same view as Carr when he stated that the school subjects taught had no direct practical value. According to him, children were sent to the secondary schools by their parents so that they could secure white collar jobs and become clerks after graduation. Fajana noted that the curriculum was not in line with the Nigerian aspiration and culture.

Aiyepoku (1989:36) supported Fajana (1978:50-51) when he noted that the objective of colonial secondary school was to train the students in literary subjects as a result of which only white collar workers were produced. He observed further that the new system of secondary school education in Nigeria has introduced more relevant, functional and suitable curriculum.

Osokoya (1985: 33-37) stated that the curriculum inherited from the missionaries aimed at converting the beneficiaries to Christianity as a result of which religious instruction was made the core of the school curriculum. Another objective of the formal missionary education identified by Osokoya was to guarantee basic literacy and general education which would enable Nigerians to function as interpreters, messengers or clerks, or that would make Nigerians generally inferior to the colonial masters. This would imply that the inherited educational curriculum had failed to meet the demands and aspirations of Nigerians.

The pre-independence Nigerian administration, as observed by Adaralegbe (1983:46-48) hardly improved upon the colonial records in secondary school development. However, by the 1960's (during the formative years of independence), Adaralegbe stated that there were visible and discernible signs, of gradual change from the irrelevant curriculum to more relevant one. Gradually there were indications to emphasise science education at the secondary school level to make the various subjects relevant to Nigerian (and African) needs. Various bodies were established by government to ensure that this is done. Such bodies include the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) and National Council on Education (NCE).

Moreover the National Policy on Education contains policy issues that give progressive direction on education whereby the various levels of education in the country are expected to feature standard education for national development in the various institutions (government and private institutions). In effect there are indications to show that education, including secondary school education, is witnessing appreciable development in Nigeria.

However for the country to witness greater development in education, the Universal Basic Education policy by government (up to the end of junior secondary school) should be extended to the end of senior secondary school education, as it is in the developed nations like: the United States of America, United Kingdom, France and so forth.

Conclusion

Private secondary school education started in Nigeria through the effort of Christian missionaries in 1842. The private schools taught subjects that had little relevance to developmental desires of the nation. But with great agitation from Nigerian elites the subjects were increased and the school products could work in wide areas of national economy. At independence the government made great efforts to improve upon the quality of education such that it could provide more job opportunities, and the result is that the quality of education had greater impact on the economy. Moreover the government made education free up to the junior secondary school level in 1999. But because the government could not pay teachers' salaries for some time, teachers in government schools embarked upon industrial actions for some time, and thus increased the patronage of private secondary schools. The private schools did not generally compromise quality as a result of increase in patronage. The government schools later got back to work but the private schools continued to be relevant and qualitative. So the government and private

schools are making good progress in providing quantity and quality education to Nigerians.

However the policy of free secondary education (up to junior secondary school level) by government would make better impression in terms of mass and quality education if extended to the senior secondary level of education.

Recommendations

It is therefore recommended that private secondary school education in Nigeria should continue to be relevant and qualitative. Moreover the education in government Basic Schools should be free up to the end of senior secondary schooling. By so doing the education given in government primary and secondary schools would have greater impact on the nation in terms of national enlightenment, and job opportunities. Moreover such mass education would help in the quality of participation of the citizens in socio-political and economic activities for the betterment of Nigeria, Africa and the world at large.

This is not to suggest that the private secondary school education which features fee paying is discouraged. Rather when government free education is extended up to the senior secondary schools level the competition between the government schools and the fee paying private secondary schools would be in more impressive dimension such that the quality of education in the country would be of greater dimension.

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Hands-on Learning Methods and Academic Performance in Chemistry at Ordinary Level in Kira Municipality, Uganda

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Abstract. *The primary focus of the study was to evaluate on hands on learning methods and students' academic performance in Chemistry at "O" Level in Kira Municipality, Wakiso district, Uganda. The research used a cross sectional survey design and employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. A sample of 184 respondents was selected using purposive and snowball techniques. The findings indicated that collaborative learning was inadequately applied, which led to statistically significant negative relationship with academic performance in Chemistry examinations. Findings further revealed a weak positive relationship between demonstration and performance and a strong negative relationship between experimental projects and academic performance (because experimental projects were nearly non-existent in all the schools). The study concludes that inadequate application of collaborative learning, demonstration and experimental projects cripples students' ability to perform well in Chemistry. Therefore, it recommends that both teachers and students be provided with the avenues they need for hands-on teaching and learning of Chemistry.*

Key words: STEM, Curriculum innovation, SESEMAT.

Introduction

In 2008 the government of Uganda made a policy that Sciences at Uganda Certificate Education Level are compulsory for future economic development. Since then the government has equipped many schools with laboratory equipment and teachers, including mandatory Science and Mathematics (SESEMAT) programs. Chemistry cuts across all the sciences responsible for industrial development but since 2008 till today the Uganda certificate of education national examination results in Chemistry continue to show poor results. Therefore if the trend remains like that Uganda cannot achieve vision 40 and industrialization unless a study is done to find best modalities of learning Chemistry for the improvement in Uganda certificate of education national examination results. This calls a paradigm shift to focus on best learning methods of Chemistry for academic performance in Uganda certificate of education national examinations.

Problem

The ideal situation of learning Chemistry should be the practical way whereby students have to do and demonstrate practical skills for better

academic performance (National council of science and Technology 2012). The National Curriculum Development Centre and Ministry of Education and Sports support that teachers should use hands-on-learning methods such as collaborative, demonstration and experimental projects as methods of learning. However the situation at hand today is that teaching and learning Chemistry continues to register very high percentages of failure in Chemistry at National examinations therefore there must be a problem responsible for the poor performance (National council of science and Technology 2012). According to National council of science and Technology 2012 report statistics show that there have been a decline in core secondary school science performance and in this case we mean in Chemistry, physics, biology and mathematics. In 2005 -2008 respectively performance of physics was 70%,60%,40%41% and Chemistry same years respectively was 55%,55%,30% 26%, and biology similarly following same trend scored 59%,50%,61%,59% while mathematics following the same sequence scored 61%,77%,78%,80%.Of all core science subjects of secondary school the above figures show that Chemistry is the most poorly performed subject. If performance remains like this, schools may have a big challenge in producing practical scientists in Chemistry which affects national technological departments, national health systems, general welfare and industrialization.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to evaluate how hands-on learning methods can influence students' academic performance in Chemistry at "O" Level.

Objectives of the Study

1. To find out the effect of collaborative learning on academic performance in Chemistry at "O" Level in Kira Wakiso district.
2. To establish the effect of demonstration on academic performance in Chemistry at "O" Level in Kira Wakiso district
3. To establish the effect of experimental projects on academic performance in Chemistry at "O" Level in Kira Wakiso district.

Scope of the Study

This research covered the different Hands-on methods of learning Chemistry as collaborative, demonstration, and experimental projects.

The study also looked at the effect of such methods on students' academic performance in Chemistry at Uganda certificate of education examinations. The study covered the period between 2011 and 2015 because these years have registered a decline in the performance of Chemistry at Uganda certificate of education. The study covered selected schools of Kira Municipality in Wakiso District, Uganda which is about 10 km from Kampala capital city on Kampala- Jinja road to the east. The area of Study is chosen because it has so many schools both private and government of different standards. Kira represents both rural and urban setting with government schools and non-Government schools. Kira has Universal Secondary Education (USE) and non-USE, with good academic performance and poor academic performance and it was also convenient for the researchers.

Conceptual Framework

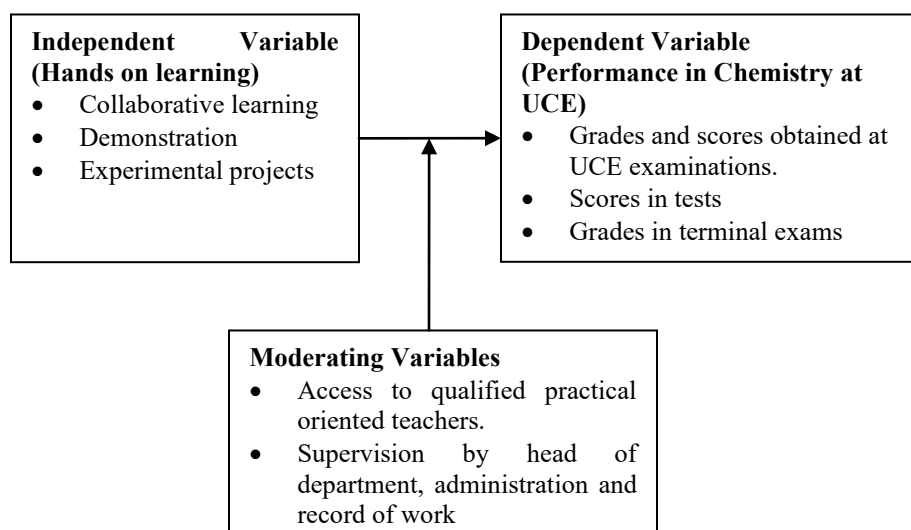


Figure 1: Model of the Conceptual Framework

Collaborative Learning and Students' Academic Performance in Chemistry

In spite of the central and important position of Chemistry among other sciences and related disciplines, academic performance of students in Chemistry at Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE) has consistently been very poor and unimpressive (Njoku, 2005). Many factors have been suggested as contributing to this poor performance of students in Chemistry in particular and science in general. Some of

these factors include: inadequate laboratory equipment in Chemistry (Eniayeju, 2010); poor teaching methods (Ayogu, 2001); poor training of teachers and mathematical nature of Chemistry among others.

The aspect of students' collaboration in balancing chemical equations has been recognized as one of the basic chemical issues in Chemistry, as suggested by Ababio, (2004). Anthony, (2009) reported that collaboration in, and the understanding of balancing chemical equation is a prerequisite to the comprehension of some learning tasks in Chemistry such as chemical equilibrium, electro Chemistry and organic Chemistry. Balancing chemical equations also is one of the difficult concepts Chemistry students encounter in both practical and theory. Similarly, WAEC(West African Examination Council) chief examiners' reports of 2009, 2010, and 2011, ascertained that, what made most Chemistry students perform poorly in Chemistry, was the inability of the students to write correctly, reactants, products as well as to balance the reaction equation correctly.

A number of activity oriented instructional strategies have been advocated for by curriculum designers and science educators (Eniayeju, 2001) in Dahiru (2013) to help improve on the failure rate among secondary school science students. Examples of these strategies include guided discovery approach, collaboration method, discussion method and problem - solving for teaching senior secondary school Chemistry as stipulated in National Policy on Education. Research findings had however, revealed that, a large proportion of science teachers, Chemistry inclusive, still resort to the use of traditional/lecture method rather than the activity -oriented or student centred strategies advocated for, such as participation method, problem - solving and others (Olorukooba, 2001).

Demonstration and Academic Performance in Chemistry

Scholars the world over have now recognized that there are better methods of learning than through the conventional ways of instruction (Achor et al., 2009). Secondary schools have realised the relevance of utilisation of appropriate methods such as demonstration through which students can learn (Ajiboye et al., 2008). Further, several methods of teaching have been proved to be relatively ineffective on students' ability to master and then retain important concepts.

Bello, (2011) noted that learning through some methods of teaching is passive rather than active. The applications of the traditional methods like lecture, memorizing, recitation, among others do not seem to aid critical and creative thinking, and collaborative problem-solving.

According to Colbum, (2005) in Uhumuavbi, and Mamudu (2009) the challenge in teaching is to create experiences that involve the students and support their own thinking explanations, evaluations, communications and applications of scientific models needed to make sense of these experiences. Daniel and Bimbola, (2010) indicated that science subjects are more affected in this trend of development. Chemistry, which is purely science based, is more of practically-oriented learning experiences than mere theories. For instance, in spite of the frantic efforts made by the government to enhance teaching of science/ Chemistry science syllabus, by employment of qualified graduate teachers, provision of facilities and prompt payment of salaries, among others, the recent students' results at external examinations show a decline in performance.

According to Adah (2011) the reason behind poor performance in Chemistry is that it is practical and skill oriented subject yet it is mainly taught theoretically in most cases. It is supposed to enable students acquire basic knowledge and practical skills compared to theory. However, there has been a general perception of science by an average student, that Chemistry is very difficult thus making it dominated by students deemed to have higher intellectual capacity thus de-motivating majority of the students.

Experimental Projects and Academic Performance in Chemistry

During scientific or experimental projects, the outcome can be predetermined or undetermined; the approach can be inductive (where the students observe particular instances to derive general principles, or deductive, where the students apply a general principle toward understanding a specific phenomenon (Lawal, 2009). The expository style (sometimes called verification) of laboratory instruction is the most popular because it can be performed simultaneously by a large number of students with minimal involvement from the instructor, at low cost, and within a 2-3 hour period of time, all factors that represent serious logistic constraints when large numbers of students are involved. Clearly the choice of experiments is based on convenience rather than pedagogy. Inquiry laboratories are inductive, have an undetermined outcome, and require that students generate their own procedures. Since the inquiry approach places more responsibility on the students, it's not surprising that student ownership over laboratory activities increases, which results in students showing improved attitudes toward science instruction and to improve their ability to utilize formal operational thought (Njoku, 2005).

According to Okebukola, (2005) properly executed, inquiry laboratory experiments require students to devise plans that invite intellectual and pedagogic methods and they engage higher order thinking skills – hypothesizing, explaining, criticizing, and analysing, judging evidence, inventing, and evaluating arguments. Okeke, (2002) contends that discovery learning through experimental projects is meant to personalize the information students acquire, making it more meaningful and, thus, better retained. In addition, Dahiru (2013) avers that a problem-based environment encourages students to apply their understanding of a concept to answer questions for which answers do not yet exist.

Methodology

The study used a cross sectional survey design with a sample size of 5 Head teachers purposively selected, 19 Chemistry teachers and 160 Chemistry students obtained by snowball sampling techniques. The sample size was calculated using Krejcie and Morgan 1970.

Data quality control measures was undertaken to ascertain the accuracy and consistence of the data collected. The data collection instruments were pretested to ensure validity and reliability. Validity was calculated using Content Validity index test as seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Content Validity Indices

Variable	Content validity Index	Number of items
Collaborative learning	0.8181	11
Demonstration	0.7	10
Experimental projects	0.857	7
Academic performance	0.8	5

Reliability was determined using Cronbach’s Alpha method. The coefficient was established at .884, meaning that the instrument was consistent. Respondents according to different attributes showed that majority (55%) of the respondents were females while 45% were males. The highest number of respondents (85%) was between the age group 15-20 because most of them were Chemistry students.

Findings and Interpretation

On collaborative learning and academic performance in Chemistry, it was established that most school laboratories did not have enough equipment for practical lessons as revealed by 64.4% of the respondents compared to only 25.7% while 10% were not sure. The corresponding

mean for this finding was 2.37 which is below average while the standard deviation was 1.330, an indication that most respondents revealed that laboratories do not have enough equipment for Chemistry practical lessons. This was further supported by one of the Head teachers during face to face interviews who said:

“Our school has no laboratory but just small laboratory stores. The school does not have sufficient laboratory equipment”. In addition, the school lacks chemicals and chemical reagents while other chemicals are expired, and the apparatuses are out of use.”

The above finding was compounded by the fact that the school Chemistry was unable to name all the laboratory equipment available in their school.

Similarly, the study further revealed that students do not have access to enough chemicals for practical lessons as confirmed by 53.1% of the respondents who disagreed against 35.6% who agreed. On the other hand, 11.3% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.67 while the standard deviation was 1.315, which shows that most respondents disagreed.

On whether schools have enough infrastructures for Chemistry practical lessons 70.6% of the respondents disagreed, 17.5 agreed while 11.9% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.15 and the standard deviation 1.209. This was supported by one of the school head teachers who had this to say;

“Our school has no laboratory but we have a laboratory store where we keep some laboratory apparatus and chemicals”

This shows that the school lacks enough infrastructures to support students in Chemistry practical lessons. This further explains why students are able to correctly write reactants as reported by 36.9 % of the respondents who disagreed, though 30.6% agreed while 32.5% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.82 which is less than 3.0 while the standard deviation was 1.159. This shows that most schools do not have enough infrastructures, which explains why academic performance in Chemistry at UCE exams is poor.

Study findings further revealed that teachers use activity oriented methods while teaching as revealed by 68.2% of the respondents who agreed while 18.8% disagreed and 13.1% were not sure. The corresponding mean of 3.67 which is above average shows that majority of the respondents agreed while the standard deviation was 1.221 an indication that few respondents gave varying responses. However, results from face to face interviews revealed that sometimes, activity

oriented methods are not used as reported by one of the Head teachers who had this to say;

“The methods used for teaching Chemistry at this is school is that the teacher gives notes to student leaders to dictate to fellow students and the teachers comes later to explain those notes to students. In addition, chalk and talk method of teaching is also used.”

This shows that students are not much engaged in activity oriented lessons which retards their ability to comprehend practical activities. Asked whether collaborative learning is used to study Chemistry at school, 56.9% of the respondents agreed while 29.4% disagreed and while 13.8% were not sure. The corresponding mean for the statement was 3.36 while the standard deviation was 1.353. This shows that most collaborative learning is used by most teachers while teaching Chemistry.

Relatedly, study findings further revealed that students are given set plans and objectives before learning tasks as reported by 53.8% of the respondents compared to 37.5% who disagreed while 8.8% were not sure. The obtained mean was 3.22 while the standard deviation was 1.453. This shows that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement. When students are given set plans and objectives before learning tasks, they are able to follow the required procedures which contribute to improved academic performance.

Regarding whether students work together to accomplish tasks and monitor progress, majority 58.7% of the respondents agreed though 30.6% disagreed while 10.6% were not sure. The corresponding mean of 3.36 and the standard deviation of 1.393 show that most respondents confirmed the statement. This means that efforts are made to ensure that students work together to accomplish tasks which provides them with a plat form to learn from each other, thereby leading to improved academic performance.

However, when asked whether students often have a test anxiety for examinations 41.3% of the respondents agreed, 45.1% disagreed, while 13.8% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.92 which is below average and the standard deviation, 1.521. This shows that most students often have a test anxiety for examinations which has a negative effect on their academic performance in Chemistry at UCE examinations. This was confirmed by one of the deputy head teachers during interviews, who had this to say;

“Students panic too much during exams, and this affects their academic performance.”

During the study, it was found that students have enough lessons of Chemistry per week as revealed by 58.8% of the respondents who agreed compared to 36.3% who disagreed, while only 5.0% were not sure. The obtained mean was 3.37 and the standard deviation, 1.557. This shows that most respondents agreed that they have enough Chemistry lessons per week. On the contrary, the study revealed that students do not have enough practical lessons per week as revealed by 52.5% of the respondents who disagreed compared to 41.9% who agreed and 5.6% that were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.72 while the standard deviation was 1.557 which shows that majority of the respondents disagreed. This was further confirmed by one of the Head teachers who revealed said;

“Practical lesson is conducted once a term. Directors do not purchase chemical and apparatus required because they are expensive. In addition, practical lessons are done rarely and after a long period having already done the related theory.”

This means that students do not have enough exposure to practical lessons which affects their academic performance at UCE exams.

On Demonstration and academic performance in Chemistry results indicated that students learn by doing things and telling (reporting) how to do them. This is seen when 58.1% of the respondents agreed while only 26.9% disagreed and 15.0% were not sure. The obtained mean was 3.44 while the standard deviation was 1.386. This implies that if students learn by doing things and telling how to do them, they are likely to perform better in Chemistry at UCE examinations.

When asked whether students are allowed to carry out class activities in group (group interactions), 86.3% agreed, and 12.5% disagreed, while 1.3% was not sure. The corresponding mean was 4.06 while the standard deviation was 1.201. This shows that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement. The above findings were supported by one of the teachers when he said;

“Students are normally encouraged to carry out class activities in groups in order for them to discuss and learn from each other. When students are involved in group interactions, they understand things they were unable to grasp while in class.”

The above finds were supported by 61.9% of the respondents who revealed that the method of teaching Chemistry at school is activity oriented. Only 24.4% disagreed while 13.8% were not sure. The obtained mean was 3.48 while the standard deviation obtained was 1.373. This indicates that majority of the respondents concurred with the statement.

This further implies that engaging students in classroom activities contributes to their better understanding of what they have been taught, leading to improved academic performance.

Findings in the table above further revealed that students study Chemistry using conducive methods as reported by 48.1% who agreed, compared to 35.7% of the respondents that disagreed. On the other hand, 16.3% were not sure and the obtained mean was 3.13 while the standard deviation was 1.365. Some of the methods used include chalk and talk method, while other times, teachers give notes to students, they copy them and the teacher explains later.

On whether students are given work, marked and discussed, majority 65% agreed, 31.3% disagreed, while 3.8% were not sure. The mean was 3.43 and the standard deviation was 1.532. This implies that students are regularly tested after which discussions are held to enable students understand areas they found difficult for them. The study further revealed that majority (49.4%) of the students understand the use apparatus though 23.8% disagreed while 26.9% were not sure. The corresponding mean was 3.34 and the standard deviation was 1.264. On the contrary, interviews with one of the Deputy Head teachers revealed that students have limited exposure to apparatus when she said;

“The school does not have enough equipment/ apparatus to use in Chemistry practical lessons. This affects the students’ ability to use the apparatuses, thereby performing poorly during UCE examinations.”

The above revelation implies that some schools do not have enough apparatuses, which limits students’ chances and ability to use them, thereby performing poorly in Chemistry exams.

Relatedly, findings in table 6 indicate that students do not understand measuring of reagents and solutions as revealed by 40% of the respondents who disagreed compared to 32.5% who agreed and 27.5% that were not sure. This is further supported by the corresponding mean of 2.77 and the standard deviation of this implies that if students do not know how to measure solutions, they are likely to fail Chemistry practical exams. On whether the school has enough demonstration equipment, 59.4 disagreed, 26.9 agreed while 13.8% were not sure. The corresponding mean was 2.44 and the standard deviation was 1.335. This implies that most schools do not have enough demonstration equipment. This was confirmed during face to face interviews, when one of the respondents had this to say:

“The school does not have enough demonstration equipment, and because of this, demonstration is used on few occasions depending on the topic being studied.”

The study tried to establish whether schools have running water in the laboratory. To this, only 32.5% of the respondents agreed, while majority 61.9% disagreed and 5.6% were not sure. This was confirmed with the mean value of 2.43 while the standard deviation was 1.620. In the same way, 64.4% of the respondents reported that schools do not have laboratory taps proper for rubber tubing 64.4%. Only 26.3% agreed while 14.4% were not sure. The corresponding mean was 2.23 while the standard deviation was 1.485. This implies that most school laboratories do not have running water, which affects effectiveness in conducting practical lessons in Chemistry.

Concerning Experimental projects and academic performance in Chemistry results revealed that 36.2% of the respondents revealed that students use expository or verification style while learning Chemistry. On the other hand, another 36.3% of the respondents disagreed while 27.5% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.82 while the standard deviation was 1.252. This implies that expository or verification style is not used by most students. This was supported by one of the Head teachers who reported;

“Verification style is used very few (for instance twice) throughout the four years and sometimes they combine S.3 & S.4 in the laboratory store. In addition, the room is too small therefore some students end up being spectators.”

The above revelation indicates that students are not regularly exposed to Chemistry practical lessons, and are unable to verify what they are taught in class which retards their academic performance.

The choice of experiments to use is based on convenience 43.2% disagreed, 30% agreed while 26.9% were not sure. The obtained mean was 2.70 while the standard deviation was 1.191. When asked whether students often engage higher order thinking skills such as hypothesizing, analysing and judging evidence, 37.5% of the respondents agreed, 35.6% disagreed while 26.9% were not sure. The corresponding mean was 2.91 and the standard deviation was 1.336. This shows that most students are not often engaged in higher order thinking skills and this limits their ability to comprehend practical Chemistry elements.

On whether students use discovery learning through experimental projects, 52.6% agreed while 32.5% disagreed and 15.0% were not sure. The mean value of 3.14 and the standard deviation 1.362 indicates that majority of the respondents confirmed that students use discovery learning through experimental projects. Similarly, 49.4% of the

respondents agreed teachers use problem solving-based environment while teaching. On the other hand, 31.9% disagreed while 18.8% were not sure. The obtained mean was 3.21 while the standard deviation was 1.318. This indicates that teachers use problem solving-based environment to ensure that students are able to properly comprehend what they are taught which may contribute to improved academic performance.

When asked whether teachers use laboratory experimental instructions as a method of learning, majority 71.9% agreed while 21.9% disagreed and 6.3% were not sure. The corresponding mean was 3.68 while the standard deviation was 1.402 which shows that most teachers use laboratory experimental instructions.

Recommendations

The study recommends that both teachers and students be provided all avenues to involve their hand on in the teaching and learning of Chemistry which requires laboratories, equipment and chemicals for students' group discussions and assignments. Teachers should give plans of practical sessions to students and laboratory technicians early enough to know and prepare. Schools should also hire more trained laboratory technicians who are fulltime staff, and at least one fulltime teacher for practical lessons.

Demonstrations show the relevance of Chemistry to daily life and they should be carried out to encourage students have a positive attitude towards Chemistry. Teachers should also avoid demoralizing students, and not tell them that Chemistry is a hard subject but rather allocate them more time to demonstrate Chemistry practical lessons. Academically weak students should be allocated teachers to mentor and demonstrate to practical lessons to improved academic performance. Teachers should be trained on how to incorporate practical aspects within a theory lesson of Chemistry and this can be done through practical oriented workshops and by attending with concentration on the SESEMAT programs. Schools should establish laboratories and equip them with running water and proper drainage. Students should be encouraged to regularly access the laboratory in the presence of the laboratory technician. Principles of SESMAT and Cyber schools program and its training should be applied by all schools. Students should have some practical demonstrated within a theory lesson.

Teachers are advised to give regular work/assignments to students, mark it and discuss it with students. Refresher courses and seminars are recommended to be organized for both teachers and students on a

regular basis because a lot is covered, more interest in Chemistry is raised up, better use of laboratory and chemicals and attitude changes for better. Chemistry is a practical subject therefore it cannot be handled independent of student centred practical pedagogical approaches. Laboratory experimental instructions should be issued to students on at least twice a week to promote learning manipulative skills, understanding the use of apparatus, Fostering an understanding of scientific inquiry which includes: designing experiments, executing experiments, generating data, data analysis, interpreting data, developing: attitudes toward science, motivation, control of science, a sense of success, providing introductions of concrete examples to abstract concepts.

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Using Mobile Outreach Psychosocial Services to Improve Elderly Quality Of Life in Wakiso District Uganda: A Randomized Controlled Trial

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Abstract. *The main objective of this study was to ascertain whether a system of educated, empowered and skilled Community Geriatric Volunteers could be developed and adopted for use as a Government Local structure aimed at improving the quality of life of elderly persons in Uganda. A Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT) was conducted to compare effects of a Mobile Outreach Psychosocial Services (MOPS) model and Treatment as usual programme on the different QoL domains in community-dwelling elderly was conducted. The experiences of the MOPS model were found to be twofold. On one hand, the positive experiences indicate that the model empowered the participants and strengthened their self-esteem, making them feel in control over their situation. This motivated them to engage in QOL-promoting activities that included involvement in psychosocial groups, economic strengthening groups, mobilization and sensitization for elderly support, and home visits to the frail elderly. On the other hand, the model was experienced as being of no value by a few. These findings partly explain the positive results from the MOPS model interventions and emphasize that one challenge for health care professionals is to motivate the elderly who are healthy and independent to engage in elderly QOL related projects, health-promoting and disease-preventive activities.*

Keywords: Elderly health, Mobile outreach psychosocial services; Community geriatric volunteers

Introduction

Insufficient information on how the quality of life can be mediated by economic wellbeing, social support, and the health status among elderly adults has been noted. No studies have documented directly on the effect of lack of economic wellbeing, social support, and health status, and the impact on the quality of life among the elderly adults. It has then been further unclear, however, how good social support, improved economic wellbeing, access to health can improve quality of life if the elderly adults are to stay with their natural degeneration syndromes while in their homes. In view of the above, a Randomized Controlled Trial study was conducted investigating how the Quality of life among elderly adults can be improved by perfectioning on economic wellbeing, social support, and health status.

Like other developing countries, the population of elderly adults 60 years and above is increasing in Uganda. A prediction by WHO (2010)

showed that the global population of those aged 60 years and above will double from 600 million in 2000, to about 1.2 billion in 2025 and around 2 billion by 2050. This increase is known worldwide and raising concern in many countries. Less is known about systems that can provide for this increase to cope with the enormous pressure that this will cause (WHO, 2008). There is a need for all governments to come up with sustainable solutions to the plight of the elderly.

In the African traditional systems, the family has been the first line of support while community support is the second assuming that Elderly care has always been the duty of biological children, clan members and significant others which is no longer the case. Due to urbanisation, economic migration, death due to disease especially the young adults dying of HIV, the elderly people are left alone in the rural communities with no outright source of social support (Philip, 2006). Worse still, they are left to offer care to grandchildren many of whom are orphaned. Such a lack of a concrete social support system leaves them quite vulnerable and in misery thus affecting their quality of life.

According to Golaz and Rutaremwa, (2011), the majority of older persons live in semi-permanent or makeshift structures. These are reported to be usually grass thatched with mud walls, while the homeless ones move from place to place, sometimes occupying abandoned structures, exposing them to cold and harmful animals and insects. Such a poor state of economic wellbeing exposes both the elderly and their dependants to diseases that are related to the poor conditions they live in (Baryayebwa, 2005). Many of the elderly are reported to depend on one meal a day, two or more days, a situation that affects their health status negatively (Kikafunda and Lukwago, 2005). This has been reported to leave many emaciated and exposed to diseases that could be avoided. The elderly are further often found to have many untreated common health problems which often lead to complications and permanent incapacitation with high prevalence of psychiatric morbidity thus a miserable health status (Dzuka & Dalbert, C. 2000; Nakasujja et al, 2007). There are no systems in Uganda that can track and halt such misery citing a need for a community based approach to programming that will help alleviate such suffering and penury.

This study is thus an attempt to understand economic wellbeing, social support and health status as factors influencing the quality of life of elderly people in Wakiso District, Uganda, and further intervene by implementing a mitigation strategy to reduce on the negative impacts brought on by the ageing process among this population group. Furthermore, it is hoped that the intervention will form sustainable

systems to inform policy and elderly stakeholders on what can be added on the existing systems to improve the quality of life of elderly people in Uganda. The relationship between the elderly people's economic wellbeing, health status, and social support, and the overall quality of life of the elderly people in Uganda, will then be established. Wakiso District will be taken as the case study to investigate the quality of life of the elderly; 60 years and above in the spheres of their Economic wellbeing, Health Status and Social supports with a view to try out appropriate interventions and later inform on strategies needed to improve the quality of life of elderly persons in Uganda.

Economic Well-Being and Quality of Life among Elderly People

Aging is a natural life course process, and which is an outcome of the demographic transition, and as well experienced differently among the different ages specifically with the change of societal norms and conditions (Gilleard & Higgs, 2007; Phillips, 1998; Vincent, 2003). The problems of elderly population have been reported to become manifold specifically when elderly people are not accompanied by socio-economic development. Furthermore, more reports on the Low and Middle Income Countries (LMIC) such as those in Africa signify the majority of the workforce as involved in the informal economy whereby, most of the retired people in the older population live without a cover of pension or any type of social security scheme. The Population Secretariat, (2013) stated that many older people in Uganda live in rural areas, with fewer social services yet they are often denied employment and access to insurance or credit schemes thus a life of penury. Pensions are rare and mainly concern former civil servants. This therefore means that a large segment of the elderly population, because of their relatively disadvantaged lived socioeconomic position; continue to live on low levels of income than paid workers including those receiving pensions and other retirement benefits. Other anecdotal reports show that to some elderly, no formal employment was enjoyed either previously to cause a pension, or currently to earn a living among this group. These situations are increasing the dependency ratio of old age people and yet the people to be depended on have either been urbanized or have died due to HIV, which greatly impacts on their quality of life (Kyaddondo, 2014). With an estimated 1.6 million people living with HIV, and an estimated 63,000 Ugandans died of AIDS-related illnesses and an estimated HIV prevalence among adults aged 15 to 49 stood at 7.4% (Avert, 2013), the elderly adults in Uganda are likely to continue with the trend of economic strain having to take on lost

responsibilities of the orphans left behind by the reproductive group and as well experience poverty. A common practice in Uganda, as in many African societies, when older persons living alone need help, is to entrust them to one of their grandchildren (Golaz and Rutaremwa, 2011), thus recycling the generation of poverty at most times.

Poverty is known to affect all human populations but on the lives of the elderly people it gets worse specifically due to the physical degeneration and lost income status. It is reportedly evident that income is a fundamental contributor to good quality of life and low income results in loss of self-esteem, illnesses and ultimately death.

Many researchers have singled out the older population as prone to poverty. Findings by Najjumba-Mulindwa (2003) showed the majority of people perceive old age to be characterized by ill-health, dependency, low incomes and depreciated asset bases. When this is coupled by changed body features and the declining physiological state, most of the elderly will be left in abject poverty. Further findings showed that, the single, widowed, disabled, women and the elderly living alone are the elderly people most prone to; *“chronic poverty resulting from unemployment, chronic ill health, lack of skills, HIV/AIDS, lack of social security systems, low land productivity, political instability, low agricultural returns and functional inability due to old age, which predisposes them to mental stress and depression”*. Similarly, Eaton et.al (2001) explained that lower socioeconomic status cannot only raise the risk for mental disorder, but also prolong the duration of episodes of mental disorders through an etiologic process possibly unrelated to causation. This phenomenon tends to explain why a correlation exists between economic wellbeing and the health status of elderly people thus the impact on quality of life.

Social Support and Quality of Life among Elderly People

Social support has been cited as a particularly important issue for older adults as common life events may jeopardize the support networks of this age group (Kahn, Hessling, & Russell, 2003). According to Lercher, (2003); Osborne et al, (2003); and Staquet, Hays & Fayers, (2000), there is an upward shift in life expectancy that calls for more focus on health and preventive measures ensuring that longevity can be accompanied by quality of life. Old age has often been associated with health problems and irreversible decrease in functional capacity. The trend is a universal natural phenomenon for physical, economic, and social degeneration is expected as people age.

Many theories explain the trend which include as here explained. The Stress and Coping Theory as quoted in Barrera, (1986) clearly explains that social support protects people from the bad health effects of stressful events (i.e., stress buffering) by influencing how people think about and expend conscious efforts to solve personal and interpersonal problems, and as well how they seek to master, curtail or tolerate stressful or conflicting events. It is assumed that by the time people get older, they have encountered many losses of life for significant others, personal property, and personal prestige. It is assumed that if an elderly person is surrounded by a social support system, the effects of stressful situations may be less which is no longer the same in with the loss of significant others due to life style diseases, urbanization and economic migrations.

The Relational regulation theory as cited by Lakey & Orehek (2011), explains the effects (the direct effects hypothesis) between perceived social support and the elderly's physical and mental health whereby the perceived support having both buffering and direct effects on mental health. The theory was further proposed in order to explain perceived support's main effects on mental health which cannot be explained by the stress and coping theory. The hypothesis is that the elderly will be able to regulate their emotions through ordinary conversations and shared activities with the social support system rather than through conversations on how to cope with stress. In the absence of significant others, the elderly adults will have nothing to succumb to. The regulation further hypothesizes that the relationship between the social support providers, discussion topics and activities that help regulate emotions are primarily a matter of personal taste and can promote good physical and mental health (Lakey, 2010). With many elderly people staying on their own, the theory cannot be tenable.

The Life-span theory as well explains the relationship between social support and health, which emphasizes the differences between perceived and received social support. According to this theory, social support develops throughout the life span, but especially in childhood bonding and attachment with parents and significant others. Much as the theory may explain what needs to be done to the elderly, the elderly adults might have moved quite far from their childhood bonds and as well left with no parents. However, the theory explains that social support develops along with adaptive personality traits such as an elderly's unfriendliness, low neuroticism, high expectations, as well as social and coping skills which include both introversion and extroversion. Both introversion and extroversion may happen depending on emotional states and quality of life of the elderly adults.

These further coupled together have been reported to influence the elderly quality of life by promoting health practices (e.g., exercise and weight management) and by preventing health-related stressors (e.g., job loss, divorce) (Lakey, 2010). Evidence for life-span theory includes that a portion of perceived support is trait-like and that perceived support is linked to adaptive personality characteristics and attachment experiences (Willis, 1991). This is expected to be rejuvenated in the model that will be designed in the study.

Social support represents a main source of personal care and well-being and is more critical and amplified by the various problems connected to an ageing population. A study done by Chronic Research Centre (2006) cited that the elderly people have limited social support. They further narrated that in the past, families easily cared for their parents. However, the harsh economic conditions which most working Ugandans now face, coupled with high levels of urbanisation, severely limit their ability to assume these traditional roles. This has caused a growing tendency among income earning Ugandans to contrite care and support more to nuclear than the extended families. Older persons are then perceived more as dependents than active household members which make them susceptible to vulnerability. Social vulnerability, which is a concept related to a low social support, is higher among people with individual frailty and increases with age, a concept common among the elderly people (Litwin H, Landau R., 2000). Citing the Ugandan elderly population, such a situation may not be any different in Wakiso District. It is thus a challenge for government and society to maintain and promote the quality of life of older adults in the absence of a supportive and sustainable social support system.

Social support of the elderly has been documented as having a positive influence and in particular emotional support from offspring, which positively associates with a higher degree of well-being, less distress and cognitive impairments among older people especially those without a spouse (Okabayashi, et al, 2004). Lack of social support has been reported to always lead to loneliness. Conversely, loneliness in old age has been suggested to be a risk factor for morbidity and mortality (Luo, 2012). Research about social support (and related concepts) carried out in different contexts and cultures have further demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between quality of life throughout the lifespan and social support, but particularly in old age (Takahashi& Kai, 2007). Quality of life in old age is a significant challenge for gerontological researchers and practitioners with the increasing life expectancy worldwide (Chalise, Saito, & Kai, 2007a; Chalise, Saito, Takahasi, & Kai, 2007b). It has been estimated that 25% of the world's

population experiences episodes of poor quality of life on a regular basis (Miedema & Tatemichi, 2003), although its prevalence in the elderly population varies from 7% (Victor, Scambler, Bond, & Bowling, 2000) to 49% (Holmen, Ericsson, & Winblad, 1994).

The experience of quality of life impacts individuals across the life spectrum and has physical, psychological, and social repercussions (Lauder, et al, 2004). Poor Quality of life lowers life expectancy and is associated with poor medical outcomes in old age especially when this is coupled with poor social support (Victor, Scambler, Bond, & Bowling, 2000). There is a strong relationship between depressive symptoms and quality of life (Holmén, Ericsson, & Winblad, 1999; Mullins & Dugan, 1990; Prince, Harwood, Blizzard, Thomas, & Mann, 1997). Lack of social support is then referred to as number one cause of such morbidities among the elderly.

Another study reported that social support among the elderly adults is often assessed under three categories: perceived support, support behaviours (received support), and support resources (Barrera, 1986; Vaux, 1985). Perception of support refers to one's subjective assessment of the availability and adequacy of support which cannot be defined among the rural elderly adults. Research suggests that this perception affects one's quality of life as much as received support (Thoits, 1995; Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Support behaviour describes the actual emotional and/or instrumental assistance received. Support resources are simply the social support networks (i.e., the sources of one's social capital, or the advantage received through social interaction) (Wu & Hart, 2002). The most common sources of social support are spouse (or partners), children, and siblings, followed by close friends (Campbell, Connidis, & Davies, 1999; Lynch, 1998). In this case, many people forming the social support services are not within reach of the elderly support networks. The spouses may have died or re-married in many circumstances, while the children may have moved on for economic gains or died due to diseases. The convoy model of social support (Kahn & Antonucci, 1980) postulates that each individual is surrounded by a convoy, a set of people to whom the individual maintains reciprocal emotional and instrumental support. This convoy includes specific people who make up the person's social network and affects quality of life, for married people in particular. The prevalence of each type of support, however, varies according to union, parental, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as gender, age, and ethnicity among the elderly adults (Barrett, 1999; Lynch, 1998; Thoits, 1984; Turner & Marino, 1994). For example, research has found that the perception of available support is higher among the married, increases with

socioeconomic and employment status, but decreases with age (Thoits, 1984; Turner & Marino, 1994). Such an analysis clearly depicts the level of vulnerability caused to the elderly relating social support to their quality of life.

Women generally report more perceived support than men (Ross & Mirowsky, 1989). According to the hierarchical compensation model, other relatives, friends, and neighbours are the preferred sources of assistance in serial order following spouse and children, with formal organizations the least preferred and least likely to be called upon for assistance (Antonucci, 2001; Cantor & Little, 1985). According to Biegel (1985), family, friends, and neighbours are important sources of support to elderly people. These social networks help to buffer stress and depression and enhance individual's morale and wellbeing (Bankhoff, 1983; Litwin, 1995; Schaefer, Coyne, & Lazarus, 1981). With regard to depressive symptoms among older people, Dean and colleagues (1990) found that a spouse, friends, adult children were ranked in the descending order of importance, whereas other relatives showed no significant effect. The above explained shows that the quality of life of Ugandan elderly will be left in a state of jeopardy. Studies by URAA (2002) revealed that the elderly no longer uphold their positions of status among the community where instead they become care takers of children of their children when these get urbanized while looking for greener pastures or dead due to HIV.

One study in Spain showed no significant association between social support and quality of life among older Spaniards, despite their living arrangement with their children and contribution (help) in the family (Antonucci, Okorodudu, & Akiyama, 2002). Such a study contrasts the prevailing situation in Uganda. Given the cultural set up in our country Uganda, a significant impact on health status of the elderly is known to exist as a result of good and caring social support systems. Numerous investigators have suggested that social support has a major impact on the health and well-being of the elderly, but it is less clear how this effect might operate (George, 1989). Further, there is lack of research on the gender difference in the social support exchange between elderly men and women. There is also a lack of research that deals with how the source affects the social support received and provided regarding loneliness of older adults (Chalise et al., 2007b).

Another study done in Nepal stated that aging is cited as more a demographic phenomenon (involving fertility and mortality decline) rather than a result of socio-economic development in the last few decades (Chalise & Brightman, 2006). Nepal is cited due to its similarities with Uganda. According to the 2001 population census of

Nepal, the elderly population constitutes 6.5% of the total population and annual elderly population growth rate was 3.39. Nepal is suffering from widespread poverty, inadequate health facilities, insufficient security schemes, stagnant economies, and the increasing prevalence of HIV/AIDS. Therefore, the country is less prepared to address the rapid pace of change and its consequences to its rapidly increasing elderly population. There is also a lack of reliable national data and scientific research on the situation and needs of older persons. Like many other countries in Africa and Asia, the majority of their elderly work in the informal sector. Children are regarded as security for the old age. Culturally speaking, taking care of parents is the responsibility of children, especially the sons and daughters-in-law. Although most forms of support flow to the elderly, support was reported to flow from the elderly to their children in the form of goods, labour, and services. The elderly were reported to help their sons and daughters-in-laws in different household work with the main roles as participating in family decision-making and assuming roles of leadership in the family and community. This then forms a concrete culturally imposed support system that caters for the elderly which may not be seen happening among the communities of study in Uganda thus needing a system that will define what social support entails.

Health Status and the Quality of Life of Elderly People

Many studies have reported that as people age, they become more susceptible to disease and disability. However, the same studies have reported that much of the burden of ill health among older people can be reduced or prevented if adequate measures are put in place to adequately address specific risk factors among the elderly.

The World Health Organization (WHO) defined health as the "complete state of physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of infirmity" (WHO 1948). In its definition the WHO acknowledged that an individual who is technically "cured" or free of disease may not necessarily be "well" and went on to further indicate the three dimensions of well-being which are the physical, Mental and Social Wellbeing. Physical well-being assumes the ability to function normally in activities such as bathing, dressing, eating, and moving around and with no infirmity which may not be the case for the elderly adult. Likewise, mental well-being has been reported to imply that cognitive faculties are intact and that there is no burden of fear, anxiety, stress, depression, or other negative emotions, a situation unlikely among the elderly adults. Social well-being relates to one's ability to

participate in society, fulfilling roles as family member, friend, worker, or citizen or in other ways engaging in interactions with others. Due to the natural degeneration, the elderly experience falls and injuries as a result of frailty coupled with reduced movements and body functions. Falls and the injuries are a common occurrence and offer a large share of the burden of disease and disability on older people. The risk of falls increases steeply with age. Injuries from falls (such as femur fracture) usually require hospitalization and costly interventions, including rehabilitation, and cause much of the functional limitations that lead to the need for long-term care, including admissions to nursing homes which is not tenable among the elderly in developing countries.

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The efforts to understand relationships are particularly relevant given the aging of the population. Consequently, an increasing international awareness of health issues relating to aging populations has been reported. As the percentage of the elderly population over 60 increases, and is expected to more than double by 2020, an increase in the number of older people presenting with numerous elderly diseases will

succumb. There is a prediction of challenges to the health care system, and especially to health care workers providing services to older clients with both acute and chronic conditions. Currently, studies have reported on the changes to the health care system and shortage of health care personnel as aspects that make it difficult for older adults to access adequate health care of suitable quality. In light of the above, health care provision for older people needs to be addressed.

As Gift and Atchison (1995) stated, measuring health-related quality of life allows assessment of "the trade-off between how long and how well people live." The study further indicated that diseases and disorders that result in dental and craniofacial defects can thwart that goal, disturbing self-image, self-esteem, and well-being having oral-facial pain and loss of sensorimotor functions limiting food choices and the pleasures of eating, restrict social contact, thus inhibiting intimacy, a factor known to dominate the old elderly. Given such a finding, more factors related to elderly physical degeneration can cause inhibition in social attachment and a reduction in self-esteem thus making it difficult for the elderly to seek healthcare. A social status variable, such as individual profession, contributes to one's self-esteem, which is considered an important coping resource related to health among the elderly which status is likely to have been lost as a result of job loss or retirement. Although personal occupation is a major component of socio-economic status and is consistently related to health outcome and economic exclusion, it can only be assessed among people who are in the paid labour force (Population Secretariat, 2013), which may not apply to the elderly. This then indicates that the level of economic wellbeing and the health status for the elderly will be at stake.

Models and theories are terms used interchangeably to explain the meaning and relatedness of health in everyday life. Both terms aim to offer a hypothesis or an explanation as to how something works, or to describe and illustrate the principles underlying an issue or a subject. Klein & Romero (2007) noted that a model is a term used to mean the visual representation of the elements of a theory, and is often informed by more than one theory. The researchers noted that a theory is thus seen as a broader concept, something that interprets or represents reality from a discipline-specific perspective. The study further suggested that theories are "usually concerned with very general and global classes of behaviour and do not deal directly, as conceptual models do, with specific types of behaviour in specific contexts" (Klein & Romero as cited from Earp & Ennett, 1991:166). Theories therefore are the roots of the ideas and concepts that form the basis of models.

Models are set to explain health concepts on the individual, community, communication and organizational levels and literature related to these is highlighted here below.

Many theories have been used to explain the health of elderly adults. The Health Belief Model (Individual) is the first set of models that focus on individual health behaviour and behaviour change citing the intra-personal (within an individual) or the inter-personal (between individuals) levels. The elderly subjective health and perceived health is constituted herein. Coulson et.al. (1998) stated that these models consider things like people's knowledge, beliefs and attitudes about health whereby a team knowledgeable in these aspects may be the only solution to the elderly population.

The purpose of the present study was to determine if economic wellbeing, social support, and health status influences the quality of life of elderly adults especially when a reach out model precedes the normal traditional treatment for this population. It was hypothesized that if a model constituting formation of elderly psychosocial and economic groups, changing the health system to include community Geriatric Volunteers through the VHT system, regular Community sensitizations and home visits for the frail elderly, is functionalized and rolled out, the Quality of life of elderly adults would improve. This prediction was based on WHO that defines active aging as *"the process of optimizing opportunities for health, participation and security in order to enhance quality of life as people age"* So, if the dependent variable of quality of life involves active ageing which allows people to realize their potential for physical, social, environmental and mental well-being throughout the life course, a model comprising of sustainable response solutions will help in the improvement of quality of life of elderly adults. In other words, elderly penury and misery will be less likely to influence quality of life if the proposed model is adopted.

In summary, previous findings for what improves the quality of life among the elderly adults are not uniform, thus warranting further investigation. Past research on quality of life among the elderly do not compare the three variables focused on; economic wellbeing, social support and health status among the elderly. Also missing from the literature is a model that can sustainably respond to the improvement of the quality of life of the elderly adults' population. This study therefore employs a measure of quality of life by developing a model (Mobile Outreach Psychosocial Service - MOPS) which can be used by all care providers if the quality of life of elderly adults is to be improved. The hypothesis then is that if a sustainable response solution is made, it can improve the overall quality of life among the elderly adults population.

Sustainability in this case means using an available system that utilizes community insiders as change agents.

Conceptual Framework

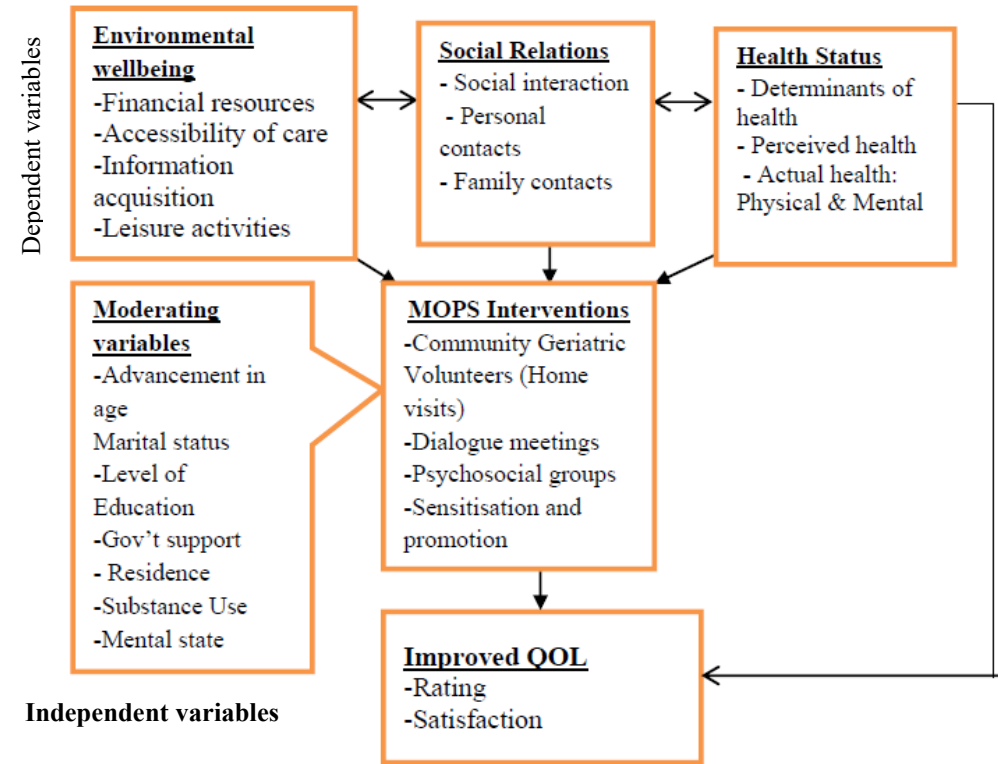


Figure 1: Relationship between environmental wellbeing, Social Relations, health status, and quality of life among the elderly.

This Conceptual Framework shows the causal effect relationships between the independent and dependent variables within the study. It showed variations between Economic wellbeing, Health Status, and Social supports on the Quality of life of the older persons in selected sub-counties of Wakiso District. In the first independent variable, the study conceptualizes that for an elderly person to receive economic wellbeing there should be income insecurity either from Social grants, social insurance, social security, or personal investments or family. The type or amount of economic support received is also shown to impact on the Quality of life among the elderly people. Furthermore, lack of basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, and source of water, is hypothesized to impact on the Quality of life of the elderly people.

The second independent variable stated that social supports are a significant variable in the attainment of quality of life among elderly people. If an elderly person lacks social interaction, including personal contacts and family contacts, such a person is likely to experience problems in daily life which ultimately will affect his /her final quality of life. At the same time an elderly person's health is likely to impact on the quality of life. Aspects like perceived health as a determinants of health, and actual health which includes the physical, Mental and psychological health, are likely to impact on the quality of life of elderly people. In this study, it is assumed that if an intervention which includes forming a system of Community Geriatric Volunteers, Dialogue meetings, Home visits to the elderly and group formation for social insurance, is instituted, the quality of elderly people in Wakiso District will be met.

Furthermore, the study intended to be conscious of other moderating variables like, Marital status, elderly level of education, availability of Government support, type of residence, current substance abuse and mental health status which are likely to confuse the outcome of the interventions rolled out. Overall, it is assumed that if all variables are checked, intervening variables are used and moderation variables manipulated, the physical state, material state, psychological state, social relationships, and elderly safety and environment will be determined thus translating into good quality of life among the elderly people in Wakiso District.

Methods

The population were the elderly people, 60 years and above, residing in the selected sub counties of Wakiso District and who are staying in their homes and not institutions. A Randomised Controlled Trial was used to allot the participants to either the control or study group. From the 13 sub-counties in Wakiso district, four (4) were randomly selected for the study. Wakiso comprises of 3 Counties that is Busiro County (8 Sub-Counties), Entebbe Municipality County (2 sub-county Divisions) and Kyadondo County (3 sub-counties). The two sub-counties of Entebbe municipality and those in Kyadondo County are predominantly urban. To avoid urban location bias these did not participate in the study leaving us with Busiro County which has a mix of both rural and urban communities. In addition, a rural setting was chosen because a large proportion of Ugandans (85%) live in rural settings.

The study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Quantitative data collection methods employed WHOQOL BREF as a

measuring instrument while qualitative approaches used standardized Focus Group Study Guides, In-depth Interview Study Guides, and Key Informant Interviews for the purpose of triangulation. The formula used for sample size calculation for case control or comparative studies was the Douglas Altman Formula to calculate the sample size per arm. The study further employed purposeful sampling technique whereby information rich respondents such as some elderly people in the study, or formal care givers, informal care givers, and social workers from NGOs, villages and homes in Wakiso district were strategically and purposefully selected. Sampling of villages and respondents was dependent on advice from the local community leaders. Sampling of the elderly for the twenty focus group discussions was purposeful and the groups were homogeneously composed.

WHOQOL-BREF Instrument

The domains are measured in a positive direction; the higher the score, the better the quality of life. The answer to each question was used to calculate the measurement for the total domain. The steps for assigning scores were based on the WHOQOL-BREF scoring guide (WHO, 1996). The steps for assigning scores were; All 26 questions were assigned a score of 1-5; The scores for each domain were computed and multiplied by 4, for equivalence with the WHOQOL-100; If the domain had more than 20% missing data, the domain score would not be calculated; The scale scores for each domain ranged from 4 to 20; The 4-20 scores were converted to 0-100 scale.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data was captured and analysed using thematic analysis. The study used NVivo which is a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) while quantitative data was coded, entered into the computer, cleaned and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21. Descriptive statistics was used to summarize and organize the data. Multivariate analysis with logistic regression was used to test for association between variables. The level of significance was a p-value <0.05.

Study Procedure

A manual explaining the MOPS strategy was developed and adopted for use as the best practice model of care for the improvement of elderly

QOL. Research Assistants were recruited from the VHT members and fresh graduates from institutions of higher learning. At the same time, the research instruments were translated and back translated. Douglas Altman method of sample size determination was used to select both participants for phase one and phase two. While Phase one involved identification of study participants and succumbing them to the standardized questionnaire (WHOQOL-BREF), Phase two involved subdividing the participants into the control and intervention groups. This then later advised whether the proposed model can improve or change the quality of life among the elderly. Data was then collected after six months of roll out in the community, transcribed and analysed.

Historical and Philosophical aspects of Quality of Life among the Elderly

Historical aspects of the Aging Process

Population ageing has been described as a global phenomenon in light of the demographic consequences of falling fertility rates combined with increases in life expectancy (WHO, 2011). The increasing number of older people worldwide has become a global challenge and is likely to affect the elderly social support, economic wellbeing and health as contributors to overall quality of life among the study population. Uganda just like any other country global wide with 4.6% of Uganda's population as older persons aged 60 years and above is experiencing the same problem.

Overview of Quality of Life among the Elderly

WHOQOL Group (1993) defined QOL as the individuals' perceptions of their position in life in the context of culture and value systems in which people live and in relation to set goals, expectations, standards and concerns that vehemently informs of the social support system. Defined differently, Ferrans and Power (1992) stated that it is a person's sense of well-being that stems from satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the areas of life that are important to him/her. The areas of life for this study are those constituted amongst the independent variables of the study. This study tends to conform to all the definitions and as well investigate whether the elderly QOL may improve if an attempt on economic wellbeing, social support, and health status aspects is made with the use of the MOPS Model of care.

Philosophical Underpinnings

The core theory used in economics builds on a simple but powerful model of behaviour citing the fact that individuals make choices so as to maximize a utility function, using the information available, and processing this information appropriately (Della-Vigna, 2009). Social support interventions as part of the independent variable explain this. In reference, the philosopher further assumes that individuals' preferences are further assumed to be time-consistent, affected only by own payoffs, and independent of the framing of the decision. This phenomenon relates to the acceptance rates of the elderly to take on the proposed interventions in the MOPS model which ended in overall improvement of elderly QOL.

The Neoclassical Foundations

The neoclassical understanding of the human being is embedded in philosophy of utilitarianism. Mankind, in the neoclassical economic thought, is understood as individualistic and rational calculating beings, who are constantly trying to avoid pains and gain pleasures citing them as the basis for the concept of utility in functional and neoclassical line of thought (Jiang, 2009). Therefore as people age, there is need to maximize service utility as related to this study so as to avoid development of psycho-geriatric syndromes.

Philosophical Theories of Quality of Life

Hedonic theories. Hedonist theories hold that only pleasure is intrinsically good and pain is the only intrinsic bad, citing that a person's life can only go well to the extent that he or she is able to accumulate pleasure and avoid pain which is usually a nightmare to the elderly. To strive for quality of life is to strive for the greatest balance of pleasure over pain which is expected to be achieved by the MOPS model proposed for this study.

Rational preference theories. The rational preference theories, define quality of life in terms of the actual satisfaction or realization of a person's rational desires or preferences. Successful aging has been described as a collective phenomenon, and is stated to be not uniform across the different age groups among elderly persons thus differing from person to person (Samuelsson, et al., 2007). Aging cannot be successful without good health. In this study, good Physical health was achieved through the home visits made by the VHT as community Geriatric Volunteers and mental health through the psycho-social groups formed.

Philosophical Theories of Human Flourishing

These attempt to base understanding on an account that functions, capacities, and excellences that are most fully and constitutively human should be fulfilled. It is believed that human beings attain and master capacities to the extent that those conditions that would stunt or undermine those abilities should be avoided if we are to flourish as human beings. It further states that the more an individual continues to grow and develop throughout his or her life, the higher their quality of life is enhanced. Such a theory seems to have a lot of relatedness to elderly quality of life yet in our traditional systems, the concept of the family being the first line of support with community support as second is no longer tenable. Urbanisation, economic migration, death due to disease especially the young adults dying of HIV, has left the elderly people alone in the rural communities with no outright source of social support (URAA, 2008).

The Philosophy Sustaining the Think-Tank on Elderly Studies

Being a developing country, Uganda faces great challenges in meeting the health and social needs of the ageing population that has been brought about by the consequences of falling fertility rates combined with increases in life expectancy (World Health Organization, 2011), improvements in living standards, better nutrition, and decreased deaths from communicable diseases (Luo & Hu, 2011). The projected population of older persons today (2014) is 1,540,000, indicating an overall growth of 40% of people 60 years and above in a period of 10 years. This is likely to permeate every aspect of human life from economics (pensions, taxation, employment trends), to politics (voting patterns, representation), to family and community life (living arrangements, housing and migration, support), and to health planning (old age diseases) as stated earlier on in the introduction. This study then comes in handy to curb the adverse consequences.

Results

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Of the 364 elderly that participated in the study, 27% of the respondents in the control group were male. Likewise, in the intervention group, female respondents' participation was higher than that of males at 34.1% males compared to 65.9% females respectively. The majority of

respondents were between 60-74 years old (58% control group, 65.2% intervention group), medium-old between age 75 to 84 years (31% control group, 26.8% intervention group), and the old-old 85 years (11% control group, 7.9% intervention group). As noted in this study, the groupings of the elderly age groups were conducted as by Kozar (1996).

Many of the respondents achieved primary level of education (60.5% control group, and 49.4% intervention group); while those who did not attain any education were second largest with (29.5% in control group, and 49.4% in intervention group); secondary school education (7.0% control group and 7.9% intervention group) with a number higher in the intervention group than in the control group; those with College/University level were only found in the control group clusters having an overall (3.0%), and none (0.0%) in the intervention group citing more retired civil servants in the control group thus more numbers having attained this level of education, as compared to the intervention group where very few retired civil servants were cited and yet even these had not attained education up to the college levels. In the control group 17% were single, 11.5% married, 14.5% were living as man and woman, 0.5% polygamist, 10% divorced while 46.5% were widowed. However, in the intervention group, 18.9% were single, 29.9% married, 1.2% was living as man and woman, 15.2% polygamist, 3.7% divorced while 30% were widowed. The discrepancy is because the control group was situated in the urban rural areas (Katabi and Ssisa Sub-counties) while the intervention group was in the predominantly rural (Wakiso and Mende Sub-counties). In the control group, mixed religions were found while in the intervention group, some of the clusters were predominantly of the Muslim religion.

General Quality of Life

Responses on the overall quality of life were based on very poor being the lowest while very good was the highest. The majority of respondents in the control group showed at the baseline data collection stage that their quality of life was poor at 40.5% (n=81) which did not differ much at the end of the study having 43.5% (n=87). The least response was very good 1% (n=2) at baseline level, while at post intervention level, no participant 0% reported to have overall quality of life as very good. This means that the general quality of life did not change in the control group. Instead, a deterioration was registered in this group with none (0%) reporting either very good or good quality of life after the intervention period. In the intervention group, results show that the majority of respondents at the baseline data collection stage

showed that their quality of life was neither poor nor good at 39% (n=64) which differed greatly at the end of the study having 68.3% (n=112) reporting it as good. The least response was good 3% (n=5) with 0% (n=0) reporting it as very good at baseline level, while at post intervention level, no participant 0% reported to have overall quality of life as either poor or very poor. This means that the general quality of life changed greatly in the intervention group as a result of interventions rolled out in this study with no deterioration at all registered in this group with none (0%) reporting either very poor or poor quality of life after the intervention period.

Satisfaction with Health

Responses on the satisfaction with health as a measure of QOL in the tool were as well based on very poor being the lowest while very good was the highest and this happened after the intervention took place. Table 2 above shows that the majority of respondents in the control group showed at the baseline data collection stage that their satisfaction with health was poor at 37% (n=74) which as well did not differ much at the end of the study having 53% (n=106). The least response was very good 1% (n=2) at baseline level, while at post intervention level, no participant 0% reported to have overall quality of life as very good too. However, the results in the intervention group did not differ much with the majority of respondents in the intervention group showing at the baseline data collection stage that their satisfaction with health was poor at 45.7% (n=75). The situation changed greatly at the end of the study having 59.1% (n=97) reporting satisfaction with health as very good with a few numbers 14.6 (24%) reporting it as very good. This means that the interventions made in the intervention group of this study registered a tremendous change in satisfaction with life for the elderly in this group.

Environmental Wellbeing and Quality of Life

One of the purposes of this study was to examine whether Quality of life is associated with Economic well-being in elderly people. Overall, there is a significant ($p=0.000$) weak positive ($r_s=0.213$) relationship between EW and QOL. This implies that with all the results put together in both the control and intervention groups, the Environmental domain has contributed to overall QOL with 21.3%. Environmental health when coupled together with psychological health as a confounding variable, is significantly (0.3418) responsible for 34.18% of QOL. This means that the constituents of psychological health as a domain which constitute;

Bodily image and appearance, Negative feelings, Positive feelings, Self-esteem, Spirituality/ Religion/ Personal beliefs, Thinking, learning, memory and concentration , when coupled with the facets within the environment domain, were improved so as to contribute to overall QOL. Therefore, these were able to subjectively define the way an elderly rates and feels satisfied with own quality of life by 34.18%.

Social support as a determinant of QOL among the Elderly

Overall, there is significant ($p=0.000$) weak positive ($r_s=0.255$) relationship between Social support and Quality of Life. This implies that with all the results put together in both the control and intervention groups, the Social Support domain has contributed to overall QOL with 25.5%. Social Support, together with psychological health as a confounding variable, is significantly (0.033) responsible for **29.23%** of QOL. This means that the constituents of psychological health as a domain which constitute; Bodily image and appearance, Negative feelings, Positive feelings, Self-esteem, Spirituality / Religion / Personal beliefs, thinking, learning, memory and concentration, when coupled with the facets within the Social Support domain, effectively contributed to overall QOL. Therefore, these were able to subjectively define the way an elderly rates and feels satisfied with own quality of life by 29.23%.

Health status as a determinant of QOL among the Elderly

Overall, there is significant ($p=0.001$) weak positive ($r_s=0.156$) relationship between **Health Status** and Quality of Life. This implies that with all the results put together in both the control and intervention groups, the Health Status domain has contributed to overall QOL with 15.6%. Health status, together with psychological health as a confounding variable, is significantly (0.001) responsible for **32.80%** of Quality of Life. This means that the constituents of psychological health as a domain which constitute; Bodily image and appearance, Negative feelings, Positive feelings, Self-esteem, Spirituality / Religion / Personal beliefs, thinking, learning, memory and concentration, when coupled with the facets within the Health status domain, there was an effective contribution to overall QOL. Therefore, these were able to subjectively define the way an elderly rates and feels satisfied with own quality of life by 32.80%.

Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

Table 1: Path coefficients along with their bootstrap values

Intervention after project						
	β Values	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	T Statistics	P Values
Economic empowerments -> Quality	0.3218	0.3235	0.0585	0.0585	5.4987	0.015759
Health status -> Quality	0.2071	0.2153	0.0691	0.0691	2.9966	0.047826
Psychological domain -> Quality	0.2265	0.2196	0.0558	0.0558	4.0601	0.027824
Social support -> Quality	0.0848	0.0904	0.0445	0.0445	1.9061	0.098452
Intervention group at baseline						
Economic empowerments -> Quality of life	0.1798	0.1842	0.0641	0.0641	2.8064	0.05349
Health status -> Quality of life	0.3977	0.4028	0.0756	0.0756	5.2571	0.017165
Psychological support -> Quality of life	0.1737	0.1767	0.0644	0.0644	2.6969	0.057189
Social Support -> Quality of life	0.0448	0.0522	0.0629	0.0629	0.7125	0.275032
Control group after project						
Economic Empowerment -> Quality	0.0906	0.0909	0.0747	0.0747	1.2126	0.17454
Health Status -> Quality	0.1327	0.1416	0.0991	0.0991	1.3384	0.156315
Psychological Domain -> Quality	0.3951	0.3955	0.0852	0.0852	4.6366	0.021751
Social Support -> Quality	-0.0021	0.006	0.048	0.048	0.0447	.484204
Control group at baseline						
Economic empowerment -> Quality of life	0.0015	0.0224	0.0654	0.0654	0.0228	0.49194
Health status -> Quality of life	0.5099	0.5033	0.0731	0.0731	6.9734	0.009975
Psychological Domain -> Quality of life	0.1158	0.1182	0.0699	0.0699	1.6574	0.119645
Social support -> Quality of life	-0.0171	-0.0159	0.0563	0.0563	0.3041	0.394887

Significance was considered at 0.05 whereby the β values range from --0.0021 to 0.5099 considering the intervention group and control group at baseline and after the project. Some of the constructs reported to be significant at both baseline and after project intervention, however with social support contributing negatively though not significantly in the control group and positively in the intervention at both baseline and after project phase as indicated in the tables above.

Structural Model for relationship with Psychological, Social Support, Heath Status, and Economic Wellbeing-Intervention Group

Based on the results from the assessment study findings showed improvement in the quality of life of the elderly in the intervention by 3.9% contribution by the efforts and work done by the intervention rolled out. Changing for 44.5% to 48.4% with all constructs studied of social support, psychological domain, Heath status, and economic wellbeing contributing positively to the quality of life of the elderly at both baseline and after project, as detailed in the figures below.

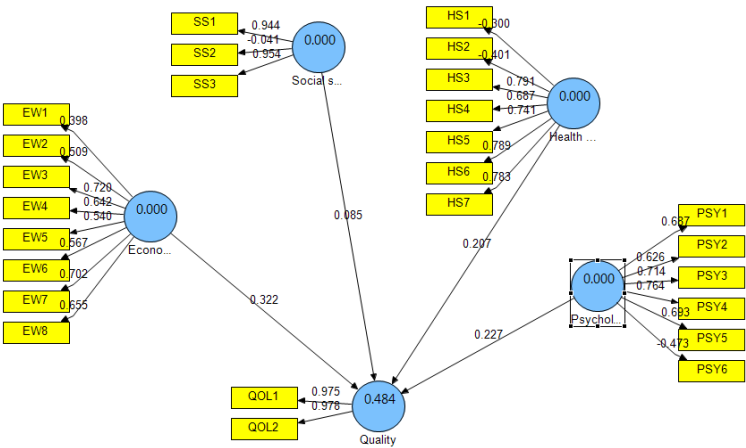


Figure 2: Intervention group after project time frame (Intervention Level)

Structural Model Analysis

The study conclusions were made based on 95% confidence interval (Levels of significance =0.05). The dependent variable considered in this study was the quality of life of the elderly. Based on the results from the study, all the mobile outreach psycho-social service factors studied reportedly influenced positively the quality of life of the elderly. However based on the degree of significance, considering 95% confidence intervals, only economic support services ($\beta=0.1479$, P

values=0.03353), and Health services ($\beta=0.3879$, P. Values =0.001005) were factors that revealed to influence significantly and positively on the quality of life of the elderly. While psychological support services, ($\beta=0.1108$, P Values=0.062461), and Social support services ($\beta=0.0927$, P Values=0.084777), though revealed to influence positively to the quality of life of the elderly, their degree of relationships were revealed not being significant to the quality of life of the elderly as detailed above.

Conclusions

This study reports that a Mobile Outreach Psychosocial Services (MOPS) can be experienced in different ways, depending on the visited person's situation. On one hand the positive experiences of the CGV indicate that a single, well-structured strategy as defined in the MOPS model is able to empower the participants, strengthened their self-esteem, give them information that makes them feel in control and get them more aware of the importance of good Quality of Life as they age gracefully. Together this could increase the elderly's ability to use their own resources and motivate them to take measures and engage in QOL-promoting activities. On the other hand, the MOPS model was experienced as being of no value by a few, either because Satisfaction with leisure and friends support they felt too ill or because they did not feel ready for the information.

The findings in this study could partly explain the positive results from quantitative studies of the MOPS interventions and emphasize that one challenge for health care professionals is to motivate older people who are healthy and independent, and engage them in activities tailored towards improvement of own QOL. These activities can begin from economic strengthening focus, social inter-relations and support, to engagement in health-promoting and disease-preventive activities.

Recommendations

The Use of telehealth as a factor in reaching out to elderly people needs more research since many may have hearing disabilities. While understanding the self-reported impact of reminiscence groups by the elderly, more elaborated research should be conducted to facilitate better understanding of the effectiveness of Reminiscence Therapy on general elderly mental health. Independent research targeting the different categories of elderly age groups should be targeted to avoid lumping them up.

Reminiscence therapy should be integrated in all structured interventions for older persons since it has proven to reduce depression and negative feelings hence improving their quality of life, especially those with life threatening and life limiting illnesses. The Government should adopt the MOPS strategy for use while developing programmes tailored towards improvement of elderly QOL. The Government should adopt the use of Community Geriatric volunteers (derived from the VHT system) as a strategy for reaching out to the frail elderly in their homes.

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Corporate Promotional Strategies as Correlates of Sport Development in Nigeria

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Abstract. *This study was carried out to examine corporate promotional strategies as correlates of sports development in Nigeria. The strategies examined included advertisement and public relations. Two hypotheses were postulated and tested at 0.05 alpha level. Descriptive survey research method was applied. Data was collected from 4441 respondents classified into sport council officials, corporate organisations' personnel and sport fans. Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used to select the respondents. Three instruments, namely, Corporate Promotional Strategy Questionnaire (CPSQ), Sport Organization Questionnaire (SOQ) and Sport Fans Questionnaire (SFQ) were used. Multiple Regression Analysis was adopted to analyse the data. The findings revealed that advertisement and public relations promotional strategies have significant correlation with sport development. Therefore, it is recommended that sport managers be enlightened of avalanche opportunities available to their organizations by establishing partnership with corporate bodies and take advantage of such for sport development in all ramifications. Policies that will encourage corporate organizations to earmark a portion of their annual profits for sport promotion are also recommended.*

Keywords: Sports development, Advertising, Public relations.

Introduction

Sports have permeated the Nigerian society just as it was in many other societies globally. Many media organisations compete for coverage of sports programme as a testimony to the extent to which Nigeria love sports. Morakinyo (2000) noted that sports is a social phenomenon that has grown from its humble beginning of being an entertainment and recreation pastime to become a visible and prominent business focus that can no longer be ignored in the social, political and economic space of any nation. The relevance and importance of sports make sports management the bedrock for development in virtually all nations (Oladuni, 2011). This is the aspect that is responsible for the smooth-running of various sports in terms of planning, organizing, directing and controlling all essential inputs in sports. Sports succeed or fail in direct proportion to the decisions and actions of those responsible for managing them (Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2004). Management involves the interaction between those who administer and those who participate in sporting process.

The sports industry has experienced tremendous growth on earnings and income in the last decade (Mullin, Hardy & Sutton, 2007). Shank

(2009) revealed that sports business industry has been capable of generating more than 210 billion dollars per year in the United States. In order to keep up with various sports competitions at different levels, organisations are forced to think globally and to expand their businesses across borders. Adesanya (2009) stressed that national boundaries are falling and multi-national companies are increasing in number. The focus on international efforts and development of global strategies tends to fall on manufacturing companies as alternative approach. Today, services are the fastest-growing part of the world's trade and account for the largest share of gross domestic product in almost every country (Albers-Miller & Straughan, 2000). Going by global outlook, services are assumed to be encountering larger risks than manufactured goods, since service providers often immediately have to establish their operations abroad and cannot gradually export the goods (Valinkangas & Lehtinen, 2004). One of the sectors within the service industry that has been influenced by the changes in the globalization process, and at the same time highly internationalized, is the sporting sector (Sanchez-Peinado, 2003).

In sales profession, according to Alessandra (2013), two potent ways to secure business are either to go out to get it or to have it come. While the first can be done by engaging in prospecting for customers, the second can be realized through the introduction of certain promotional strategies. Most sales people agree is more pleasant and less time consuming when prospects come to them. The beauty of promotional strategies is that they plant a seed in prospect's mind. In effect, a reservation has been made for consideration of business. If prospect has had positive exposure in advance, it will easily establish the relationship, make the appointment and complete the sale. Promotion can give the name that recognition needs.

Sports promotion focuses both on the marketing of sports events and teams as well as the promotion of other products and services through sporting events and sports teams. It is a service in which the element promoted can be a physical product or a brand name. Lovelock, Reynoso, Andrea and Huete (2004) averred that the goal of sports promotion is to provide the client with strategies that promote sport or to promote something other than sport through sports. Sport promotion is also designed to meet the needs and wants of the consumer through exchange processes. Sponsorship, athlete endorsements, stadium naming rights, Television advertising, TV network deals, signage, are ways clubs can employ to monetize the goodwill of their brand. All of these represent indirect revenue sources funded from advertisers who are seeking one thing - reaching a specific, targeted audience. Without

audience - the fan base - however, none of these indirect streams would be possible (Beech & Chadwick, 2006).

Harold and Crissy (2012) posited that the objectives of promotional strategy vary among organizations. Some use promotion to expand their markets, others to hold their current positions, while others use it to present a corporate viewpoint on a public issue. Promotional strategies can also be used to reach selected markets. Most sources identify the specific promotional objectives or goals of providing information, differentiating the product, increasing sales, stabilizing sales, and accentuating the product's value. All promotional efforts are geared towards increasing sales. While advertising and sales promotion do this directly, publicity and public relations influence sales indirectly by encouraging the buyer to think highly of customers, the company, and products. Most people would rather buy from a person or company they like even if they don't know them personally (Alessandra, 2013). Grankvist, Kollberg and Persson (2004), quoting Czinkota and Ronkainen (2004), assert that promotion is the direct way an organisation tries to reach its public. This is performed through the five elements of promotion mix advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, public relations, and direct marketing. In a similar study, Alessandra (2013) postulated four principal types of promotional strategies: advertising, sales promotion, public relations and publicity. The role of promotion, according to Dawes and Brown (2000), has been redefined into managing long-term relationships with carefully selected customers, including construction of a learning relationship where the marketer maintains a dialogue with an individual customer.

Belch and Belch (2003) opined that almost everyone in the modern world is influenced to some degree, by advertising and other forms of promotion. Organizations in both the private and public sectors have realized that the ability to communicate effectively and efficiently with their target audiences is critical to their success. Jalley, Donovan, Giles-Corti, Arcy and Holman (2002) affirmed that sponsorship is similar to advertising in that both are used to communicate an organization's message and image for a product, brand, or service to the target market. Both advertising and sponsorship aim to increase the salience of the organization or message. However, the process by which advertising and sponsorship achieve these communication objectives may be quite different.

Globally, sports events have been an avenue for promotion where products of corporate organization are advertised for customers to purchase and patronize on regular basis. In Nigeria, corporate organizations have shown keen interest in the sponsorship of sports

events that can promote their products. In turn, the money realized from promotional strategies by these organisations are utilized in the development of sports. For example, Cadbury Nigeria Plc. was involved in the sponsorship of the Nigeria National Football League in the 1980's. Similarly, Mobil Oil was the sole sponsor in the promotion of Athletics in Nigeria. The company's effort has been an avenue for organizing athletics championships in Nigeria where budding talents were discovered and developed.

The Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) adopted Athletics and Soccer as the sports of their choice. In the same vein, MTN as a corporate body, promoted and developed street soccer and the Football League in Nigeria. The same was done by the Nigeria Bottling Company, for many years, who promoted the Coca Cola drinks while sponsoring the Nigeria Challenge Cup Football Competition and exposing their products to Nigerians and assisting organisational performance through funding. The Guaranty Trust Bank (GTB), through her products, revived the Principals' cup for secondary schools in Lagos State. In essence, the promotional strategies adopted by various corporate bodies support affiliated sports which is used as promotional tools.

The important role sports plays in the consciousness of all and sundry in all spheres of life cannot be underestimated. The ability of the sports sector to affect physical activity levels still often tends to be underutilized, and it is recommended that support be provided to local authorities and non-governmental organizations that promote and organise sports. They should be encouraged to create motivating local environments and to develop a broader set of activities to reach different groups of the population (World Health Organisation, 2011). Andersson, Arvidsson and Lindström (2006) clearly illustrate the growing importance of sports in our society. Not only will sports sponsorship continue to be a popular and growing form of marketing, but according to Gwinner and Eaton (1999), sports generates fans that are more intense, more obtrusive, and more enduring than it is for other forms of social entertainments without direct participation in the events.

Events across the globe especially in business circles have underscored the need for changes in tactics and management approach to survive in the 21st - century. Change, according to Fasan (2002), has become a prevailing culture which every organisation, be it private or public, cannot overlook. The philosophy behind change hinges on the fact that managerial approaches and strategies of the 20th century may not be able to sustain the trends in the 21st century, sports industry inclusive.

Sports have become a big business involving colossal amount for funding which cannot be effectively borne by government alone. Although corporate private organisations have been participating in funding sports in Nigeria through promotional mix. cursory observations reveal particularly that their promotional strategies cannot be compared with the practice in the Western World like Europe and America. There is need for sports organisations and private corporate organisations to collaborate in their marketing strategies for the benefits of the two parties.

The mission of Nigeria sports, as enshrined in the National Sports Policy (2009), is to develop the sports sector to a world class level where it would provide continuous improvement of quality of life for the entire citizenry. The country will be recognized as one of the leading sporting nations in the world if the policy is well implemented. This has however not been attained due to various challenges affecting the organisation of sports in the country vis-a-vis corporate organisation support for sports development. Evidently, with countless areas which governments at all levels have to fund, it becomes obvious and apparent to devise other means of funding sports for its sustainability and holistic development. Involvement of corporate organisations in sport promotion via their promotional strategies has a double barrel effort which is often reflected in marketing of their products and development of sports itself.

Corporate organisations in the history of sports development in Nigeria have contributed immensely through the ownership of most prominent sports clubs in Nigeria. The likes of Stationery Stores (Adebajo Babes) Football Club of Lagos; Railway Football Club of Lagos; Abiola Babes Football Club of Abeokuta; Leventis United, Ibadan; Iwuayanwu Nationale Football Club; Owerri, and IICC Shooting Stars, Ibadan, were dominant forces in Nigeria Sports. These organisations produced stars, owned stadia, constructed lodging camps and sponsored teams to participate and won trophies at the continental level.

The corporate organisations adopt various marketing strategies to promote their products through advertising, endorsement of players to boost corporate image, sponsorship of competitions and building courts to enhance sports participation. These promotional strategies have influenced sports development vis-à-vis the development of corporate organisations product through community patronage and sports management. These therefore provided a platform for these corporate organisations to survive in a competitive market.

Some organisations get involved in sports in order to promote their products and get involve in social responsibility. Recent development however, has indicated that corporate organisations employ different strategies in their intention to improve their products. The withdrawal of these organisations from Nigerian sports scene has adversely affected sports development programmes, construction of sports facilities, talent identification and maximization of raw potentials. Government has solely taken over funding of sports at various states sports councils in Nigeria with less participation of private organisations. This has drastically affected the discovery of fresh talented athletes to replacement of old ones.

The apathy of private corporate organisations towards sports development through their promotional strategies has made sports facilities underutilized, abandoned and dilapidated as witnessed by lack of mass patronage by athletes and community residents. Emphasis on sports in Nigeria is based on competitive participation rather than developmental programmes. The dearth of athletes in athletics, basketball, table-tennis and football which has been the nations' strong force in international competitions has now suffered dwindling performance. Sports development programmes become more attractive when promotional strategies by private corporate organisations become a tool for supporting sports development. Therefore, it was on this premise that this study investigated corporate promotional strategies as correlate of sports development in Nigeria.

Hypotheses

1. There was no significant relationship between the advertisement strategy of corporate organizations and sports development in Nigeria.
2. There was no significant relationship between public relations strategy of corporate organizations and sports development in Nigeria.

Methods and Materials

The research design adopted for this study was the descriptive survey design. The design was considered most appropriate because of its merit in providing wide scope for obtaining information for the purpose of the study. It is also a method that embraces both qualitative and quantitative methods which help to develop an understanding of events in their natural state (Chelladurai, 2003).

The population comprised all state sports councils, corporate organisations and sports fans in Nigeria which are categorized into five individuals - athletes, coaches, sports council officials, staff of corporate organisations and sports fans. The sample for this study was made up of 2441 participants across the five categories of the population. A total of 1123 Sports Council Officials from 12 States were drawn from three geo-political zones of South-South, South-West and North-Central, Five corporate organisations (N =1078) and Sports Fans (N =240). The states were: South-South: Bayelsa, Edo, Delta, and Rivers, South-West: Lagos, Oyo, Ogun, and Ekiti, North-Central: Kogi, Benue, Kwara, and Plateau. The four states from each geo-political zone were selected based on the participation of corporate organisations in their sports programmes and events. The corporate organizations were selected based on their constant promotion of sports programmes. The five corporate organisations were: Nestle Plc., DSTV, Globacom, Guaranty Trust Bank and MTN. Twenty (20) percent of the state sports council participants were selected from the population, while participants of corporate organisations were all individuals whose duty involved promotional activities. Also, sports fans were 20 participants from each selected states. Stratified sampling technique was used to select three geo-political zones for the study. The simple random sampling technique using fish bowl method with replacement was adopted for selecting four states each from the selected geo-political zones. Also, the simple random technique using fish bowl method without replacement was adopted for selecting respondents from the selected states. The corporate organisations were, however, selected purposively on the premise of their preference for sports. Purposive method was also used to select the sports fans because they were not part of developmental programme of the sports council but came around occasionally to witness training and competition.

Three self-structured instruments were used for data collection in this study. These are: Corporate Promotional Strategies Questionnaire (CPSQ), Sports Organisation Questionnaire (SOQ) and Sports Fans Questionnaire (SFQ).

1. Corporate Promotional Strategies Questionnaire (CPSQ): This questionnaire was administered on staff of corporate organisations. The instrument has three main sections. Section one asked for basic information on the respondent's gender, age, department and educational qualification. Section two measures the objectives an organisation's involvement in sports promotion activities. The most prioritized objectives were ranked based on given numbers. Section three is made up of 42 items and measures perceived effectiveness of

promotional strategies. It is based on a 4-point modified Likert scale of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

2. Sports Organisation Questionnaire (SOQ): This questionnaire was designed to measure how promotional strategies determine sports development in specific areas such as athlete development, sports facility, organising competition, sports equipment, and mass sports participation. The 25-item questionnaire section was organised in a 4-point modified Likert scale of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.
3. Sports Fans Questionnaire (SFQ): This questionnaire was designed to measure views of sports fans on how promotional strategies influence sports development. The 20-item questionnaire was organised in a 4-point modified Likert scale of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

The construct and content validity of the research instruments of CPSQ, SOQ and SFQ designed for the study was ascertained by sports administration and management experts from Department of Human Kinetics and Health Education, University of Lagos in which proper corrections and modifications were made. The reliability of instruments was established through a pilot study. The instruments were administered on 20 staff of Anambra state sports council, 20 sports fans in Anambra state and 20 staff of Etisalat Nigeria Limited twice within an interval of two weeks. The results were coded and analysed using Statistical Tool for Social Sciences (SPSS) to establish the reliability. The result yielded a reliability of 0.85 for Corporate Promotional Strategies Questionnaire (CPSQ), 0.79 for Sports Organisation Questionnaire (SOQ) and 0.86 for Sports Fans Questionnaire (SFQ).

Copies of the validated questionnaire were administered to the respondents by the researcher along with three trained research assistants in the 12 States. Some respondents at sports councils such as chairmen of sports council and chairmen of sports associations were not on ground in most states. The researcher and his assistants were scheduled to meet the aforementioned personalities by their secretaries on specific dates which were met. The head of unit of some corporate organisations in charge of promotional unit requested the researcher to drop the questionnaire for the staff and check back within two weeks while others promptly completed the questionnaire. The sports fans were met during sports training and programmes of various sports council. The researcher introduced the questionnaire to them, guided them in filling and ensured quick retrieval. Administration of copies of the questionnaire lasted over a period of six months.

The data collected and collated were used to develop a frequency distribution table for analysis. Descriptive statistics of percentage, pie and bar charts were used in presenting the data for the study. The inferential statistics of multiple regression using Statistical Tool for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for data analysis. The stated hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Multiple regression was considered appropriate for this study because it estimates the conditional expectation of the dependent variable given the independent variable.

Results

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one postulates that “there is no significant relationship between the advertisement strategy of corporate organizations and sports development in Nigeria”. The above stated hypothesis was tested using Regression analysis, with level of significance set at 0.05. The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Advertisement strategy on sports development in Nigeria

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.t	R	R ²	F
Constant	12.488	0.106		117.442	0.000			
Advertisement	0.091	0.020	0.097	4.563*	0.000	0.097	0.009	20.825*

P<0.05

Table 1 shows that there is significant relationship between the advertisement strategy and sports development in Nigeria ($t = 4.563$, $P<0.05$). The null hypothesis was rejected. This implies there was significant relationship between the advertisement strategy of corporate organizations and sports development in Nigeria. The effect of advertisement strategy accounted for about less than 1% ($r^2=0.009$) in the variance of sports development in Nigeria. The relationship between sports development in Nigeria and advertisement strategies is low but statistically significant at 0.05 level ($r = 0.097$, $P<0.05$). The F value (20.825) for the regression is highly significant at $P<0.05$.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two postulates that “there is no significant relationship between public relations strategy of corporate organizations and sports development in Nigeria”. The above stated hypothesis was tested using

the Regression analysis, with level of significance set at 0.05. The result is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Public relations strategy on sports development in Nigeria

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.t	R	R ²	F
Constant	12.406	0.113		109.988	0.000			
Public relations	0.099	0.029	0.074	3.468*	0.001	0.074	0.005	12.029*

**P*<0.05

Table 2 reveals that public relations strategy had significant influence on sports development in Nigeria (t = 3.468, P < 0.05). The null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, public relations strategy had a significant correlation with sports development in Nigeria. The linear regression of public relations strategy with sports development in Nigeria accounted for a significant but very low amount of variance in sports development (r²= 0.005*, F_{1,2199}=12.029; p<0.05).

Discussion

The significant F-value (20.825) obtained at 0.05 confidence level while testing hypothesis one established the basis for its rejection. Thus, it was discovered that there was a significant relationship between the advertisement strategy of corporate organisations and sports development in Nigeria. It was also observed that advertising strategy exerted varied significant individual influences on all sports development components. The influence of advertising strategy was noted to be more on sports facility development when compared with other sports development components. This finding agrees with that of Omolawon (2014) who opines that aggressive advertisement ensures sustainability of public participation in sport mix. One element that advertising takes advantage of is that, athletes tend to be brand loyal and fans tend to be loyal to their favourites athletes and teams. This can be recognized through the contract players and athletes who sign with sports companies in which they get paid to wear or use their products in each game or sporting event. By so doing, the players and athletes and also their fans which make up the public develop a loyalty to the product over a long time. Similarly, advertising strategy provides massive fund which can ensure rapid sports growth if judiciously utilized. Aran (1992) and Grankvist, Kollberg & Persson (2004) reported that advertising companies are willing to pay top dollar in order to hire celebrities to represent their brands. From Star Trek actors advertising cheap travel for Priceline.com to Michael Jordan drinking Gatorade

while sweating neon colours, celebrities are part of an advertising message and campaign.

In respect of hypothesis two, the significant F-value (12.029) obtained at 0.05 confidence level while testing the hypothesis brought about its rejection. Thus, public relations strategy was adjudged to have a significant relationship with sports development in Nigeria. Furthermore, public relations strategy was observed to have had a varied significant individual influence on all sports development components which was more pronounced on sports facility development than any other sports development component. This finding agrees with that Harold and Crissy (2012) who postulate public relations strategy as a symbiotic relationship which give comparative advantage to the brand initiating it and through its channel (sport organisation) to target audience. In giving support to this, Omolawon (2014) noted that Gillet Match used public relation strategy to promote its personal hygiene products through representative figures of each sport on television during broadcast sports events. Gillette uses for this issue, players from football teams such as Thierry Henry; from tennis, Roger Federer; and from golf, Tiger Woods. In the commercial, these celebrities appeared to be using the products of the company by showing the results in order to demonstrate that, if successful people use the products, you should use them too. It is obvious from the aforementioned examples that the company using this strategy is not related to sports but through important personalities of each sport it has the possibility of getting to its target audience.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the outcomes of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. There was significant relationship between advertisement strategy of corporate organizations and sport development.
2. The findings further obviously unveil that public relations exert tremendous influence on sport growth and development.

Based on the premise of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are proffered:

1. There an urgent need to embark on continuous aggressive marketing in terms of functional advertisement strategies, as development of any business of life among others is dependent upon appropriate advertisement techniques, sport inclusive.
2. Sport managers, having aware of the incontestable role of human relations in sport development should be well grounded in

procedures for efficient human relations to sell out their product which is sport.

3. Policy to make corporate organizations earmark certain percent of their profit annually is long overdue as obtained in advanced countries.

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Structural Family Counselling and Transformation of Home Financial Constraints: a case of selected families in Kampala, Uganda

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Abstract. *The study assessed the impact of structural family counselling approaches on transformation of home financial constraints in Kampala, Uganda. Data was collected using a Family Environment Scale and Family Rituals scale from a sample of 217 family members in the study area. The research concluded that family subsystems positively influence home financial constraints. Therefore, the study recommended that the Uganda Counselling Association challenge family researchers to find ways of developing assessments and measures for understanding personalities of individual family members in the context of the society at large so as to enhance collaboration between family therapists and families in dealing with home financial constraints.*

Keywords: Counselling, Structural Family Therapies, Home Financial Constraints.

Introduction

Becver and Becver (2000) give the major supporters of structural family therapy as Salvador Minuchin, Harry Aponte, Charles Fishman and Braulio Montalvo who contended that family problems arise from maladaptive boundaries and subsystems that are created within the overall family system of rules and rituals that govern family members' interactions.

This study advanced the literature on family relationships to financial constraints. Financial constraints affect the different roles and tasks of the family members thus inhibiting their creative powers (Woodman and Schoenfeldt, 1989; 1990). The effect of financial constraints on family creativity of the outcome of functional relationships as exercised in the home environment (Burroughs and Mick, 2004). The presence of an interactionist lifestyle needs to put individual differences into consideration and this affects the available family resources with their creative performance (Gibbert et al., 2007). The family situation and birth order mould different characters and form personality in relation to financial management of different households. In several family financial atmospheres, there is a need for some boundary conditions for the effect of financial constraints, defined by a specific personality trait, are proposed and tested.

Beck et.al., (2007) argued that access to finance refers to acquisition of all major financial products like deposits and loans, and services such as

insurance and equity products at a manageable cost. Given the widely recognized link between access to finance, growth, income smoothing and poverty reduction, many countries have adopted the goal of universal financial.

The Uganda's Vision 2040 emphasizes the principle of high moral and ethical society whose citizens are strong in religious and spiritual values instilled with highest ethical standards. To operationalize this principle, the Social Development Sector Plan (SDSP) 2015/2016-2019/20 provides for interventions to address challenges facing the family. Although, Uganda's Vision 2040:66 emphasizes that structural transformation of the economy will continue with services sector contributing highest proportion to GDP, followed by industry and agriculture, it does not address how this will lead to the transformation home finance constraints.

In regard to addressing home financial constraints, NDP II underscores the importance of human capital development in addressing socio-economic transformation. The Ugandan economic structural systems remain at the cross road of societal and national development. Republic of Uganda (2017) asserted in the national roadmap on the year of the family that the family has a lot to do with development particularly economic development and wealth creation.

Problem

The indigenous African family system set was based on the hierarchical frame work that was structural in nature with different family subsystems working in a harmonious and symbiotic relationship. Several authors have given wider range of psychosocial interventions for healthy family systems functioning based on diverse interactions as pivoted on various home resources and finances (Mitton, 2008; McQuaid and Egdell, 2010). Corey (2001) and Goldenberg et al. (2001) assert that the structural family counselling considers the family structural systems in the transformation of home resources and finances.

Although the above scholars' assertions, the family resources and finances are Insufficient Income leading to bankruptcies that result from poor loan servicing and debt management. Mitton (2008) advanced that financial bankruptcy is a very common element in abusive home relationships. Basing on the above contentions, the study assessed the relationship between Structural Family Counselling on Transformation of Home Financial Constraints in Kampala (Uganda).

Research Questions

1. What is the nature of structural family counselling practiced in Kampala-Uganda?
2. What is the level of financial constraints on homes in Kampala-Uganda?
3. How can structural family counselling transform home financial constraints in Kampala-Uganda?

Related Literature

Conceptual Framework

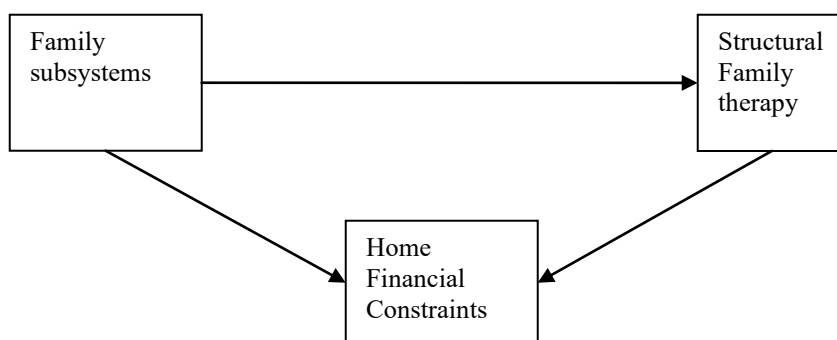


Figure 1. Structural Family Therapy and Home Financial Constraints

The structural approach to family therapy conceives of families as systems and subsystems, roles and rules, boundaries, power, and hierarchy (Aponte & Van Deusen, 1981). In general, a functional family is one which has clear boundaries between individuals and subsystems, facilitates individual growth and prevents intrusion, promotes generational hierarchies, and provides flexible rules and roles which are adaptable to the internal and external changes of an evolving family (Figley & Nelson, 1990) and (Navarre, 1998).

Corey (2001) adds that the structural family therapist give the concepts of theory as; family structure (invisible set of functional demands or rule which organize means of family members relating to each other. Family subsystems have various classifications such as spousal (wife and husband), parental (father and mother), sibling (children), extended (grandparents, other relatives and other people of contact). Family boundaries are emotional barriers that protect and enhance the integrity of individuals, subsystems, and families, hence governing the amount of contact with others.

Goldenberg & Goldenberg (2008) asserted that structural therapeutic notions entail hierarchies between the generations within a family, with semi-permeable boundaries permitting a sufficient flow of information up and down, for example between parents and their children. The structural family therapists intervene with the objective of making the family structure approximate this normative model. The techniques used in structural family therapy involve challenging directly absent or rigid boundaries, unbalancing the family equilibrium by temporarily joining with one member of the family against others or setting homework tasks designed to restore hierarchies. Corey (2001) adds other structural family techniques include; family mapping, enactments, reframing, accommodation, working with family interaction, tracking sequences, intensifying and restructuring. The structural family therapy has a similar systemic approach to family issue as the African family systems. Therefore, structural family therapy can be applicable in the African family context to a given extent. It should be realized that these family therapies do not adequately address the African family systems issues that relate to home financial constraints.

Internal and External Home Financial Constraints

Guariglia (2005) suggested that the different measurement of home financial constraints applied in family settings. The author considered external financial constraints. The home financial factors are based on proxies like family size (Carpenter, Fazzari and Pertersen, 1994 & 1998), age (Devereux and Schiantarelli, 1990), as criteria to measure the degree of external financial constraints faced by the family. The authors assess the extent to which families are susceptible to the effects of information irregularities concerning financial functioning, which in turn constrain their ability to raise internal and external funds. Cleary (1999) indicated that financial wellbeing is based on levels of financial strength. These practices strongly suggest that internal and external financial constraints have different effects on the investment—cash flow relationship in family life.

Cleary et al (2007) provides the theoretical background for the attempt to distinguish between the effects of internal and external financial constraints on the sensitivity of investment of home finances.

Home Financial Development

Ove (2003) finds that financial development positively affects homes' investment by increasing the availability of external finance. Especially,

such effect is stronger for financially constrained firms in countries of which financial systems are less developed.

Financially capable families are able to effectively manage their finances; plan ahead; efficiently select financial products and understand these products; know where, and how, to seek financial advice; and have the motivation to efficiently manage finances and effect change (Atkinson et al., 2006; Financial Services Authority, 2006; HM Treasury 2007; McQuaid and Egdell, 2010). The acquisition of financial capability among the individuals and families easily leaves some members of the social systems with some lack because of uneven utilization of financial opportunities and this affects the family and the wider community.

Limitations of Financial Capability on Family Systems

Kempson et al., (2000) advanced that a lack of financial capability not only influences the individual but affects, and is affected by, their wider family and social networks. Family and friends may become implicated in the financial decisions and strategies adopted by individuals and households as a result of inflexible financial decision making and absence of prioritization.

The lack of flexibility in mainstream financial services, and the costs associated with high-cost credit providers, low income households may prefer to borrow money from family and friends to meet their day to day demands (Ben-Galim and Lanning, 2010). The result of a lack of financial capability can also flow through the household as individuals may become liable for their partner's debt (Kaye, 1997; Goode, 2010). The lack of financial capability leads to various financial abuses in the family setting.

Robinson (2003) asserted that the different behaviours can co-exist and reinforce one another in different patterns. The study suggests that financial abuse is a very common element in abusive relationships in home setting. Despite this, this area has not received as much attention as other elements of abusive behaviour (Wilcox, 2006).

It should be noted that not only can financial means be a way of exerting control over another person, but the aftermath of this form of abuse can often lead to financial difficulty and debt. In addition, financial abuse disrupts people's lives while it is taking place, while they try to escape it, and when they are trying to rebuild their lives afterwards.

Types of Home Financial Abuses

Barron (2012) pointed out that like immediate problems stemming from financial abuse, being in and leaving an abusive relationship can lead to long-term financial difficulty. It is important to note the fundamentally gendered nature of domestic abuse, financial difficulty and indeed broader economic patterns of work, income and financial management.

The most common types of financial abuse are explained below: the perpetrator not contributing to joint bills, the perpetrator getting the victim to take out credit, the perpetrator using all joint resources, the perpetrator controlling access to the victim's income, banking or savings and the perpetrator controlling or interfering with the victim's benefits.

Westaway & McKay (2007) argued that state of the relationship, make-up of the relationship and severity of abuse are inter-related factors which may help to explain the prevalence of different types of financial abuse. Although the lack of financial capability results into financial abuse, in response, the families, friends and neighbours are often an important source of information about financial decisions (Kempson et al., 2000) and can shape attitudes towards the importance of financial products and services. The shaped attitude at hand should put family into consideration as manifested in the inclusive financial operations.

The inclusive financial sector has been considered by the United Nations committee on building that contended that central banks and countries should add the goal of universal 'financial inclusion' to the two earlier goals of prudential regulation that include safety of depositors' funds and the stability of the financial system (UN, 2006). The financial abuses can be handled by financial inclusion.

Home Financial Inclusion

Hayton et al., (2007) pointed out that financial inclusion can be conceptualised as having two components: These include consumers need access to appropriate financial services and consumers need to have the skills, knowledge and motivation to make informed financial decisions and manage money effectively (financial capability) and so to make the most of the financial services and products.

(Mitton, 2008) argues that financial exclusion covers not only those who lack access to mainstream financial services (like those on low incomes) but also acknowledges the role of skills and education. Financial inclusions are always accessible by families and various community institutions.

Sources of Home Financial Services

There are several sources of home finance that are both formal and informal and can range from banks, near banks, non-banks, community organizations to friends and family. The analysis is concerned with availability of sustainable financial provisions in the family and societal systems.

There are various empirical evidences as to whether financial constraints also increase family functioning is scarce. While the availability of financial resources appears as a key determinant of new ventures success (Song et al. 2007), other studies have shown that financial constraints do not represent an obstacle to innovation (Scranton and Gibbert 2009) or to entrepreneurial activity (Baker and Nelson 2005; Garud and Karnoe 2003; Starr and MacMillan 1990). The financial constraints do not affect innovation speed for home growth and stability (Heirman and Clarysse 2007). In addition, the literature from psychology home finance has provided conceptual and experimental evidence that individuals are more functional when bounded by constraints than without challenges (Finke et al., 1992). In the same way, constraints are provocative to growth. Along these lines, Hoegl et al. (2008) proposed that financial constraints may be beneficial to innovative growth when a bounded by functional home financial approaches.

Financial constraints work as input restrictions. These limitations prevent the possibility for the home to acquire some inputs that would be necessary to implement a well-known course of action. The limitations are imaginary financial boundaries that protect a given home to run into unnecessary financial constraints. The best example of such constraints is manifested in any family argument about inappropriate financial expenditures (Moreau and Dahl, 2005). The restricted finances impact on the choices of family budgeting amidst home financial constraints.

Family constraints impact access to family needs and resources utilization. Moreau and Dahl (2005) elaborated that as a result of these financial constraints the family members invent different financial ways to meet home economic demands.

There are different behaviours that co-exist and reinforce one another in different patterns. Research suggests that financial abuse is a very common element in abusive relationships (Robinson, 2003). Despite this, this area has not received as much attention as other elements of abusive behaviour.

It is not only financial avenues that put power controls and exertions over another person, but the family members' value systems. These systems are designed to instil into members active power controls and market oriented economic justice. This may lead to home financial liberation or financial difficulty and debt that creates into the family vulnerability to financial abuse (Wilcox, 2006). This financial abuse disrupts people's lives as it is taking place, whereas they try to escape it, and when they are trying to rebuild their lives afterwards.

There are several behaviours associated with home financial abuse include (Sharp, 2008): interfering with employment and/or education, stealing, destroying property, stopping and/or controlling access to finances including benefits/savings/wages, forcing victim to take out credit, forcing victim to commit fraud, transferring financial liability into victim's name, refusing to contribute to household or other costs including child maintenance payments and prolonging legal proceedings. Sharp (2008) elaborated that these home abuse financial behaviours manifest in a random choice of the individuals involved in the use of home resources. In addition to the use of financial means to exert control within a relationship, financial difficulty can place a significant barrier to leaving an abusive relationship. Financial abuse can be a practical block to leaving, or to obtaining access to justice. If not eligible for legal aid the costs of obtaining the necessary court orders to stay safe are prohibitive for many.

The immediate problems stemming from financial abuse that is being in and leaving an abusive relationship can lead to long-term financial difficulty (Barron, 2012). When reflecting on these home financial issues, it is significant to consider the essentially gender based nature of domestic abuse, financial difficulty and indeed broader economic patterns of work, income and financial management (Westaway & McKay, 2007). In this perspective, women can be economically disadvantaged through lower earnings, are less likely to be the main 'breadwinner', and are more likely to experience a financial penalty when becoming a parent. The women are still tremendously responsible for the unpaid work in the home (caring and household tasks) (Lanning, 2013). Basing on these perceptions, the women are more like to encounter financial abuses in that take place in the family setting. The gender based financial behaviours result from the androcentric societies. The patriarchal societies have influenced the cultural systems of different home financial upkeeps.

Financial Institutions and Financial Services

The contemporary banking avenues have advanced from the classic 'brick & mortar branches' to branchless banking such as banking services availed by banking agents and by the utilization of technology such as mobile phones to reach underserved populations in remote areas (Kumar et.al., 2006).

The services in branchless banking model include; MTN Mobile money and Warid/Airtel money in Uganda, Wizzit in South Africa, M-Pesa in Kenya, and G-Cash in Philippines are some successful instances of branchless banking that have increased access to money transactions in the rural and urban community (Kumar et.al, 2006). The problems that arise from such related money transfers have created family financial constraints that the Structural family counselling has handled at large.

Methodology

This research employed Exploratory – Case study design, because a lot can be learnt from a few examples of selected families' structural issues (Blaxter et al, 2010).

The research was carried out in Kampala- district of central Uganda, because the key respondents and informants handling issues of structural family counselling and home financial constraints. The study area was also relevant because it has various counselling centres like Wamukisa teenage counselling centre, Hope and Beyond rehabilitation centre, Consider counselling centre, Mbuya reach out, Rapport counselling centre, Matunda ya wazee among others.

Family counsellors and family members from eight counselling centres within Kampala District participated in the study. They were aged between 10 to 70+ years and were randomly selected using the counselling centres the sampling frame. The final sample consisted of 217 family members. There were more female (53%) than male (47%) respondents from varying socio-economic environments and ethnicity.

Table 1: Population and Sample

Category	Sampling method	Target population	Sample
Family heads	Opportunistic	50	31
Counsellors and social workers	Purposive	145	99
Parent(s)	Simple random	105	51
Children and Adolescents	Snow ball	95	21
Other family members	Stratified random	55	15
	Total	450	217

Procedures for determining sample size: In this study the sample size will be determined basing on Yamane’s formula (Yamane, 1967) guidelines for estimating the sample size. The sample size of research participant will calculated basing on Yamane’s formula (Yamane, 1967) table in appendix.1:

Determining the sample size using Slovene’s formula of calculating the sample size as

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

n = required sample size
N = population size
e = Level of confidence

$$n = \frac{450}{1 + 450(0.05)^2} \quad n = 217$$

The data was classified and tabulated in accordance with the objectives to arrive at the meaningful and relevant inferences by using thematic data analysis and descriptive statistical data analysis techniques.

Findings

Nature of Structural Family Counselling Practiced in Uganda

The structural family therapy components that influence family rituals are shown in Figure 2.

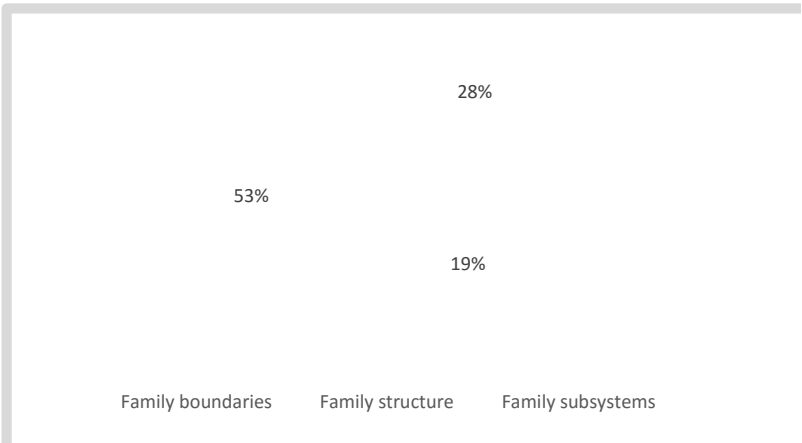


Figure 2: Structural Family Therapy Components Influencing Family Rituals

When the respondents were asked whether structural family therapy components influence home financial constraints, the following alternatives were opted for ranging from the highest family subsystems (53%), followed by family boundaries (28%) and the lowest being family structure (19%).

Table.2: Structural Therapeutic Techniques are used in Transformation of Home Financial Constraints

Technique	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative %
Working with family interaction	70	32.26	32.26
Tracking sequences	41	18.89	51.15
Intensifying	17	7.83	58.98
Restructuring	23	10.61	69.59
All the above	66	30.41	100
Total	217	100	

The respondents also identified other the Structural therapeutic techniques used to enhance social wellbeing in family life. Of the available options, Working with family interaction was the highest at 32.26% while those who chose the option of Intensifying represented 7.83%.

Impact of Financial Constraints on the Home

The forms of financial abuse through exploitation of joint resources are shown in Figure 3.

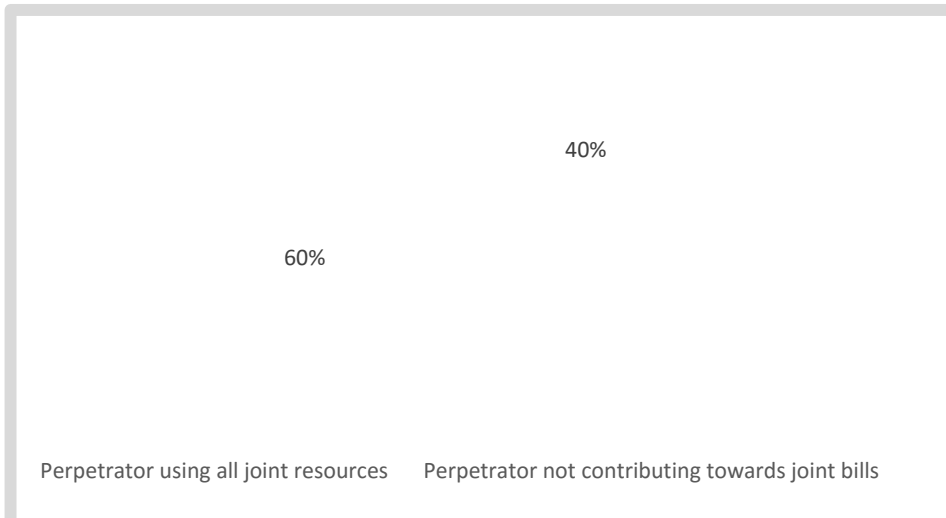


Figure 3: Forms of Financial Abuse through Exploitation of Joint Resources

The results in Figure 3 when the respondents were asked the ways does home financial abuse through exploitation of joint resource affect family relations, revealed the highest option of Perpetrator not contributing to joint bills with 60% and the lowest score was Perpetrator using all joint resources with 40%.

Table 3: Structural Family Counselling Transforms Home Financial Constraints

Structural family counselling transforms home financial constraints	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	70	32.3	32.3
Agree	60	27.6	59.9
Not sure	50	23	82.9
Disagree	10	4.6	87.6
Strongly disagree	27	12.4	100
Total	217	100	

The findings in Table 3 about whether structural family counselling transforms home financial constraints, the respondents revealed that the highest scores were on strongly agree with n=70 (32.3%), whereas those with lowest scores were disagree with n=10 (4.6%). The cumulative percentage of agreement scores was 59.9% derived from those who strongly agree with 32.3% and those who agreed with 27.6%, whereas the lowest cumulative score was 17.0% derived from disagree scores of 4.6% and strongly disagree scores of 12.4%. However, those who were not sure score n=50 (23%).

Discussion

According to the findings indicated in figure.1 family subsystems scored highly among the components of the family structural therapy with 53%. The highest percentage of the findings is in agreements with Minuchin (1998) who give pre-eminence to in family organized as hinged on the family subsystems. The family subsystems include as spousal (wife and husband), parental (father and mother), sibling (children). The researcher concurs with the findings and the author at hand, because the family subsystems are central in building holistic family systems.

The findings revealed family boundaries to have second highest with 28%, which is in line the understanding that boundaries are emotional barriers that protect and enhance the integrity of individuals, subsystems, and families, hence governing the amount of contact with others (Becvar & Becvar, 2000). Although, the findings and Becvar &

Becvar’s (2000) argument concur, the impact of family structure needs not to be underestimated on family organization, order and leadership. The family structure scored the lowest of percentage 19%, this is in agreement with Corey (2001) who argued that structures are not explicit and are an invisible set of functional demands or rules that govern family members operate.

Minuchin (1974) used boundary as symbols to represent various structures of family. Boundaries are abstract dividers between or among systems and subsystems. They may be defined spatially by the way the family members align with one another. They are set by the implicit rules defining who participates in which subsystems and how. They are characterized as rigid or flexible and as diffuse, open (clear), or closed.

- Open or clear boundary:** — — — — — —
- Closed or rigid boundary:** _____
- Diffuse boundary:**

According to Table 2, the findings indicated that working with family interaction technique as the highest with 32.26%. This process of family interaction acts as a basis of re-joining family members together thus creates an accommodative style for each family member in the family structure. The family interaction helps the structural family therapist gain a foothold so as to access the members’ way of dealing with their problems. This ultimately helps members of different subsystems to change dysfunctional sets and rearrange or realign the family organization (Minuchin, 1974). According to the findings, the lowest option was Intensifying technique represented with 7.83%. In this technique, the structural family practitioner is meant to create a concrete conceptual map about what is happening in the family to make it functional (Aponte& Van Deusen, 1981). Regardless of the situation, however, it is important to consider issues relating to developmental stage and to take note of all subsystems as well as other extra-familial systems which may be involved within the family interaction.

The results in Figure 3 when the respondents were asked the ways does home financial abuse through exploitation of joint resource affect family relations, revealed the highest option of Perpetrator not contributing to joint bills with 60% and the lowest score was Perpetrator using all joint resources with 40%. The findings are in agreement with Barron (2012) who pointed out that in the contemporary family systems it is common to have joint accounts, household bills and joint liabilities. In these family relationships joint resources are exploited by partners

and other family members. In the long run the family relationship is at times subject to debate, because of the accompanied types of financial abuse. The business plan can follow Prevention, Preparedness, Response and Recovery (PPRR) framework. The four key elements mentioned above are reflected in the Business Continuity Planning Process.

According to Table 3, the findings indicated “strongly agree” with $n=70$ (32.3%) as the highest score is in line with the way in which the process of family interaction acts as a basis of re-joining family members together thus creates an accommodative style for each family member in the family structure. The family interaction helps the structural family therapist gain a foothold so as to access the members’ way of dealing with their problems. This ultimately helps members of different subsystems to change dysfunctional sets and rearrange or realign the family organization (Minuchin, 1974). In the structural family therapy, practitioner is meant to create a concrete conceptual map about what is happening in the family to make it financially functional (Aponte & Van Deusen, 1981). The functionality of home finances is reflected in the vicious spirals of financial management as a way of creating economic sustainability.

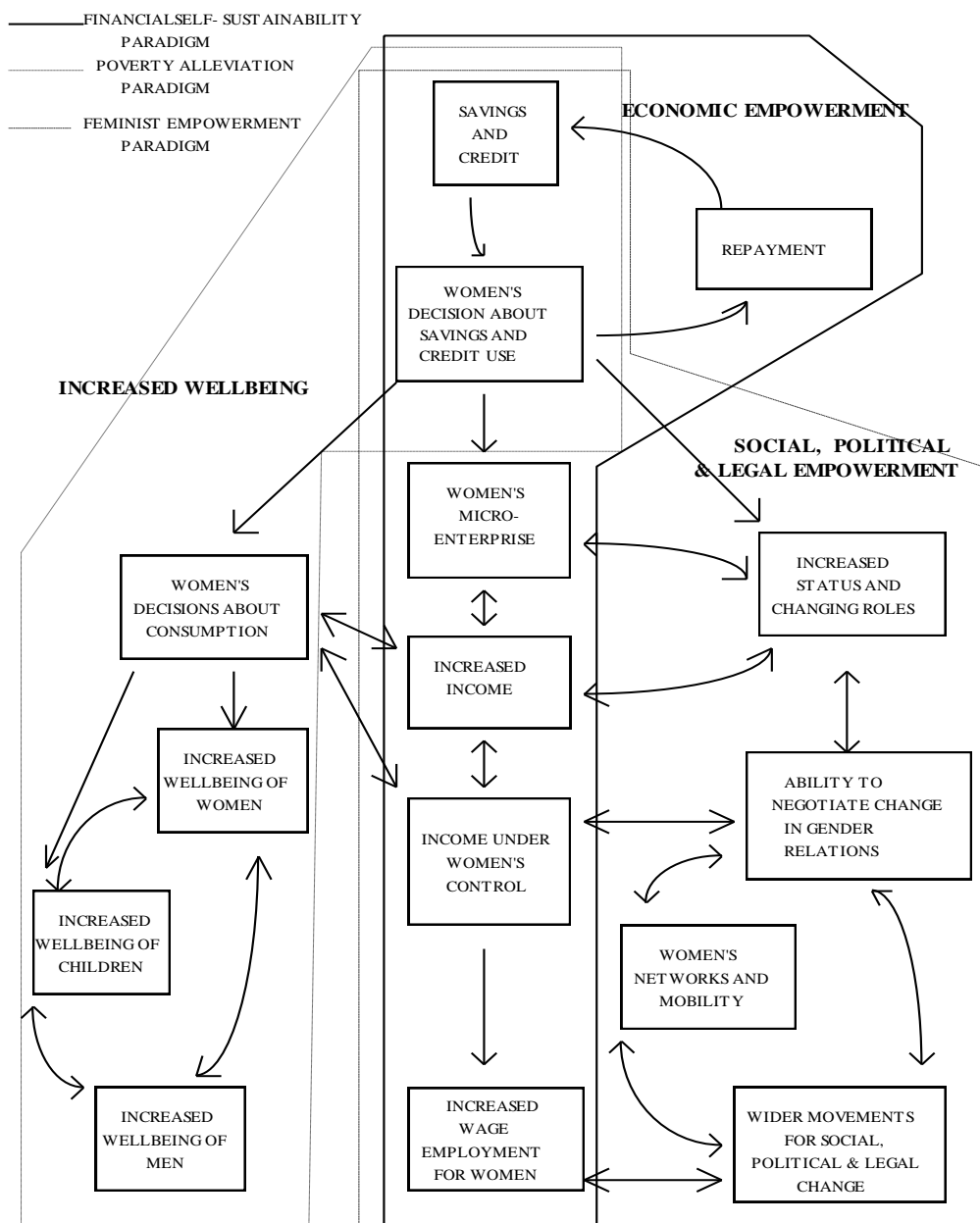


Figure 4: Virtuous Spirals Paradigms Compared

Source: Adapted from Rhyne and Otero (1994)

The vicious spiral of economic empowerment involves economic, social political and legal empowerment that promotes increased wellbeing as financial sustainability. The best way to manage home financial constraints is by involving women in the family financial empowerment

levels. The Vicious spiral framework has very different underlying understandings of gender and empowerment and lead, through different lines of logical argument, to very different financial practices.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The research concluded that family rituals and routines are influenced by the structural family therapy basing on the nature of family structure, family subsystems and family boundaries that enhance functional family systems. Structural family therapy especially on the family subsystems (cf. Figure. 1 with 53%) positively influences home finances (cf. Figure. 2 with 44%).

The study recommended that the Uganda Counselling Association challenge family researchers to find ways of developing assessments and measures for understanding personalities of individual family members in the context of the society at large.

The research recommended through the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development that to enhance collaboration between family therapists and families as family therapists design plans that are culturally sensitive to family systems and family developmental environment. The study calls upon for the interactional nature of family relationship when family therapists are employing interventions on the basis of managing home financial constraints.

The National Council for Higher Educational together with the Ministry of Higher Education to encourage tertiary training institutions to develop programmes and curricular for educators and practitioners to be well grounded on how work with families and to families find ways to celebrate their family success. This will help family members to full participate in various forms of home financial constraint.

The study recommended that the Uganda Counselling Association and Uganda Behavioural alliance to provide a framework for the practitioners to understand that the symbolic meaning attached to home financial constraint management that gives means on how family members create new levels of economic interconnectivity that maintains the family system together. The adoption of this therapeutic framework will act as a basis of the family routine to hold a promise for the systematic interventions of families threatened with developmental and socio-emotional concerns. This process within daily management of home financial constraints acts as a carriage with innate interventions that promote sustainable family subsystems.

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Uganda National Youth Policy Model and Job Creation in Kampala

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Abstract. *This paper explores the contribution of the national youth policy model to job creation in Kampala, Uganda. Government adopted a National Youth Policy (NYP) in 2001 based on the model of "targeted sub-groups of youth". The cardinal objective of policy was to enable sub-groups of youth access public funds and create their own jobs. The current study used a specially designed questionnaire to gather responses from 226 youth to test for realization of the above objective. The analysis of the results revealed that in the youth's perception, only 54% agreed with the view that "targeted sub-groups of youth model" had led to creation of own jobs. Given the fact that the number of youth who had jobs were few, the study proposed adoption of a Sector Based Business Model (SBBM). A regression model predicted that this (SBBM) would lead to more jobs being created.*

Keywords: Targeted sub-group youth model, Microenterprise, Job creation.

Introduction

The paper explores the contribution of the Uganda National Youth Policy (NYP) to job creation in Kampala. Unemployment especially of young people is one of the daunting problems that has dogged Uganda for a generation. Unemployment or lack of jobs for the youth has often been associated with poverty, violence, internal conflicts, prostitution, risky migrations, redundancy, drugs, death, crime and negative cultural practices. The consequence of all that is that, 63% of Ugandan in-mates were youth. In view of this bleak and drab situation, government formulated a NYP of 2001.

The NYP stated on the outset that "most of the youth fail to get jobs and end up in urban slums and streets. They engage in unproductive or anti-social activities like prostitution, thuggery, drugs and substance abuse... They increase pressure on the few urban facilities and amenities. Poverty, unemployment and underemployment were the main problems affecting the youth" (NYP, 2001) hence the realisation that a panacea to the situation was to give the youth jobs.

Statement of the Problem

In view of the above realisation, the second and seventh objectives of the NYP indicate that government was to avail financial resources for the youth to be economically empowered. The objectives read: (ii) To

promote social and economic empowerment of the youth"; and "vii) To mobilise resources for youth programmes and projects at all levels" [NYP, chapter 7.3 (ii) and (vii)]. Table 1 shows the situation of the youth unemployment in 2001.

Table 1: Situation of youth unemployment in Uganda in 2001

Issue	Percentage	Comment
Youth unemployment	3.95	Youth unemployment refers to the share of the labour force ages 18 to30 without work but available for work.
National unemployment rate	2.18	This refers to unemployment of the labour force that is without work but available for and seeking for jobs.
Labour force	10.11 (millions)	Labour force comprises people ages 18 and 65 who engage in production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes the employed and unemployed but seeking work. Not everyone who works is included like unpaid workers.
Dependency ratio	108.63%	This is the percentage of people who are supported by the working people.

Source: Global Economy Indicators, 2016.

In Table 1 it is very clear that youth unemployment rate of 3.95% was higher than the national average rate of 2.18%. This meant that the youth were more badly off as far as jobs were concerned. This therefore required giving more focus on the youth unemployment. Put differently, there was an urgent need to create jobs for the youth on a massive scale.

Related Literature

There are several youth policy models. A model is an arrangement which provides clarity around a long-term set of investment priorities and goals. Kamara (2008) identified three models of youth policies. These were: (i) *Population-based youth policy model*. Such policies and strategies were universal because they sought to apply to the entire youth population as well as any sub-groups that made up the youth population. (ii) *Targeted sub-groups youth policy model*. The youth policies in this model focus on a single facet of youth development or a particular sub-population of youth. (iii) *Targeted individual youth policy model*. The youth policies in this model were designed to address personal barriers. Such policies would include personal issues like treatment and rehabilitation programme for affected youth.

Whereas Kamara (2008) identified three models of youth policy, the *Creative Commons* (2012) categorised 36 youth related models. The difference between the two arose from the fact that Kamara was concerned with categorising the key focus of youth policies. Yet for the *Creative Commons*, the concern was on youth participation. So the debate that emerged was on what should guide the decision models on youth policy. Kamara argued that the key beneficiary is determined beforehand whereas the *Creative Commons* were on methods of involving the youth.

After exploring the existing models, this study noted that the *Targeted sub-groups of youth policy model* of Kamara had a relationship with Uganda's approach. The NYP stated that certain categories of the youth had been identified for special attention due to their vulnerability and circumstances. These groups therefore needed special programmes. They included: School dropouts; the female youth; Urban youth migrants; Youth in situations of armed conflict and disaster areas; Youth with disabilities; The illiterate youth; Domestic helpers; street youth; Orphans; Youth infected / affected with HIV/AIDS; · Sex workers; Youth who are terminally ill; Youth addicted to drugs and substances; The unemployed youth and the like (NYP, 2001 chapter 9). These were the categories that were targeted by the NYP. It was decision of government that the youth livelihood funds would be extended to the above targeted sub-group of disadvantaged youth (YLF, 2013).

The NYP defined a youth as person who is between the ages of 18 and 30 years (NYP, 2001). A good number of the youth falling in this age category were unemployed (Brookings, 2014). The youths in Uganda constitute 78% of a population of close to 34.6 people (UBOS, 2014). This implied that about 27 million Ugandans were youth. Of these more than one million had no jobs. This was partly the reason why the dependency ratio in Uganda has consistently been above 100% (globaleconomyindicators.com).

It was deemed that with NYP, would enable the youths to start up micro-projects and create employment. In spite of the good intentions of the national youth policy, the complaints about youth unemployment in the country have persisted unabated (Choksi, 2015; Ndagire, 2014; Mo, 2012). This situation raised the question of what effect has the national youth policy had on job creation in the country.

As far as policy and job creation were concerned there were varying views among scholars. There are scholars (Taylor 2015; Sorge 2015) that were in favour of government being in charge of the initiative of job

creation through planning and managing the input resources that supported job creation. However as much as there was this view on the other hand there were authors (Rugasira, 2016) who suggest that job creation should be given to private individuals who are capable of employing other individuals if given the resources. This debate showed that there had been many views to job creation initiatives. Given the above view the following null hypothesis was formulated; "The NYP had no significant effect on job creation."

National Youth Policy and Job Creation

As far as policy and job creation were concerned there were varying views among scholars. Some argued in favour of government being in charge of the initiative of job creation (Taylor 2015; Sorge 2015; Abbas & Asghar, 2010; Chigunta (2002). Other authors like Daley-Harris (2007) debated coupling government interventions with microfinance institutions activities. Furthermore, (Rugasira, 2016) suggested that job creation be given to private entities like the chambers of commerce. This debate though interesting did not focus on whether the NYP had succeeded in attaining its objective of job creation.

Job Creation

Job creation is a critical issue the world over. Economies are considered performing well if they deliver jobs to most members of a country's labour force. The term job creation has been defined in various ways by different authors. For instance Klette & Mathiassen (1995) described job creation as the "difference in employment in all establishments which increase employment between the two time periods" (p.5). On another hand, job creation is defined as the notion that employment is created in response to some situation (McInnes, 2012).

Job creation has also been described by some other scholars as models (Mortensen & Pissarides, 1994; Kelly, Dubb & Duncan, 2016) and by others as theories (Carlsson, Eriksson & Gottfries, 2006; Samuelson, 2012), and thirdly as strategies (Webb 2013; OECD, 2014; Conroy & Deller, 2014). There are several models which have been used by countries and organisations to create jobs. The models included the following:

(i) *The growth model for job creation.* This model focused on the high investment, use of the private sector, encouraging companies to use technology, and making connections to the world markets through establishing infrastructure in the air, on land, on water and by internet.

All these growth aspects would lead to increased jobs in a particular economy (Forbes, 2009; World Bank, 2013). Whereas it was important to take growth seriously, the current study was more concerned with the assessment of how much the national youth policy had achieved in at least having the most energetic cohort of the population engaged in some productive and remunerable work.

(ii) *Planning for the future model*. Whereas many scholars offered models of job creation, Manyika, Lund, Auguste, Mendona Welsh & Ramaswamy (2011) argued for making projections for the future demographics. This was a useful model because every year there are millions of youth who seek employment. So it was advisable to plan ahead and not focus only on these within youth population cohort (Bongaarts, 2009). On the other hand it focus was put on sectors where jobs were expected to exist. For instance in Uganda, it was stressed that the most promising sectors for youth employment included agriculture, ecotourism, telecommunications, financial services, etc. (Aung & Glenn, 2011).

(iii) *Youth empowerment for national development goals model*. This model was advanced mainly by African Union (Ezin, 2011) and sought to integrate the youth to the nations' development agenda. The main focus was on general development in which the youth have a share. It did not seek to disaggregate the youth from other cohorts of the population. Given the rampant unemployment and underemployment across many African countries, the "youth empowerment for national development goals" was an understandable model. However, other scholars (Paglia & Room, 1999) seem to have viewed the youth as a population cohort with different problems and for that matter needed to be attended to distinctly. Micro-project is akin to entrepreneurship. The entrepreneurship focus propels economic growth and job creation (Baumal 1996; Mair & Marti, 2009). The debate between integrating the youth in national development programmes or handling their issues separately or encouraging among them entrepreneurship for the sake of economic development may be valuable when national policy makers consider the kind of strategy to be employed to create jobs for the youth.

Each of the above models was worth noting except that the ensuing debate neither addressed the concerns of nor the foci of the current study. For that matter, it could be noted that there are gaps in the existing debate and on models of job creation that are relevant for the youth in Uganda.

(vi) *Microenterprise development was another model of job creation.* It was noted that this model or strategy when used in the United States, it led to job creation for a quarter a century (Badal, 2010; Edgcomb & Thetford, 2016). Not only micro-entrepreneurs with higher incomes who were more likely to create jobs but also the working poor created jobs for themselves and others as long as they accessed loans. In view of that apparent benefit, they two authors recommend that governments and local governments to extend financial support to micro-enterprise development. This model was seen as a poverty alleviation strategy (FIELD 2010, Edgcomb & Thetford, 2016). In concert with above observations, Garibaldi and Mauro (2000) contended that in the 1990s the USA was very successful at job creation. However, most of the created jobs were low-skill and low-wage like retail jobs. A study by IMF had come to a similar conclusion not only in USA but also in Australia and Canada between 1983 and 1994 (Larsen, 1997). It would appear that in developed economies which are fully monetised, microenterprises tend to do better than their counterparts in the developing economies where the monetisation of the economic sector was only a fraction. A good chunk of the population operated informally and for the most part outside the monetised sector.

Although one would have expected the firm size to influence jobs created, the study on this subject by Haltiwanger, Jarmin & Miranda (2011) in the United States found that start-ups and young businesses created substantial number of jobs. Similar results were obtained in OECD countries where small and medium sized enterprises played a central role in creating jobs (OECD, 2016). So it was not necessarily big organisations that created more jobs.

Although micro-enterprise development has been praised as a successful model in job creation especially development countries, there was still need to analyse the contribution how much micro-projects could contribute to job creation given the facts that the Ugandan economy is not as developed and the USA or the OECD countries. Whereas the micro-projects tend to perform successfully in developed countries the same does not apply to developing economies like Uganda. This is because the economies of developed countries are about 99% monetised or formal, while those of developing countries are largely subsistence based or informal. For instance in Uganda about 69% of labour force are engaged in the informal sector (ILO, 2012) for that matter it is less likely for the micro-entrepreneurs to succeed easily in the informal sector.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to assess the contribution of the Uganda National Youth Policy on Job Creation for young people in Kampala Capital City Authority.

Methodology

The study was conducted in the five divisions that make up Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA), which was one of the 27 districts and urban centres that received the initial youth livelihood funds (YLF) in the 2013/2014 financial year.

A sample of 226 youths was used for this study. A cross sectional design was adopted and as such respondents were drawn from all the five divisions, from categories of microenterprises, both female and male. These responded to the questionnaire which was the main tool.

The youths who participated in this study as respondents had to provide answers to each and all of them. Apart from the section on demographics the rest of the four sections which carried the main variables of the study were Likert scaled as follows: “strongly agree” = 5; “agree” = 4; “neither agree nor disagree” = 3; “disagree” = 2; “strongly disagree” = 1. The scale measured the respondents' perceptions of the items on the tool. Furthermore, the scale allowed for all the needed quantitative computations like Cronbach alpha coefficients, mean, percentages, correlations, regression, path analysis and others to be done. A CVI of .870 was obtained, which was quite high (Amin, 2005; Saunders *et al*, 2009). Cronbach's alpha test was used to ascertain the consistency of the instrument (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of the Cronbach alpha test

	Scale (section / variable)	Cronbach alpha
1	National Youth Policy	.785
2	Public Funding	.886
3	Micro-projects	.875
4	Job creation	.774
	Average	.830

The reliability coefficients on individual scale and on average (0.830) as revealed in table 3.2 were > 0.75 and for that reason for sections on the instrument to be regarded consistent and reliable. The scales accurately measured internal consistence of scales. Each scale had an alpha score greater than 0.75 which is recommended for social science research (see for instance Sullivan, 2001: 303). This implied that the results from these

variables would be reliable because they truly represented the variables they claimed to stand for.

Findings and Discussion

The key objective of the study was to analyse the contribution of the Youth Policy to job creation in Uganda. The findings revealed that 59% of the youth were aware of the education, training and capacity building provisions of Youth Policy. This implied that the Youth Policy was known by the youths. Furthermore, it was found that a big percentage (77%) of the youths who were involved in this study as respondents had had small-scale enterprises (with capital not exceeding UGX 5m). This was money loaned to youths in groups or individually by Government through programmes created under the NYP.

Through the establishment of National Youth Funds and specifically the Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP) which was introduced in September 2013, the government significantly boosted youth schemes by allocating UGX 265 billion (about US\$ 100 million) to the Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP) over a five-year period (that is 2014 - 2018). YLP has three components aimed at enhancing the youth’s ability for business management: (i) skills development, (ii) livelihood support, and (iii) institutional support. It was deemed that these three would make job creation possible.

Table 3: Youth Projects in KCCA

	Sector	Number of projects	% implemented
1	Agriculture	43	28
2	Service	20	13
3	Industry	15	10
4	Vocational	27	18
5	ICT	3	2
6	Creative industry	44	20
Total		152	100

Job Creation under National Youth Policy in KCCA

Kampala or Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) as officially known was selected to constitute this study because of the following reasons: (i) it was one of the 27 districts and authorities to receive the initial YLF funds; (ii) it was one of those authorities which represented the urban setting; (iii) KCCA is one of the places where there have been many demonstrations by jobless youth; and (iv) it is one little geographical area but with very large number of youth projects (152).

These factors influenced the decision to select KCCA as a study area for the current study.

The need for jobs by the youth in KCCA at the time of this research was 12 percent. This was about seven times more than that in the rural areas which was at 1.7 per cent without jobs. So unemployment was much more pronounced in Kampala. For that reason job creation was urgently needed.

It was noted that government used projects as one of the strategies for creating jobs for the youth. For this study it was envisaged that there was an endeavour to create jobs through the 152 projects in KCCA. All the five divisions of: Central division, Kawempe, Lubaga, Nakawa, and Makindye had youth projects. It is appropriate to argue that number of jobs created were as many as the number of members in projects. For instance when each project has an average of 13 members it means there were 1,976 jobs in Kampala. Besides the divisions, the parishes and projects that had been sponsored by the Youth Livelihood Fund by the time of this field research are pointed out in table 8.8. The fourth column Table 8.8 presents the name of jobs created in each division. It is noted that Nakawa division and Makindye had the biggest number of jobs created. It was only the Central division which had few jobs created in comparison to other divisions of the Authority.

Table 4. The breakdown of projects to create jobs in KCCA

Division	Parishes	Number of projects	Number of jobs
Central division	Kisenyi I; Bukesa; Kagugube; Kamowkya I; Kamwokya II; Kisenyi II	21	195
Kawempe	Bwaise; Kazo Angola; Kikaaya; Kyebando Kanyanya; Makerere; Mpererwe; Mulago; Muluka; Wandegaya	27	403
Lubaga	Busega; Kasubi; Lubaga; Luby; Lungujja; Kasubi; Mutundwe; Najjanankumbi; Nankulabye; Bakuli; Namirembe; Ndeeba Mutundwe; Natete; Wankulukuku	33	572
Nakawa	Banda; Bukoto; Butabika; Kiswa; Kyanja; Mbuya; Luzira Prisons; Mutungo; Naguru; Upper estate; Ntinda	36	650
Makindye	Bukasa; Buziga; Gaba; Katwe; Kibuye; Lukuli; Luwafu; Makindye	35	611
Total number of projects created		152	1976

The youth creation projects in Kampala district had 152 projects. The government has spent UGX 1,541,209,910. The implication of this was that a group of 13 members needed about UGX 10,139,538 to create an average of 13 jobs or UGX 3,379,846 to one job for one youth on average and holding other factors constant.

However, the urban context presents a different set of challenges. For instance, to achieve the national youth policy (NYP) objectives it necessitated to include prioritization of infrastructural development. This meant that monitoring of youth projects where new jobs were being created was to receive little attention. High mobility of the youth which in several instances caused an impediment to project management. Consequently, job creation was not handled smoothly.

In spite of the various challenges stated above, the youth were certain that the NYP had contributed to job creation.

Majority (54%) of the youth were confident that some jobs had been created. Those who stated no (46%) had argued that proper and secure source of income, it was difficult to firmly say that there were jobs. The further contended that a job was one that enabled the holder to make ends meet. Yet many of those who had received the YLF and opened projects were not in position to meet their basic needs.

When the null hypothesis, "The National Youth Policy had no significant effect on job creation" was tested, it yielded the following results. First, a bivariate test indicated that there was a low positive significant relationship between the national youth policy and job creation [$r(224) = 0.396, p < 0.01$]. This implied that with a national youth policy in place, it was possible to create some jobs for the young people.

Secondly, the hypothesis was subjected to a simple linear regression test. This yielded the following results: the model summary had an R^2 of .140. This meant that the national youth policy explained 14% of the job creation for the youths in Kampala. The results also showed that the relationship between the national youth policy and job creation was linear [$F(1, 224) = 37.182, p < 0.01$]. From this finding it should be noted that a unit change in the national youth policy causes a proportionate change in job creation. Since the coefficients of regression were $\beta = .396, p < 0.01$, it was appropriate to conclude that null hypothesis was rejected and instead the alternate hypothesis "the national Youth Policy has a significant effect on job creation", was supported.

Recommended Sector Based Business Model of Job-creation

Given the fact that with the current national youth policy not many jobs were created, there was need to change strategy from the

microenterprise to a macro based approach using the Sector Based Business Model (SBBM). This was expected to create a much larger number of jobs than the micro-projects were able to. To ascertain this, a prediction of possible number of jobs was done using a logistic regression model.

Number of Jobs to be created

Regression model would incorporate a rate of change based on the historical productivity improvement trends. Regression analysis is used to predict the number of jobs that will be created. The following regression model was built for the purpose:

$$y = A + Bx$$

Why $y = \text{Jobs}$

$x = \text{Projects}$

The above two are variables

Then $A = \text{minimum requirement}$

$B = \text{regression coefficient}$

The above two are constants

So, $y = A + Bx$

$$A = \bar{y} - B\bar{x}$$

$$B = \frac{\sum xy - N(\bar{x})(\bar{y})}{\sum x^2 - N(\bar{x})^2}$$

SI	Micro-projects (x)	Jobs (y)	xy	x ²
1	21	195	4,095	441
2	27	403	10,881	729
3	33	572	18,876	1089
4	36	650	23,400	1296
5	35	611	21,385	1225
N=2	Σx=152	Σy=1976	Σxy=78,637	Σx ² =4,780

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{N}$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{152}{5}$$

$$\bar{x} = 30$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{N}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1976}{5}$$

$$\bar{y} = 395$$

$$B = \frac{\sum xy - N(\bar{x})(\bar{y})}{\sum x^2 - N(\bar{x})^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
B &= \frac{78637 - 5(30)(395)}{4780 - 5(30)^2} \\
B &= \frac{78637 - 5(11850)}{4780 - 5(900)} \\
B &= \frac{78637 - 59250}{4780 - 4500} \\
B &= \frac{19387}{280} \\
B &= 69 \\
A &= \bar{y} - B\bar{x} \\
A &= 395 - 69(30) \\
A &= -1675
\end{aligned}$$

Past levels of various projects are examined for statistical relationships with staffing levels. Forecasted levels of the retained indicator(s) are entered into the resulting model and used to calculate the associated level of job creation. The total number of jobs created using the micro-project model was 1976. The number of desired jobs under the SBBM was an increase of 5% more if the model was adopted. When these figures were subjected to regression, they produced the resulted below:

$$\begin{aligned}
y &= A + Bx \\
y &= -1675 + 69(99) \\
y &= -1675 + 6831 \\
y &= 5156
\end{aligned}$$

This implies that if the existing 1,976 jobs are subtracted from the total number of 5,156, it would mean that SBBM has the ability to deliver 3,180 additional jobs with the same capital of UGX 2,190,309,910 during the same period of five years. Assuming the SBBM is labour intensive and not machine intensive.

In view of the findings and the conclusion, it is true to argue that study achieved it objective.

In conclusion it is worth noting that public policy is necessary if jobs are be created especially for the youths. So the need for a robust national youth policy is critical to the achievement of employment goals.

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Examining the Integration of ICT in Teaching and Learning among Educators in Public Teacher Training Colleges in Tanzania using the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A Concept Paper

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Abstract. *The integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) brings about a powerful learning environment in which students deal with knowledge in active, self-directed and constructive ways. Thus all avenues to foster IITL have to be explored. One such avenue is to isolate the factors underpinning IITL. Hence, in this concept paper, it is proposed that a teacher educator's IITL can be explained using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). This paper highlights the background; the problem; the objectives and significance; related literature and the hypotheses to be tested and finally the proposed methodology to be used in the study.*

Keywords: ICT; Pedagogy; Tanzania; Teacher Training; Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Background

Historical Perspective

Studies (e.g. Andersson, Nfuka, Sumra, Uimonen & Pain, 2014; Kafyulilo, Fisser, Pieters & Voogt, 2015; Kihoza, Zlotnikova, Bada & Kalegele, 2016a, b; Mtebe, Dachi & Raphael, 2011; Mtebe & Raphael, 2013; Mwalongo, 2011; Ndibalema, 2014; Sife, Lwoga & Sanga, 2007) have been done in relation to the integration of ICTs in teaching and learning (IITL) in the context of Tanzania. However, as their details in the Related Literature section (first subsection) show, apart from only two of the cited studies (Kafyulilo et al., 2015; Kihoza et al., 2016b), other studies were short on theorization and hence frameworks on which their findings were based. Yet Ellis and Levy (2008) opine that the findings of any study without a firm theoretical/ conceptual foundation/ framework, are more of random luck than scholarly work and hence make little or no contribution to the pertinent body of knowledge (BoK). In order to narrow the above theoretical/ conceptual gap, the study proposed in this paper will examine whether the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) can serve as a framework to explain the

integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) among the educators in public teacher training colleges in Tanzania.

Theoretical Perspective

The proposed study will be underpinned by the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The TPB model proposed by Ajzen (1991) as shown in Figure 1, has actual behaviour (AB) as the main variable. Ajzen defined AB as an individual's observable response in a given situation with respect to a given target. According to Figure 1, TPB theorizes that AB is predicted by both behavioural intention (BI) and perceived behavioural control (PBC). Ajzen defined BI as an indication of person's readiness to perform a given behaviour and PBC as the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour and is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles.

As per Figure 1, BI is in turn, determined by attitude toward behaviour (ATB), subjective norm (SN) and PBC. Ajzen (1991) defined ATB as the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question (e.g., using technology), and SN as the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour. Ajzen observes that "the more favourable the attitude and subjective norm with respect to a behaviour, and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger should be an individual's intention to perform the behaviour under consideration" (p. 181). The TPB (Figure 1) theorizes that ATB is influenced by behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations (bboe). Ajzen (1991) defined behavioural beliefs (bb) as an individual's subjective probability that performing the target behaviour will result in consequences, and outcome evaluation (oe) as rating of the desirability of the outcome.

As per Figure 1, SN is influenced by normative beliefs and motivation to comply (nbmc). Ajzen defined normative beliefs (nb) as the likelihood that important individuals or group approve or disapprove of performing a given behaviour, and motivation to comply (mc) as the extent to which the person wants to comply with the wishes of the referent others. According to Figure 1, the TPB model posits that PBC is determined by control beliefs and perceived facilitation (cbpf). Ajzen defined control beliefs (cb) as perception of the availability of skills, resources, and opportunities, and perceived facilitation (pf) as the individual's assessment of the importance of those resources to the achievement of outcomes.

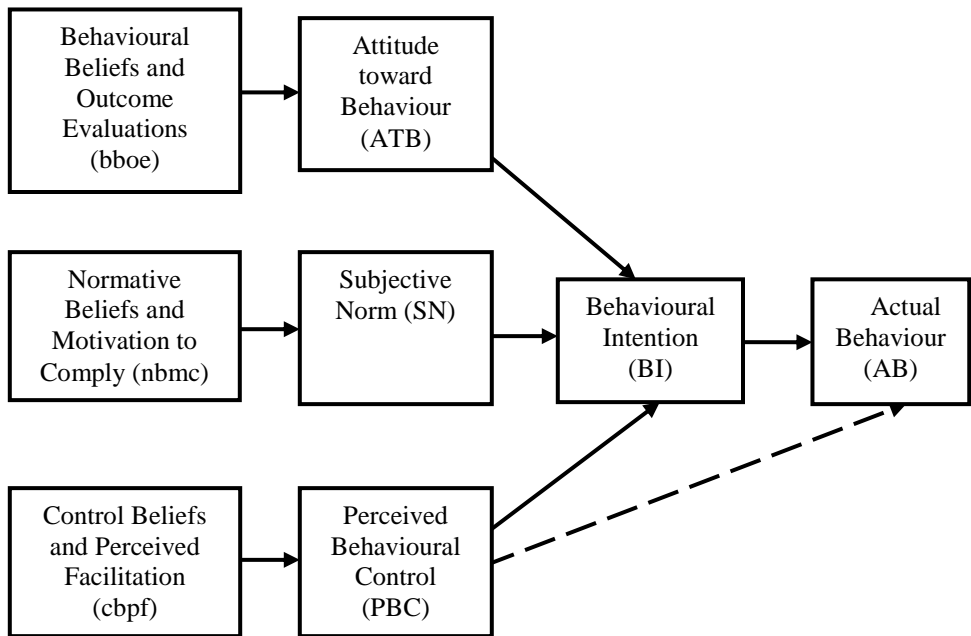


Figure 1: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

Source: Ajzen (1991)

Conceptual Perspective

Basing on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (reviewed in section 1.2), Figure 2 provides theoretical framework explaining the main construct, the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL). The explanatory constructs are the intention to integrate ICT (II) in teaching and learning (II) and its determinants namely; the attitude toward the integration (ATI), subjective norm on the integration (SNI) and the perceived behavioural control over the integration (PBCI). Each of these determinants of II is influenced by its respective underlying beliefs, namely, behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation on the integration (bboei), normative beliefs and motivation to comply on the integration (nbmci) and control beliefs and perceived facilitation on the integration (cbpfi).

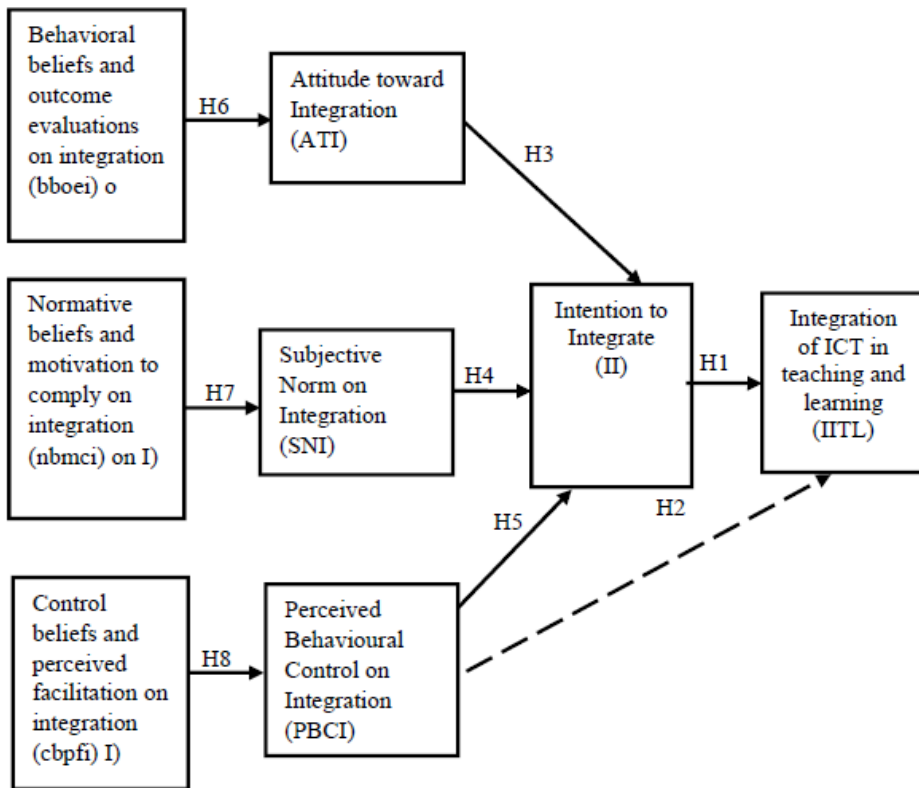


Figure 2: Theoretical framework relating IITL and the explanatory constructs of the TPB model

Source: Adapted from Figure 1

Statement of the Problem

Singh and Chan (2014) assert that integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) brings about a powerful learning environment in which students deal with knowledge in active, self-directed and constructive ways. Despite its importance, IITL has been reported to be low among educators in public teacher training colleges (TTCs) in Tanzania (e.g. Andersson et al., 2014; Kafyulilo et al., 2015; Kihoza et al., 2016a, b; Mtebe & Raphael, 2013; Ndibalema, 2014). For example, Andersson et al. (2014) in their “evaluation of the ICT in Teachers’ College Project implemented from 2005 to 2008 in Tanzania” (p. 6), revealed that the objective of integrating ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) had only partially been achieved.

If such low IITL among teacher educators continues, it will impact on the learning environment by restraining students from dealing with knowledge in active, self-directed and constructive ways (Singh &

Chan, 2014). This will adversely affect the quality of education offered to students in these public TTCs. To address the problem of low IITL among educators in public TTCs, it is thus necessary to isolate the factors which underpin the problem. Basing on the Theory of Planned Behaviour, TPB (Figure 1), it is proposed in this study that a teacher educator's integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) can be explained using the TPB model (Figure 2).

Objectives and Significance

The main objective of this study is to use the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to explain a teacher educator's integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL). The specific objectives of the study are (i) to establish whether the intention to integrate ICT (II) predicts IITL; (ii) to establish whether the perceived behaviour control on the integration (PBCI) predicts IITL. In turn, the study will seek (iii) to establish whether the attitude toward the integration of ICT (ATI) predicts II; (iv) to establish whether the subjective norm on integration of ICT (SNI) predicts II; (v) to establish whether PBCI predicts II. Finally, the study seeks (vi) to establish whether the behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation on integration (bboei) predict ATI; (vii) to establish whether the normative beliefs and motivation to comply on integration (nbmci) predict SNI; and (viii) to establish whether the control beliefs and perceived facilitation on integration (cbpfi) predict PBCI.

The study will help the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST), the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) and the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) in formulating relevant ICT policies and ensuring their implementation for effective utilization of the available ICT resources in public TTCs. The study findings will also be used by college principals, academic deans and heads of department to improve on the determinants of teacher educators' IITL. Finally, this study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by providing researchers and academicians with new insights of looking at IITL using social psychology theories such as TPB.

Related Literature

Studies on the Integration of ICT in Teaching and Learning in Tanzania

Studies have dealt with the issue of integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) in Tanzania. For example, Andersson et al. (2014) carried

out “an evaluation of the ICT in Teachers’ College Project implemented from 2005 to 2008 by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) in Tanzania with funding... from the Government of Sweden” (p. 6). Their overall objective was to find out what actually had been achieved, what lessons had been learnt during the program implementation. They hence found that five out of the six project objectives had been achieved at the end of the project. The objective on basic ICT training had not been fully achieved since the project had not managed to train all tutors. Also, the objective of integrating ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) had only partially been achieved.

Kafyulilo et al. (2015) used the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework to describe the knowledge and skills that pre-service teachers of science and mathematics needed to develop in order to effectively integrate ICT in teaching and learning (IITL). TPACK (Koehler & Mishra, 2009) stipulates that in order for a teacher to effectively engage in IITL, the teacher needs knowledge (K), summarized as TPACK. TPACK comprises of seven components, three of which, namely content knowledge (CK), pedagogical knowledge (PK) and technological knowledge (TK) are core. The interaction between these three, results in pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK), technological content knowledge (TCK), and technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK). Kafyulilo et al.'s study involved 22 pre-service teachers in the Bachelor of Education in Science from Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE). They used three instruments for data collection, namely a “TPACK survey, an observation checklist and a reflection questionnaire” (p. 385). They analysed their data by computing “means and standard deviations... computed... from the TPACK survey and the reflection survey” (p. 387) whence they “used the Wilcoxon signed ranks test... to test the statistical difference between pre and post intervention technology use in teaching” (p. 387). Hence they found “significant changes in technology-related components of TPACK” (p. 381).

Kihoza et al. (2016a) “examined the impact of increased education level on the ICT use competence perception and the influence of ICT knowledge level and skills on the adoption of blended learning contexts.” (p. 60). Using a mixed methods paradigm, they collected data from teachers, school inspectors, curriculum development experts and teacher trainees using questionnaires and observations. Their results suggested that a teacher's education level did not determine their level of ICT knowledge. They revealed that the barriers to the use of ICT in education were both internal and external. The internal barriers, they

reported, were "more of personal attitudes and perceptions about a technology" (p. 60). The external barriers according to their findings, were "lack of availability and accessibility to the relevant resources (hardware and software), [and] lack of framework[s] that address integration of ICTs in teaching and learning and unreliable internet connection" (p. 60).

Kihoza et al. (2016b) "assessed classroom ICTs integration opportunities and the challenges in relation to... TPACK and SAMR... models" (p. 107). The TPACK framework has been introduced under Kafyulilo et al. (2015). The Substitution, Augmentation, Modification and Redefinition (SAMR) model of ICT was proposed by Puentedura (2010). According to him, at the level of substitution (S), ICT acts as a substitute for say a manual activity or another technology but with no functional change to the latter. According to Kihoza et al. (2016b), the classroom application of substitution ICTs (S) is when for example, "instead of coming with a poster into a classroom, [one] could display information using PowerPoint and a projector" (p. 111). At the level of augmentation (A), ICT acts as a substitute for another technology but with functional improvement. Kihoza et al. (2016b) assert that classroom application of argumentation ICTs "focuses on dictionaries, study guides, [and] history sites linked to online text" (p. 111). At the modification (M) level, ICT allows for activities to be redesigned. In Kihoza et al.'s (2016b) view, classroom application of modification "focuses on textual, visual, and audio tools for construction of shared knowledge" (p. 111). Lastly, at the redefinition (R) level, ICT allows the user to create new tasks of learning that were previously inconceivable without technology. Kihoza et al. (2016b) contend that classroom application of redefinition, "focuses on visualization of narrative and structural aspects of text (p. 111). Kihoza et al.'s (2016b) case study involved 206 respondents (tutors and teacher trainees) from two teacher training colleges in Tanzania, from whom they collected data using a questionnaire, observation and interviewing. Using descriptive statistics (percentages) for analysis, they found that the "majority of respondents ha[d] low pedagogical ICT competences" (p. 107). And, while the tutors exhibited good levels of knowledge on all the constructs of TPACK and SAMR that they had assessed, teacher trainees revealed poor skills and inefficient support on the use of basic ICTs. They challenged "the Government [of Tanzania] to work on a harmonized ICT in education integration framework" (p. 107).

Mtebe et al. (2011) wrote a position paper titled, "integrating ICT into teaching and learning at the University of Dar es Salaam [UDSM]" (p. 289). Focusing on how UDSM had used "technology to improve the

efficiency and effectiveness of educational processes and outcomes" (p. 289), they highlighted one key lesson learned. The lesson was that, "innovations in the sphere of teaching and learning need[ed] to take cognizance of, and address, factors in the broader national and institutional contexts, as well as those relating to the readiness of individual staff to accept change" (p. 289).

Mtebe and Raphael (2013) aimed to report on the experiences of, and the challenges faced by, the students of the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) while the University implemented blended learning programs. Using documentary reviews and responses from 22 students who reacted to a questionnaire, they generated the pertinent data. Hence they revealed that outdated learning resources, unavailability of instructors, under-utilization of learning centres, and technical difficulties were among the challenges related to blend learning in UDSM.

Mwalongo (2011) examined the perceptions of teachers about the use of ICT in teaching, administration, professional development and for personal applications. They collected their data from 74 teachers who had enrolled for a pedagogical course at a university in Tanzania, purposively selected. Mwalongo used "an online survey [*Survey Monkey*] and postings generated from the researcher's blog" (p. 36). From the analysis of the qualitative data, Mwalongo found that, "while the frequency of use of ICT was influenced by access, the competence of ICT use was influenced by training; teachers used ICT in a wide range of teaching, administration, professional development and personal use" (p. 36).

Ndibalema (2014) studied the attitude of teachers in secondary schools in Tanzania "towards the use of ICT as a pedagogical tool" (p. 1). He collected data from 80 teachers who reacted to a questionnaire, in addition to interviewing a few of the teachers. He hence found that although the teachers had positive attitudes towards the use of ICT as a pedagogical tool, they had not effectively integrated it in their teaching.

Sife et al. (2007) discussed "the application of ICTs in teaching and learning by reviewing the e-learning context" (p. 57), and then focused "on the pedagogical, cost and technical implications of different ICTs that... [could] be used for e-learning purposes" (p. 57). They discussed "challenges for integrating these technologies in higher institutions in developing countries..., giving best practice approaches for addressing each of the challenges" (p. 57).

However, apart from only two of the studies reviewed (Kafyulilo et al., 2015; Kihoza et al., 2016b), other studies were short on theorization and hence frameworks on which their findings were based. Yet Ellis and Levy (2008) opine that the findings of any study without a firm

theoretical/ conceptual foundation/ framework, are more of random luck than scholarly work and hence make little or no contribution to the pertinent body of knowledge (BoK). They contend that for a given study to make a contribution to the BoK, there must be

a solid conceptual foundation for the research... Although many discoveries are... serendipitous, research is intentional, built upon a theoretical basis.... Research- worthiness entails that there is a real, identifiable conceptual connection between the research problem driving the study and the research being conducted to address the problem.... Without that conceptual connection, one would be left with the impression that any new insights resulting from the study were more the result of random luck than scholarly work (Ellis & Levy, 2008, p. 24).

Almost similar sentences can be found in Lester (2005) and Shulman (1986). In order to narrow the above theoretical/ conceptual gap, the study proposed in this paper will examine whether the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) can serve as a framework to explain the integration of ICT in teaching and teaching (IITL) among the educators in public teacher training colleges in Tanzania.

Studies on the TPB Model

Several researchers have recently used the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to explain the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL). For example, Apeanti (2014) explored the perceptions of prospective Mathematics teachers on integrating ICT into instruction; and how this perception related to the teachers' willingness to integrate the ICT. He used TPB with another theory to investigate the perceptions of the usefulness of ICT in instruction. In particular, in his questionnaire, he measured the perceptions of the usefulness of ICT using the concept of social norm (SN) in TPB; and the readiness to use ICT using behavioural intention (BI) in TPB. He hence collected data from 126 third year undergraduates in the Department of Mathematics Education in the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) in Ghana. Using percentages as a means of analysis, Apeanti found that overall, the participants had "a positive perception about the effectiveness of ICT integration in Mathematics instruction" (p. 180). He similarly found that, "few... participants perceived that they... [were] highly prepared for ICT integration, while [the] majority... of them indicated that they were moderately prepared for ICT integration" (p. 181). Using Pearson's linear correlation (PLC) and linear regression, he found that, "prospective teachers with positive perception about the effectiveness of

ICT integration will [or would?] be more willing to use ICT in their future instruction than those with negative perception" (p. 182). In other words, Apeanti supported our fourth hypothesis (H4) as per Figure 2. However, Apeanti's study left a huge gap to the effect that of the eight hypotheses in our study (see Figure 2), he only tested the fourth (H4).

Chen (2013) explored the extent to which TPB and two other theories could explain the usage behaviour (UB) of web 2.0 ICTs. With respect to TPB Chen hypothesized that, behavioural intentions (BI) had a positive influence on usage behaviour (UB). Further Chen hypothesized that each of attitude toward behaviour (ATB), subjective norm (SN) and perceived behavioural control (PBC) could bring stronger behavioural intentions (BI). Hence using data collected from a sample of 638 respondents who reacted to a questionnaire "posted on the MY3Q website and various forms" (p. 2979) over a three-month period, Chen used structural equation modelling (SEM) to show that, "for the part of TPB..., attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control of users, actually affect[ed] behavioural intentions. In other words, Chen supported our third, fourth and fifth hypotheses (H3-H5). Also in their study, behavioural intentions affect[ed]... usage behaviours" (p. 2981), meaning that Chen supported our first hypothesis (H1). One gap that Chen's study left however, was that while he tested some of the hypotheses in our study (see Figure 2), namely H1, H3-H5, he ignored others (H2, H6-H8).

Zamani-Miandashti, Memarbashi and Khalighzadeh (2013) used the TPB "to predict the internet utilization behaviour [IUB] among.... university students in Iran" (p. 114). Basing on TPB, they hypothesised, among others, that the intention to use the Internet (IUI) had a positive influence on IUB (our H1); that perceived behavioural control (PBC) had a positive influence on IUB (our H2); and that each of attitude toward the Internet (ATI), social norm (SN) and PBC had a positive influence on IUI (our H3, H4 & H5 respectively). They hence developed a survey questionnaire with among other variables, the following constructs of TPB, all measured using the five-point Likert scale: IUB (13 items, $\alpha = 0.88$); IUI (five items, $\alpha = 0.79$); ATI (eight items, $\alpha = 0.61$); SN (five items, $\alpha = 0.66$); and PBC (six items, $\alpha = 0.70$). They reported that, all "the items of the questionnaire were developed through... literature review, previous studies..., and interviews with two professors who were experts and had great interest in... internet use" (p. 118). They hence collected data from a sample of 214 undergraduate students in the Faculty of Agriculture at a university in Iran, and analysed them using regression for testing their hypotheses. Hence, while they supported our H1, H4 and H5, they did not do the same to our H2 and H3. However,

Zamani-Miandashti et al. left a gap to the effect that of the eight hypotheses of relevance in our proposed study (see Figure 2), they ignored the last three (H6-H8).

Meta-analytic Reviews on the TPB Model

Scholars have conducted meta-analytic reviews on the TPB model. For example, Riebl et al. (2015) determined how the TPB had been applied to explain dietary behaviours and to evaluate which constructs were associated with dietary behavioural intentions (BI) and actual behaviours (AB) in youth. Using electronic databases and contacts with experts in the field, they identified 34 articles for the meta-analysis. They only included studies that had participants aged 2-18 years with all TPB constructs discernible and measured, published in English peer reviewed journals and focused on nutrition related behaviours in youth. Using what they termed "a two-stage meta-analysis" (p. 160), Riebl et al. found out that attitude toward behaviour (ATB) had had strong relationship with dietary behavioural intention (BI) while the most common predictor of actual behaviour (AB) performance had been BI. Their study also pointed to a gap to the effect that of the 34 studies they reviewed 13 had been done on the UK, 11 on the US, three on Africa, two each on Australia, New Zealand, Iran and Canada and one on Hong Kong. Such a gap makes it necessary for the proposed study to use the TPB model in studying educational technology and measure the actual behaviour (for this case the IITL) in the context of public TTCs in Tanzania.

Hypotheses

The proposed study therefore comes in to narrow the contextual, conceptual and theoretical gaps by using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to explain the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) among teacher educators in public TTCs in Tanzania. As Figure 2 suggests the other constructs in the theoretical framework are the intention to integrate ICT (II), the attitude toward the integration (ATI), the subjective norm on the integration (SNI) and the perceived behavioural control on the integration (PBCI). Others are the respective underlying beliefs, namely, the behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation on the integration (bboei), the normative beliefs and motivation to comply on the integration (nbmci) and the control beliefs and perceived facilitation on the integration (cbpfi). Hence the following hypotheses have been generated to guide the study:

- H1: II positively predicts IITL
- H2: PBCI positively predicts IITL
- H3: ATI positively predicts II
- H4: SNI positively predicts II
- H5: PBCI positively predicts II
- H6: bboe positively predicts ATI
- H7: nmmci positively predicts SNI
- H8: cbpfi positively predicts PBCI

Methodology

Paradigm and Design

The proposed study will adapt the positivist paradigm in that ontologically it will take reality as objective and independent of the researcher and epistemologically the researcher will remain distant and independent of what is being researched in the process of acquiring knowledge (Bakkabulindi, 2015). In particular, the study will be a survey based on correlational and cross-sectional design. The study will be a survey in that it will involve a large number of respondents to enable generalisation of findings. Bakkabulindi (2015) observes that “positivist researchers deal with relatively large samples... [as] these... are more likely to be representative of their parent populations” (p. 27). The correlational design will help in establishing the relationships between the respective constructs in the theoretical framework (Figure 2). The cross-sectional design will facilitate the collection of data at once in a short period of time thus minimizing costs.

Data Collection Instrument

Data will be collected from a large sample of teacher educators in public TTCs in Tanzania. The instrument for data collection will be a self-administered questionnaire (SAQ) developed basing on the existing instruments already used by other researchers (Table 1). According to Bakkabulindi (2015) positivist research being ontologically objective, assumes the existence of only one reality and hence relies on one category of respondents and one method of data collection usually the survey method involving one instrument, which is often the self-administered questionnaire (SAQ). The adaptation of these earlier instruments is based on the fact that their reliabilities and validities can be taken for granted. As Bakkabulindi (2015) argued “while the

[positivist] researcher can design the instruments from scratch, it is usually advisable to look for and adapt ready-made instruments whose psychometric properties (validity and reliability) can be cited” (p. 31).

As Table 1 depicts, the main variable, the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) will be measured by the integration of substitution (S), augmentation (A), modification (M), and redefinition(R) ICTs as per the SAMR model of integrating ICT in teaching and learning (Lubega et al., 2014 citing Puentedura, 2010). Each of these constructs has a number of items adapted from an earlier instrument. The explanatory constructs as per Table 1 are the intention to integrate ICT (II), the attitude toward integration (ATI), the subjective norm toward the integration (SNI) and the perceived behaviour control toward the integration (PBCI). As per Table 1, there are also the behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation on the integration (bboei), the normative beliefs and motivation to comply on the integration (nbmci) and the control beliefs and perceived facilitation on the integration (cbpfi). Each of them has a number of items adapted from earlier instruments.

Table 1: Variables in the Instrument

Variable	Constru ct	Number of items adapted	Source of instrument, number of items and their reliability (α value)
Integration of ICT in teaching and learning (main variable)	S	10	Lubega et al. (2014), 13 items*
	A	09	Lubega et al. (2014), 16 items*
	M	03	Lubega et al. (2014), 10 items*
	R	05	Lubega et al. (2014), 06 items*
Explanatory variables	II	02	Taylor & Todd (1995), 03 items ($\alpha = 0.91$)
		01	Not applicable
	ATI	04	Taylor & Todd (1995), 04 items ($\alpha = 0.85$)
	SNI	02	Teo & Lee (2010), 02 items ($\alpha = 0.91$)
	PBCI	03	Fusilier & Durlabhji (2005), 03 items ($\alpha = 0.80$)
	Bboei	05	Apeanti (2014), 15 items*
		01	Not applicable
	Nbmci	04	Taylor & Todd (1995), 08 items ($\alpha = 0.92$)
		02	Not applicable
	Cbpfi	04	Taylor & Todd (1995), 18 items ($\alpha = 0.78$)
		01	Thompson, Higgins & Howell (1991), 04 items ($\alpha = 0.86$)
		01	Lumpe & Chambers (2001), 13 items*

* No reliability (α value) reported

Data Management

Bakkabulindi (2015) asserts that positivist data management calls for statistical procedures for researchers to make meaning of the data gathered. Therefore, in the proposed study, data management will be statistical starting with data processing and ending with analysis. Data processing will involve coding the data and entering them into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), summarising them using frequency tables and editing them to remove errors. Whereas the reliabilities of the constructs are already given by previous studies (Table 1), and their validities implied (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), after the collection of data, the reliabilities of the constructs will be retested using Cronbach Alpha method provided by SPSS. Similarly, the validities of the multi-items constructs will be tested using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). This retesting will be done since as Tavakol and Dennick observe, differences in samples call for retesting of instruments.

The data analysis will be done at different levels, namely univariate, bivariate and multivariate. The data analysis at univariate level will be based on descriptive statistics such as percentages. At the bivariate level, all the study hypotheses (H1-H8) will be tested using Pearson linear correlation. At the multivariate level, five regression models will be run. One multiple linear regression will be used to test the first two hypotheses (H1 & H2). Another multiple linear regression will be used to test the next three hypotheses (H3 through H5). Lastly a simple linear regression will be used to test each of the remaining three hypotheses (H6 through H8).

Conclusion

Since the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) brings about powerful learning environments, all avenues to foster IITL have to be explored. One such avenue is to isolate the factors underpinning IITL. In this concept paper, it has been proposed that a teacher educator's IITL can be explained using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). This paper has proposed a way of testing the above thesis. The study will help stakeholders (e.g. the Ministry of Education Science and Technology, MoEST, Tanzania) in formulating relevant ICT policies and ensuring their implementation for effective utilization of the available ICT resources in public TTCs. The study will also contribute to the existing body of knowledge by providing researchers and academicians

with new insights of looking at IITL using social psychology theories such as TPB.

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Provision of Universal Primary Education in Tanzania: Selected Quality Issues in Kagera Region

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Abstract. *This study investigated the performance of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme in Kagera region between 1998 and 2008. It involved 160 participants who responded to a closed questionnaire. Items in interviews also scrutinised the extent to which the programme has achieved its objective of providing quality education. It was concluded that provision of quality primary education in Kagera is facing challenges of: low numbers of trained teachers; deficiency of pedagogical skills; and modest supply of teaching/ learning resources. Recommendations include: deployment of well trained teachers to ensure optimal provision of quality education; Ministry of Education and Vocational Training should emphasise frequent use of in-service training programmes to complement pre-service training; teachers in schools should be encouraged to prepare instructional materials to mitigate book shortage; and education budget should be increased to meet the constrained desire for learning resources in schools.*

Keywords: Education; Quality Assurance; Tanzania

Introduction

Concept of Quality

The World Bank Report (2006) highlights that Quality education can be analysed by describing the interaction and interdependency of aims and objectives, content, learning activities, teacher's role, materials and resources, location, time and assessment. Smith (1987) suggests that the quality of education given by the school can be determined by examining physical and non-physical facilities which promote successful learning. Petty (1999) goes ahead to argue that besides other things, quality education should be linked with teachers' qualifications, records on pupil achievement, availability of teaching/ learning materials, the class size, teacher-student ratios, and location of the school. However, for the past three decades, a range of factors in the developing world have been reported to constrain the quality of education provided in educational institutions, particularly primary schools (Nyaso, 1998; Ssemkomwa, 1997; Clarke, 2001; Onzele, 1992; Mwasalanda, 1995 and Galabawa, 1999).

In Uganda a study to investigate the effectiveness of methods used to teach in primary schools was conducted and scaring issues emerged:

teachers were overloaded with work and were using teacher-centred methods due to scanty textbooks in the schools. Among the recommendations he advanced were that Government ought to invest substantially in teacher training programmes, provide enough teaching/learning materials and devise ways of promoting viable teaching methods (Ssemkomwa,1997). Similar and other issues had also been acknowledged in Kenya and Tanzania on factors affecting the teaching of subjects in primary schools – issues of shortage of relevant textbooks, limited number and low motivation of teachers were identified (Onzele, 1992; Mwalyasanda, 1995; Galabawa, 1999). All these studies in East Africa were conducted before the entrenchment of the policy framework of Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in Tanzania to enhance UPE quality provision through improved structural and systemic functionality (BEST, 2010). Quality in this study was underpinned by: professional training of teachers, adequacy of teachers, teachers’ pedagogical skills and availability of teaching/learning materials -derived from selected goals and objectives of PEDP.

Theoretical Support

The study was underpinned by the Open Systems Theory of Bertalanffy, in Handy, (1993). The Open Systems Theory perceives an entity, such as UPE, as a success story once all elements constituting it (in the internal and external environments) operate and cooperate optimally. It therefore takes into account the relationship between all sub-systems in the internal and external environments as crucial determinants of an effective system. In the context of UPE, the ministry of education and government (external environmental elements), education administrators and managers, planners, teachers, as well as parents and students (internal environmental elements) ought to play their nascent roles effectively, to help the achievement of the national goal of provision of quality education.

Trend of Universal Primary Education

According to Anders (2003), the Dakar Educational Forum also reiterated and reaffirmed the essentiality of two main educational objectives of the Jomtien Declaration:

Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girl children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, should

have access to and complete quality of free and compulsory primary education.

Secondly, improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence for all so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

However, it seems more difficult to determine how to achieve and sustain this ambition. The call for quality UPE/EFA provision (at local and global level) and in the development of education, constitute a great challenge for education policymakers, planners and administrators (Massawe and Kipingu, 2000).

UPE in Tanzania

Tanzania has for many years been committed to offer effective management and provision of UPE (URT, 1979 and 1995). Accordingly, the first explicit expression of this commitment came in 1969 with the setting of a target to achieve UPE by 1986. The 'Education and Training Policy of Tanzania' states the major objectives as:

1. To enable students develop an enquiring mind and ability.
2. To think and solve problems independently.
3. To attain social value, attitudes and knowledge necessary for them.
4. To play a dynamic and constructive role in the development of their society.
5. To gain education that is complete in itself with commitment to the community.

According to URT (1995 and 1997), the struggle for the achievement of UPE in Tanzania is a journey involving three phases:

The first phase was the period from 1967 to 1980s - described as the era of Education for Self Reliance (ESR), based on *Ujamaa* or African Socialism which was the national philosophy then; The 'Arusha Declaration, on Socialism and Self-Reliance' gives all necessary directions on how to provide and attain UPE. The Government embarked on an enormous national campaign for universal access to primary education for all children of school-going age. For this matter, the process of UPE in Tanzania was contemplated and implemented with the full cost borne by the Government. Efforts to undertake UPE were systematically planned and centrally directed. This connoted putting in place medium-term and long-term development plans; resulting into significant access to primary school education across the country (URT, 1995 and 1997).

The second phase, spanning between the late 1980s and early 1990s, was characterised by the entrenchment of liberal reforms advocating for free choice and market-oriented schooling. On the surface these appeared to be necessary precepts and recovery domains with cost efficiency mechanisms but as time went on, inherent implications translated into the loosening of government control over the UPE agenda. Though the expansion of UPE and other social services was a national priority, the economy could not sustain the provision at this time. In the first phase Government had emphasised self-reliance and expansion though with inadequate measures for sustainability. This, in part, meant that the education sector lacked quality teachers as well as teaching/learning materials and infrastructure to address the abrupt expansion of UPE (Massawe, *et al*, 2000).

When Government underwent economic reforms through Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) this became another blow to UPE in Tanzania. With SAPs, the Government decreased support towards provision of social services, including education. Consequently, cost-sharing policies came into force, as timely interventions. Conversely, SAPs led to a situation where peasant families received less or no subsidies. Regrettably also at this time, a large number of workers lost their means of livelihood through retrenchment from public and civil services (Boma, 1998; Galabawa, 2003). These macro-demographic trends and economic dynamics have continued to exert pressure on UPE - lowering the enrolment rates to 71 percent in 1981 and to 47 percent in 1992, according to *Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania* (BEST, 1985 and 1995).

The third phase spans the period of 1999 to date. In this period, the Government strives to address poverty by generating capacity for provision and consumption of better social services especially education. As part of the underlying underpinnings of the third phase the Government articulated the Development Vision of 2025; a long-term socio - economic development philosophy articulating a desirable future condition for all Tanzanians. *The Vision* states that the Tanzania of 2025 will have five major attributes including:

1. High quality livelihood
2. Peace, stability and unity
3. Good governance
4. A well-educated and learning society
5. A competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits.

By being a well-educated and learning society (Attribute 4), *The Vision* projects that Tanzania will be a nation whose people are well educated with a developmental mind-set and competitive spirit. These attributes are critical for the nation in effective mobilisation of domestic resources, assuring the provision of people's basic needs and in attainment of competitiveness in the regional and global economy. Thus, by this very fact, Tanzania has been under pressure to revitalise the drive towards UPE and to joining many global commitments made in recent years.

However, one question that appears to remain unanswered is: How is UPE being provided in the country? Galabawa (2003) argues that it is not the mere initial enthusiasm to expansion of primary school education and achieving quantity in the short run that matters but Government is obliged to consider the long-run implications of UPE efforts as related to cost-effectiveness of investments as well as the commitment to achieve institutional competence and developmental mind-set. Given the limited resources and weak institutional capacity, difficult decisions have to be made regarding trade-offs between investments that promote school quality. The achievement of UPE begs for appropriate and strategic investment to allow for a feasible joint pursuit of access and quality in a holistic manner.

Owing to the predicaments experienced in the previous years, especially in the second phase, Government introduced the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) of 2002-2007. PEDP was expected to pursue both qualitative and quantitative improvements via four strategic priorities:

1. Enrolment expansion
2. Quality improvement
3. Capacity building
4. Strengthening institutional arrangements.

Accordingly, Government was expected to maintain its current policy of no fees and other attendant costs for primary schooling, specifically in the government owned schools. A wide range of initiatives were identified and implemented towards supporting a safer, children-friendly and more conducive environment, for efficient and effective delivery of primary education. Conversely, the major challenges towards the UPE drive are reflected in the relationship between access and quality. The two features, access and quality, are linked but there appears to be little agreement among scholars and researchers about how this link operates and even how it can be strengthened. For instance, Carnoy (2000) argues that there is almost no need in

expanding access to education unless this expansion leads to reasonable quality improvement.

PEDP and Private Demand for Universal Primary Education

According to 'Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania' enrolments (private demand as determined by households) into primary schools have been rising annually, for example from the year of 2006, which the researcher considered due to available data (BEST, 2010), there were 7,063,362 school age going children in Tanzania in the age bracket (7 to 13 years) that were expected by national policy to be in school (standards one to seven). During the base year almost all expected children were in school, with only 1914(0.027%) staying out of the primary schooling institutions. Nevertheless the deficit appeared rather insignificant - possibly the figure of 7063362 (Table 1), may have included all kinds of children in the age bracket of (7 - 13), invalids, inclusive. More information on enrolments in the other respective years is summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Primary School Age Populations and Enrolments (2006 to 2010)

Year	A: School Age (7-13 years)	B: Enrolment of Standards 1-7	C = (A – B)	(B/A)%	(C /A)%
2006	7063362	7061448	1914	99.973%	0.027%
2007	7271198	7075899	195299	97.314%	2.686%
2008	7490693	7284331	206362	97.245%	2.755%
2009	7637813	7324848	312965	95.902%	4.098%
2010	7911584	7647806	263778	96.666%	3.334%

Source: Culled from Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST, 2010).

Table 1 shows enrolments into primary schools that appear to be falling. In 2006 the difference between expected entrants and actual enrolments was a mere 0.027%, while in 2002 there was a negative deviation of 2.686% and for the rest of the academic years, deviations of 2.755%, 4.098%, and 3.334% were recorded for academic years 2008 up to 2010, respectively. It is not yet acknowledged, however, whether the alleged falling quality in the service delivery could be responsible for this phenomenon. Other researchers will delve in this to provide relevant answers.

UPE Quality during the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP)

UPE Performance during PEDP was highly praised as an imperative that was anticipated to improve UPE quality. In this context quality,

inter alia, implied improving teacher's teaching styles and methods in the classroom; availability of good quality learning and teaching materials; and necessary support for maintaining educational standards, aiming at improving the overall achievement of both female and male students in the primary education, mainly those with UPE. Similarly, other institutional and structural capacity was to be enhanced with effective pre-service teacher training programmes, governance and sufficient management and also, effective financial management, to attract children into the schools that are inherently planned to be free institutions (URT, 2003).

At the moment, although the woes about insufficient quality service delivery continue to be rife among some stakeholders, it is paradoxical because quality in UPE schools has been receiving a great deal of attention in recent years, as educators and other stakeholders in education appear to have recognised the need for improved standards in the wake of the tremendous growth of educational enrolments throughout the country. Nevertheless, advocates of the foregoing opinion appear to diametrically contradicting the position of Govinda, (2001), who empirically found out that, almost universally there is a general consensus that educational quality, whether private or government aided, needs to be improved to remove definitional and contextual complexities, such as wanting professional training of teachers, inadequate teachers, scanty teachers' pedagogical skills (instructional or teaching methods) and inadequate teaching materials.

Despite the complexities involved, it remains very lucid that quality is key to the success of any education system, particularly with reference to long term sustainable development goals in Tanzania. Apparently the most important task facing Tanzania now is how to provide and maintain the desirable quality education. In absence of credible and systematic explanations on anticipated quality provision, according to PEDP dictates, the current research became crucial, thus. Its purpose was to investigate the extent to which quality in UPE Schools has been provided or maintained UPE schools, given the perennial woes over wanting service delivery in these schools. The researcher presumed that if the state of affairs remained unresolved, the cherished national development agenda would only remain a dream beyond the periphery.

Methodology

Using a mixed methods approach (Rorty, 2006; Dash, 2000; Creswell, 2003) - with both quantitative (Cohen, *et al*, 2001; Howe, 2002) and qualitative approaches (Rossman, 2001), the study was conducted in

Kagera Region; situated north-western Tanzania, bordering Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi. It involved five districts: Bukoba, Muleba, Biharamulo, Ngara and Karagwe. From each district 4 rural and 4 urban schools were used. A sample of 205 respondents: 160; 40 head teachers in government primary schools with UPE and 5 District Education Officers, was engaged.

Data Collection Tools, Collection and Analysis

Two questionnaires with similar but differently formatted items for head teachers and teachers - both with open items (to solicit divergent respondent views) and closed items (for targeted responses) were accordingly administered. Education officers were interviewed on similar issues as those in the said questionnaires, to safeguard validity and reliability issues. Descriptive data were tabulated with appropriate percentages, while inferential data (data about the hypotheses) were tested with chi - square test - of - independence ($\chi^2_{\text{obs}} = \sum [(f_o - f_e)^2 \div f_e]$) statistic to prove significance of the respondent claims.

Findings

Training of Teachers and Quality of UPE

On, H₀1: The training given to the teachers in this region is not sufficient to provide expected quality of universal primary education, the researcher asked the respondents to indicate their professional qualifications and whether they have ever accessed any In service training - Tables 3 and 4 summarise the responses.

Table 3: Teachers Professional Qualifications

Qualification	Number	%
Certificate Grade A	50	31
Certificate: Grade B	80	50
Diploma in Education	30	19
Total	160	100

The data presented in Table 3 show that 19 percent of all teachers were Diploma holders and 31 percent were Grade A, teachers. Majority (50%) of the teachers were Grade B. This position is contrary to *The Tanzania Education and Training Policy (1995)* which states that the ‘minimum qualification for a primary school teacher shall be possession of a valid Grade A, Teacher Education Certificate’. Going by this revelation, it was

therefore established that the teachers in UPE schools in Kagera region lack sufficient training and this can deter the national goal to provide the expected quality.

According to PEDP guidelines, a teacher’s qualification is signified as one of the strategic elements required for mind-set transformation and for the creation of a well-educated nation that can address the development challenges. In fact in some districts, such as in Ngara district the situation was worse. Only 8 out of 32 (25%) teachers were Grade A, and nobody had Diploma in education, implying that majority; 24(75%) were Grade B teachers who, by the presumption of PEDP are most expected to get exposed to refresher courses.

Nsubuga (2000); Mosha (2004) reiterate that the qualification of a teacher is one of the significant factors to be considered in improving the quality of education, especially at primary level which is the foundation of the education pipeline. To get further collaborative evidence about the inadequacy of teacher training - a precursor to educational quality in UPE schools in Kagera region, the researcher proceeded to ask the respondents as to whether they have ever accessed any In- service training since they left the formal training colleges. Their responses are depicted in Table 4:

Table 4: Teacher’s Access to In- Service Training Programmes

Teacher qualification	Access to In-service Training		
	Attended	Not attended	Total
Grade A	16(32%)	34(68%)	50(100%)
Grade B	30(38%)	50(62%)	80(100%)
Diploma	06(20%)	24(80%)	30(100%)
Total	52(33%)	108(67%)	160(100%)

Source: URT (2002)

According to ETP (1999), the in- Service Training for practicing teachers was meant to be compulsory ‘in order to ensure teacher quality and professionalism’. Nevertheless, this appears not to be the case in Kagera Region where teachers’ access to in service training programmes is claimed to be rather low (Mean=30%); Table 4.

Overtly the Mean deficiency of 70% (Table 4), may imply inadequacy in anticipated quality service delivery in the schools, other factors being constant. Even with the yardstick of PEDP (URT, 2002), the first goal which was projected to improve teaching and learning environments in all primary schools via enhanced teacher training and access to in-service programmes cannot be optimally realised. This may imply that ill-trained teachers still exist in public Primary Schools despite Government’s efforts to improve provision of quality education.

According to Mosha (2006), lack of In-service training for teachers leads to a retrogressive teaching profession as a life-long process; as academic and pedagogic skills remain constantly wanting. PEDP developed a strategy to provide In-service teacher training programmes geared towards sensitising and developing pedagogical skills among teachers, although all these aspirations appear to have remained psychologically and realistically inept.

A chi-square (X^2_{ob}) statistic to ratify the notion that 'Training given to the teachers in Kagera region is not sufficient to provide expected quality of universal primary education' was done via SPSS programme. It was found out that ($X^2_{ob} = 21.025$, *Asymp. Sig* = 0.561 > $P=0.05$: $df=1$): since $P > \text{Asymp. Sig}$, null hypotheses (H_0) was upheld after rejecting the research hypothesis (H_1). This meant that, when judged from in-service training, the training given to the teachers in Kagera region is not adequate to translate into the expected quality of universal primary education.

Adequacy of Teachers and Quality in UPE Schools

The research question corresponding to hypothesis H_{02} : 'Number of teachers is not adequate to provide the anticipated UPE quality in Kagera Region' was investigated on four levels: the five education officers were asked to give a brief on the demand and supply of qualified teachers in that year 2010; Head teachers were asked give their teacher/pupil ratios; thirdly, head teachers were asked to tell whether the teaching loads were huge or not- expected responses were yes/no.

Lastly, the teachers were asked to say whether the heavy teaching loads had significant effect on performance of the teachers in the teaching / learning situations (Yes/ No responses). On the forth issue chi square statistic was applied to test the claim significance via SPSS on the notion 'Demand and Supply of Qualified Teachers are not conducive to expected quality in UPE schools in Kagera Region'.

Table 5: Demand and Supply of Qualified Teachers in the Year 2010

District	Demand	Available	Deficit	Deficit %
Bukoba	2503	1593	910	36.3
Muleba	2025	1222	803	39.6
Karagwe	1663	1033	630	37.8
Biharamulo	1204	694	510	42.3
Ngara	1049	569	480	45.7
Total	8444	5111	3333	39.4

Source: Kagera Regional Education Office (2010)

Table 5 shows that the total number of teachers that was required in Kagera Region (5 districts) in 2010 was 8444 but only 5111(60.5%) were available for service in the UPE schools. This is an ugly situation since a deficit of 3333(about 40%) is overtly too bad to allow quality service delivery. In all the five districts, except Ngara district which had about 50% deficit, about 40 per cent deficits of qualified teachers were experienced.

Adequacy of Teachers

This finding was collaborated with a questionnaire item to 40 head teachers (Say 'yes or no') to the question 'Do you have enough teachers in your school?' Also on this statement the head teachers overwhelmingly said no; 29 (72.5%) out of 40. Only 11(27.5%) out of 40 said yes. This situation is contrary to what Benya (2001) acknowledges that the best indicator of quality education provision in any education system is detectable in the availability of a quality teaching force with manageable teacher-pupil ratios. Table 6 shows what was found out on these ratios.

Table 6: Teacher- Pupil Ratio in Primary Schools 2005 - 2010

Year	Enrolment		Teachers		TPR
	N	% Rise	N	% Rise	
2005	6793223	4.6	108111	3.3	1:51
2006	7061448	10.6	106921	-1.1	1:56
2007	7075899	15.2	113850	6.5	1:63
2008	7284331	9.9	116340	2.2	1:67
2009	7324848	7.9	122548	5.4	1:68
2010	7647806	8.5	136013	7.1	1:70

Source: Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (2010)

Teacher – Pupil Ratios

Teachers complained about the large Teacher-Pupil Ratios (TPR), in respective schools. In fact according to District records, this was acknowledged (Table 6 summarising the TPR). According to URT (1999), every teacher is expected to teach 45 pupils. However, this has never been realised since 2005 to 2010 (Table 6). In fact according to the statistics in this Table the teacher-pupil ratios have only been rising, even to the ugliest situation of 1: 70 in 2010.

With such numbers class management and child study and guidance remain but puzzling as workloads become too huge to allow adequate pupil assessment and evaluation (Ssemkomwa, 1997). Moreover, 66 per

cent of the teachers who were involved in the study said that workloads were too heavy for them to enable expected effectiveness.

Using SPSS data memory, a chi-square test was done on H_0 : *Heavy teaching load does not lead to poor quality performance among teachers in UPE schools* It was revealed that ($X^2_{ob} = 15.625$, *Asymp. Sig* = 0.731 > $P=0.05$: *df* =1): Since $P > \text{Asymp. Sig}$, H_0 was upheld after rejecting H_1 . When judged from heavy teaching loads, this therefore meant that *the heavy teaching loads negatively affect quality performance among teachers in UPE schools* in Kagera region.

Teachers’ Pedagogical Skills and Quality in UPE Schools

Data on H_{03} : The teachers’ pedagogical skills are not adequate to provide the expected UPE quality in Tanzania was collected and analysed on the following levels:

Teaching Methods Employed by Teachers in Kagera Region

Respondents (teachers) were given 12 common methods used by teachers and they were expected to use the Likert scale (Always, Very often, Sometimes, and Not at all) to judge how each was being used in one’s class during the teaching/learning. Responses are summarised in Table 7.

Table 7: Frequently Used Teaching/ Learning Methods in UPE Schools

Methods	Frequencies							
	Always		Very often		Sometimes		Not at all	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Lecture	100	62.5	18	11.2	30	18.7	12	7.5
Text reading	103	64.3	15	9.3	42	26.2	00	00
Dictation	131	81.8	08	05	16	10.0	05	3.1
Brainstorming	142	88.7	05	3.1	10	6.2	03	1.8
Class exercise	148	92.2	12	7.5	00	00	00	00
Question–Answer	155	96.8	05	3.2	00	00	00	00
Class discussion	10	6.2	06	3.7	09	5.6	135	84.3
Group work	14	8.7	07	4.3	15	9.3	124	77.5
Debates	22	13.7	12	7.5	17	10.6	109	68.1
Role play/Drama	19	11.8	14	8.7	26	16.2	101	63.1
Field work	03	1.8	20	12.5	07	4.3	130	81.2
Field trip	05	3.1	10	6.2	06	3.7	139	86.8

Table 7 shows that the most preferred methods of teaching the UPE teaches use in the respective schools include Question–Answer (96.8%); Class exercises (92.2%); Brain storming (88.7%); Dictation of notes (81.8%); Text reading (64.3%) and Lecturing (62.5%). This revelation

signifies that UPE pupils are mainly taught to remain individualistic because the methods that would encourage cooperation, exploration, creativity and innovativeness, such as class discussion (10%), group work (14%), debating (22%), field work (3%) and field trips (5%) are scantily employed. This is possibly given the larger numbers in the respective classes and the larger workloads resultant from the relatively fewer teachers.

According to Omari (1995); Blendern (2001); and Osaki (2007) there is no single style of teaching that is singularly the most effective. By this very fact, the best teacher is one who combines different methods and varies them according to circumstances. If some situations necessitate discussions or debating and these are denied it implies quality in the school situation is compromised.

A chi-square statistic to verify the statement: ‘The teachers’ pedagogical skills are not adequate to provide the expected UPE quality in Tanzania’ was done using SPSS programme. It was established that ($\chi^2_{ob} = 273.838$, (Asymp. Sig = 0.061) > $P=0.05$: df =2): Since $P > (Asymp. Sig = 0.061)$, H_1 was dropped and instead, H_0 upheld. This connoted that the teachers’ pedagogical skills – methods of teaching, are not adequate to provide the expected UPE quality in Kagera Region.

Availability of Teaching Materials and Quality in UPE Schools

On the fourth null hypothesis (H_{o4}): ‘The relevant teaching materials are not available to enable provision of UPE quality in Kagera Region’. The researcher asked the Head teachers to tell (using Sufficient/ Not Sufficient) whether the key teaching /learning materials were available in their schools. Their responses are given in Table 8:

Table 8: Availability of Teaching/Learning Resources in Schools (N=40)

Type of materials	Responses					
	Sufficient		Not sufficient		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Subject text books	14	35	26	60	40	100
Supplementary books	13	33	67	27	40	100
Equipment	03	08	37	92	40	100
Syllabi	28	70	12	30	40	100

It was found out that most of the key text books were missing in the UPE schools, although syllabi were at least said to be quite available (70%). Availability of key subject text books were unfortunately reported to be very scarce (35%). This was so with the supplementary books (33%); and the equipment such as maps and science materials

(only 8%). With such scantiness in these essential items, this puts the UPE schools in sorry situation as they can't favourably compete with their counterparts in the privately founded and managed primary schools; in public as well as co-curricular contestations, such as final academic examinations.

Through observations, it was also discovered that only 10 out of 40 schools mainly located in urban centres of Bukoba, Muleba and Karagwe had libraries, with no regard to relevance of stocks. However, in Ngara and Biharamulo Districts, this facility was not available.

To ratify the significance of respondent claims on 'The relevant teaching materials are not available to enable provision of UPE quality in Kagera Region', a chi-square (X^2_{ob}) statistic was done using SPSS memorised data. It was found out that ($X^2_{ob} = 36.100$, *Asymp. Sig* = 0.821 > $P=0.05$; $df=1$): Since $P > \text{Asymp. Sig}$, H_0 was upheld after rejecting H_1 . This confirmed that the relevant teaching materials are lacking in UPE schools in Kagera Region, to enable provision of quality education.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It was concluded that provision of quality primary education in Kagera faces structural and systemic challenges including low numbers of trained teachers; deficiency of pedagogical skills; and inadequate supply of teaching/ learning resources. Therefore, the following recommendations are made: deployment of well trained teachers to ensure optimal provision of quality education; Ministry of Education and Vocational Training should emphasise frequent use of in-service training programmes to complement pre-service training; teachers in schools should be encouraged to prepare instructional materials to mitigate book shortages; and the education budget should be increased to meet the constrained desire for learning resources in schools.

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Stylistic Tendencies Charactering Ugandan Visual Arts

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Abstract. *This paper discusses the diverse visual art practices in Uganda, highlighting the stylistic tendencies that gave prominence of visual art production and techniques which have created many possibilities for Ugandan artists to explore, tending towards the conceptual art of the present. The discussion focuses on the visual art developments which saw the emergence and influence of local materials and resources, during the 1970s – 1980s and the period of experimentation, artistic styles, creative consciousness and global art participation in 1990s - 2000s. The paper further gives an account on the establishment of Commercial art education in some tertiary and higher institutions in Uganda; the emergence of private art galleries and their significant contribution towards the promotion of Ugandan artists and the commercial art businesses. The analytical frame of reference focuses on local (and national) conditions of visual art reception, consumption and production of commercial art by selected, prominent Ugandan contemporary artists, attributing their contributions towards the development of visual art in Uganda.*

Keywords. Modern Art, Modern art, postmodern art.

Introduction

Like any language and social organization, art is essential to mankind as a means of communicating one's experience. As an adornment and creation of objects beyond means of most basic needs that support life, art has accompanied mankind since prehistoric times. Traditions, ideas, customs, beliefs, norms, values, attitudes and feelings and various forms of cultures can be expressed in art through engraving, sculpting or paintings. Due to its almost unfailing econsistence as an element of many societies, art may be a response to some natural or psychological demands as well.

Visual expression or account of a culture and its people can therefore be easily seen and interpreted by an individual. Hence, art is regarded as one of the most constant forms of human behaviour.

As the world continues to change and impact human life on a large scale, art continues to experiment with new ways of reaching its audiences by recreating stylistic tendencies that began by the emerging art movements most popularise since late 18th century through the 21st century where terms such as modern art, contemporary or post-modern art have defined the trends of producing art across Europe and other parts of the world.

The discussion throughout his paper places emphasis on contemporary art practices in Uganda which combine elements of

painting and sculpture, among other media. It draws on the characteristics of modern art and contemporary art, to create dynamic pieces that aim to challenge the viewer and spark thought.

Many contemporary artists in Uganda today use their work to comment on social, cultural and political issues, including race, human rights, economic inequality, and gender among other areas of interest or concern.

What is Modern Art?

The debate about the actual period when modern art began and its definition is still going on and some scholars refer to it as the art of the late 18th, 19th & 20th century (Gombrich, 1995). Other scholars agree that modern art is generally defined as the art of the present or recent times, Rabinovitch (2002), while some refer to it as style that “rejected” traditionally accepted forms of producing art, Arnold (2010). This belief assumes that modern art evolved in protest or rejection of “realism” and “naturalism” tendencies. Artists during this art movement emphasized individual experimentation in producing art works. They did not reflect traditional tendencies or principles of representing forms in their realistic or naturalistic states, but preferred to portray a subject as it existed in the real world, according to their unique perspective that rejected accepted or traditional styles and values. Some scholars commonly date modern art from the late nineteenth century to the 1960s or beyond. Traditionally, the evolution of modern art is constructed around a series of philosophical, intellectual and aesthetic trends that informed artworks created at the time. Later, the contemporary artists however focus more on the linkages existing between artistic styles than on a linear progression.

The period - 18th to 20th century, meant the point at which artists expressed and trusted their inner visions in their works, as well as using real life situations, images and social issues from modern life, as sources of subject matter. Innovation and experimentation were profound activities that the artists engaged in.

The period associated with Modernism, was usually characterised by significant social, cultural, technological and political developments in the western world. Industrialisation, urbanisation, new technology, the rise of the middle class, the secularisation of society and the emergence of a consumer culture resulted in new conditions in which art was created, exhibited, discussed and collected. The open market replaced patronage as the means of financing art, giving artists the freedom to engage in more experimental and innovative forms of practice. The

modernist period was characterised by a belief in the progressive tendencies of modernity, evident in movements such as constructivism, Futurism and cubism.

The “Modern” aspect was characteristic of self-consciousness, which occasionally led to experiments with form, along with the use of techniques that drew attention to the processes and materials used in producing visual art and other forms of art. The system rejected the ideology of realism and made use of artworks of the past by devoting to repetitions, incorporation, rewriting, reconditioning, travesty and revision of forms and stylistic tendencies.

The modern aspect further reflected a chronological and stylistic designation that was always art relegated to be made from the beginning of the twentieth century until after World War II.

Characteristics of Modern Art

Modern art movements were characterised by;

1. redefined boundaries of art that gave birth to freedom of expression;
2. creation of abstraction or imitation of appearance and
3. creation of a range of new techniques by means of experimentation

From Modern to Contemporary Art

The period dating since 1970s onwards is also described in terms of ‘Post-modernism’, which is a social, cultural and intellectual movement characterised by a rejection of notions of linear progression, theories, narratives and critical consensus associated with modern art (Modernism), favouring an interdisciplinary approach, multiple narratives, fragmentation, relativity and contingency.

The term contemporary Art, refers to current and very recent art practice, attributed approximately, to the period from the 1970s to the present. It also refers to works of art made by living artists Haute (2008). This kind of art tends to be assessed thematically and subjectively, drawing on an expanded range of theoretical and practical disciplines which can be driven by both theories, ideas, and also characterised by less distinction between the arts and other categories of cultural experience, such as entertainment, digital technology and mass media.

Characteristics of Contemporary Art

Contemporary art was characterised by changes to; accepted tradition and accepted taste in terms of style, understanding of a multiplicity of viewpoints regarding subject matter, issues and ideas about the role of object in space and relationships between objects which pronounced purpose & function and the use of everyday materials that comprised of local materials. Additionally, imagery of iconography from popular consumer culture which comprised of thematic constructions and the employment of contemporary technology in terms of application were characteristic of contemporary art.

The central characteristic that has distinguished contemporary art from its historical antecedents to that of a commodity, is almost exclusively owned, shaped, interpreted, judged, traded and marketed for the profit. A relatively small number of wealthy collectors, auction houses and other dealers, including the critics, curators, book and magazine publishers, and other insiders also make a living by supporting and feeding off this industry.

Uganda's' Visual Art Scene in the 1970s – 1980s

The periods between 1970s – 1980s, Uganda was isolated from the global aesthetic discourse due to “it’s rugged political past” Kakande (2008). These periods were witnessed with civil wars that resulted in many civilian deaths and unrests during Dr. Milton Obote’s and Amin Dada’s regimes. The regime that caused most atrocities against the civilian population was that of Amin Dada, who instituted a militaristic rule which began in 1971 after overthrowing Milton Obote’s regime through a coup. The regime was overthrown in 1979 by a combined force of Ugandan dissidents and the Tanzanian Army. Artists were restricted from expressing their views through art, avoiding apprehension by Amin’s administration. They “continued to create overtly political images, which expressed disgust for leaders” Kyeyune (2003). Those who attempted to express themselves through visuals, were either forced to abandon their art activities or forced to flee the country. For instance, artist Charles Ssekintu’s paintings had religious, social and political connotations, which criticized unethical conduct and moral degeneration that was evident in Uganda. His art works were rendered as an attack on government which caused Amin’s operatives to force him to flee the country in 1975. The suppression of the artist’s efforts to freely express their ideas didn’t have a positive impact on the

production of visual art and participation in global aesthetic discourse. The artists in this era (1970s – 1980s), were highly expressive in style. The period witnessed an influx of western ideas. New materials and methods crept into the visual arts, and an inherent development in form and content became certain. Kyeyune (ibid), adds: “new media like batik, better adapted to economies of scarcity, proliferated... with shortage of imported materials and tools, artists investigated local materials”. Local themes and the available resources at the time arose from the misfortunes that were brought about by the unsteady political climate of the 1970s.

The Visual Art Scene in the 1990s - 2000s

During the 1990s, Ugandan visual arts corroborated advancement and achieved international attention and recognition in the world's art scene, where Uganda was represented in the 'Africa95' Academy of Arts London exhibition in 1995. The 1990s – 2000s, greatly contributed to artist to become business entrepreneurs. This period also offered great business expectations to Ugandans in broader terms, economically, socially and politically. On the political scene, the promulgation of the constitution (1995), introduced aspects economically and politically created a business climate for artists to engage in the commercialization of their work. Among the aspects that the 1995 constitution introduced, was the freedom of cultural rights and expression Leyden (1996), which saw the restoration of cultural institutions that were previously abolished by the Obote II regime. Johnstone (2011), on analysing the 'Evolution of visual arts in Uganda', shared Professor George Kyeyune's testimonies concerning the political messages that characterised the visual arts during the previous Ugandan regimes of Amin and Obote during the 1970s – 1980s, and why the 1990s visual arts had positive propaganda. He reiterates that the visual arts (of the 1970s – 1980s), became a decade of self-evaluation, where artists “showed disgust with their leaders” and how they later found a neutral ground of freedom of expression later in the 1990s after the Ugandan economy had stabilized under the National Resistance Movement regime. The period witnessed an influx of western ideas of stylistic tendencies. There was also extensive use of abstraction which tasked the intellects in attempt to appreciate the products of this stylistic stream as seen in works of General Elly Tumwine titled 'Raising the Flag', produced in 1990.

The artists of this period (1990s-2000s), also assimilated some of the creative philosophy and ideas of the artists of the previous period (1970s

- 1980s). Their dynamism had great impact on their works. They had skilfully advanced their creative abilities, making their works unique in form and content. For example, Daudi Karungi is known as one of the direct off-springs of artist Joseph Ntensibe (by association), as his mentor. Karungi is a mixed-media artist and arrived at the Ugandan art scene in 2001. He has rapidly become one of Kampala's premiere artists and his art works are collected widely by art collectors around the world.

The artists during the 1990s-2000s, were highly influenced by their mentors / masters, but propagated their ideas through schools, universities, exhibitions, work- shops, seminars, and lectures where some of them teach. They also combined abstract, realistic, and illusionistic ideas with ethnic designs to produce their popular and unique art. Also, through their various art works, they made commentary on social, political, economic and religious life of the people. They were also involved in various experiments targeted at creating artworks which were devoid of western art elements.

The rejuvenation of the arts after the previous regimes of Idi Amin and Obote II, brought about hope of Ugandan art benefiting from the international exposure through the triangle workshops were first introduced in 1997 in Iganga District in Eastern Uganda which also extended to other African states namely Zambia, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Kenya, South Africa among others. Internationally, on 4th October 1995 to 21st January 1996, Uganda was represented in the Academy of Arts London exhibition that was titled "Africa95" This exhibition contained over 800 works that were conceived as geographical and historical journey around the continent journey spanning millions of square kilometres and some 1.5 million years. Its aim was no less than to celebrate the art of an entire continent and it proudly proclaimed itself as the biggest and most comprehensive exhibition of its kind ever held in Britain, Leyden (2011). The aim of the exhibition was to stir up debate about African art. The Ugandan delegation by then was led by the late Professor Sengendo Livingstone, followed by a team of other artists that exhibited art forms that also included the performing arts.

The onset of commercial practices for contemporary art in Uganda was further promoted by the Triangle International Workshop and the Ngoma International Art exhibition, influenced the emergence of art studios in Kampala and also attracted international artists to work in Uganda. Kyeyune (2012), asserts that:

"The philosophy of experimentation and exploration of unfamiliar territory in art was applied at the Ngoma Artists Studio (NAS) because of its flexible structures which gave artists the opportunity to experiment.

This same philosophy had proved successful for both the Triangle International Workshops and Ngoma International Artists Workshop”.

Many upcoming Ugandan artists benefited from these international patrons in developing new skills that supported their talents in the various art disciplines. Several private art studios owned by the upcoming artists later emerged alongside those that were facilitated by the already famous artists at the time. A number of these young upcoming artists by that time had not received formal training in art at school or college level and formed the category of ‘self-taught’ artists. Over time, these artists progressively became established art businessmen and women, engaging in the production, marketing and also selling their art works through their own art studios or through primary art markets – privately owned galleries where they exhibit and sell their works for the first time and earn a commission.

The positive impact of these art practices during the 1990s propelled the emergence of art entrepreneurs that supported the Ugandan commercial art scene that has kept on expanding to date. For instance, Dr. Kizito Maria Kasule, who is a re known painter and one of the pioneer artist that emerged with the famous galleries that sprung up after the economic stability of the 1990s, is a prominent art entrepreneur, who has featured in several art exhibitions both in Uganda and abroad and is also the director of Naganda International Academy of Art and Design (NIAAD), a private school of higher education in art, which he founded 2006. Among the popular upcoming artist entrepreneurs of the 2000s, is Daudi Karungi, who is the director of AfriArt Gallery in Kampala and also a co-founder of the START journal. His contribution in promoting art and artists through these means have put Ugandan art on the international scene.

The art business community, especially around Kampala – also extending to the suburbs, particularly in the craft business, received support from funding organizations and individuals to foster the entrepreneurial aspect in promoting the art and culture as well Seilern (2013). The support for cultural programmes by international bodies such as the world bank, UNESCO, IMF, Ford Foundation among others, promoted the adjustment programme that Uganda had structured through economic development programmes since 1995 which later extended to the popular Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP, 1997) and The National Development Plan (NDP, 2010/11). The private sector was also given the mandate to promote and handle the cultural activities. In 1998, the Ford Foundation arranged a workshop in Kampala to train artists to acquire entrepreneurial skills in setting up

and managing their art businesses. This was one of the initiatives that also supported the emergence of tertiary institutions and higher institutions of learning later, that paid attention to training artists to acquire commercial skills.

Establishment of Commercial Art Education in Tertiary and Higher Institutions of Learning

The Private sector was also allowed to participate in tertiary education, which saw five Universities and tertiary institutions coming up, starting with Nkumba University in Entebbe, followed by Michelangelo School of creative Arts along Entebbe road, Ndejje University, among institutions that later came up with commercial art schools as well.

Nkumba University was the first among private universities in Uganda to establish the School of commercial, Industrial Art and Design (SCIAD), with the objective of training artists for job creation after. The institution gained University status in 1994 and received a Charter from National Council for Higher Education (NCHE), in 2006. Previously, Nkumba University offered tertiary education under the umbrella name, 'Nkumba College of commerce' before it attained university status. The college already had commercial art courses offered at certificate and diploma level since 1979. The commercial art courses were initiated by the late, Elly, B. Ssemanda Kyeyune, who pioneered the art department during the college days. The introduction of the commercial art course at that time was a turning point in the history of art education in Uganda. Prior to this the basis of art education in Uganda was either fine art, taught at Makerere University School of Fine Art, or art education taught at several teacher education institutions in the country.



The Late Elly, B. Ssemanda Kyeyune-Founder of the commercial art school in Nkumba University

The commercial Art course at Nkumba was focused on training students to enable them engage in art that would serve to promote humanity especially in the economic sectors. Consequently emphasis was put on the graphic arts and the curriculum revolved around that area in teaching, methods and materials. Nkumba University exploited the 'commercial art' aspect and gained a lot of popularity for the nature of skills its art graduates had because the acquired practical skills complemented the economic demand of the Ugandan business community by advertising their products and services, in addition to methods and materials that were not commonly employed in other institutions. Given the entrepreneurial art skills, the graduates had a very strong attitude to business and work, which made them have a competitive edge over graduates from other institutions. A number of commercial Art graduates own businesses, especially along Nasser Road – in Kampala, particularly in printing. These young entrepreneurs, also contribute in creating jobs as well partner with the commercial art school (of Nkumba University), in offering internship/industrial training activities.

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The School of Commercial, Industrial Art and Design main block / gallery. In the foreground, is the bust statue of the late Musangogwantamu Francis which was erected in his honour.

The School of Commercial, Industrial Art and Design (SCIAD), of Nkumba University was established on a firm foundation of an interdisciplinary curriculum and given the latest industrial and technological revolutions, the training aimed at focusing the student's mind on the real and possible solutions for the future demands of the creative and service industry. To accomplish this, SCIAD provided and applied knowledge through artistic design and emerging technologies relevant to social, cultural, environmental and economic development. The School set goals to promote teaching, researching and applying creative art and design for the development of society and creative practice.



The Late, Associate Professor, Musangogwantamu Francis – Developed the Commercial Art School's modern physical and human resource structure

During the 1990s, through a grant, he assisted the university to get. A number of Makerere University former graduates and staff joined the art school (SCIAD) as fulltime time staff through him, to assist in setting up the current academic standards that brought on board; Associate Professor Andrew Yiga, Dr. Venny Nakazibwe, Mr. Kanuge John Bosco, Mr. Jacob Odama, Mrs. Josephine Mukasa, Mr Kakinda Fred, Mr. Kaggwa Lwanga Charles

among others. These contributed in mentoring and training selected SCIAD graduates over the years, who attained their Masters Degrees, as assistant lecturers to fulltime staff positions after undergoing the junior staff programme that the late Musango had initiated at the school. The junior staff, that later attained fulltime and part-time status included; Mr. Mike Nandala (fulltime), who was a pioneer bachelors and master's degree graduate, and now a senior lecturer, Head of Department - Graphics communication Design/ PhD candidate, was followed by Mr. James Kasule (fulltime), Mr. Kivumbi Andrew (fulltime - Head of Department - commercial Art), Kazibwe William and Recently, Mr. Aron Bwayo (part-time), Ms Oliver Odongo (part- time), Eric Ssentamu and Harrison Walukurungi (part-time) are among the human resource efforts that the Late Musango's legacy had enabled, for the development of SCIAD's very own academic staff.

The Positive impact of allowing the private sector to establish art education centres put a greater emphasis on what is known today as popular art or commercial art. The purpose of promoting this kind of art emphasized the cognitive, Affective and especially the psychomotor education objectives. The later concentrated efforts to promote activities for training, or demonstration and measuring the trainee's skill acquisition abilities for application in the field of work and contemporary art practice. This created a sense of the artist's understanding of the society needs.

Industrial Training

The society needs based concerns created the introduction of collaboration measures between the commercial artists and the industry stake holders which led to the establishment of industrial training activities, where students were sent to organization's to acquire additional hands-on skills practice that also benefited the institutions training them, in terms of additional short time labour and interdisciplinary skill ideas generated from the internees in offering better services and problem solving. The trainees were able to identify practical challenges during their training and were able to assist the management of these industries or companies.

Industrial training is a multidisciplinary hands on field experience for students undertaking either a bachelors or diploma commercial course (or other practice based course), to have the field exposure to work closely with Industry and Business working environments, which is normally associated to printing or publishing firms, television and media among others. An assessment guide is normally presented to the

training supervisors for noting and evaluation during the training. The training is meant to be a hands-on practical exercises supervised by the host company and another supervisor from the institution that would offer the awarding of either diplomas or degrees. The objectives aligned to this kind of training firstly, enables trainees to get exposure of the working environments related to the academic programmes they are pursuing, secondly, to give trainees an opportunity to apply the knowledge they have learned in art and design at university or tertiary institution into practice in the art business and industrial art establishments such as printers and art galleries; thirdly, to enable trainees relate the knowledge (theory and practice) they have acquired in class, applicable to the real world of economic art placements.

Emergence of Private Art Galleries

The art graduates during the 1990s began to witness artistic opportunities in a new dimension and began adopting entrepreneurial strategies in producing art and also marketing it, which was supported by the emergence of commercial art galleries. "Today, you will run out of breath counting the galleries which have sprung up and those art events which are earmarked with pomp and glamour" Muwanguzi, D. (2011).

Gallery café and Tulifanya gallery were among the first popular galleries in Uganda established in the 1990s that collected artists' works which were thought to be marketable and hence promoted. Umoja art gallery and Design Agenda among others, also recently opened their doors to receive new emerging artists as well as promoting the old artists in the field of art.

Another category that contributed to the contemporary art practices in Uganda, alongside gallery exhibitions, later on, were the organised out door exhibitions such as the MishMash open garden exhibition which was sponsored by Orange Uganda (now Africel Uganda) that, operated once a month, then the Fireworks Annual Art Exhibition also organized by Fireworks Advertising Agency and the Signature Art Exhibition which is sponsored by several top-notch corporate companies.

Ugandan Contemporary Visual Artists

Some of the famous contemporary artists that emerged or attained fame in the 1990s to 2000s included those who became famous with the emergence of the first private commercial galleries - Gallery café and

Tulifanya, and those that recently came to the limelight of the current art business.

The following descriptions of selected artists, who have maintained significant contributions to Ugandan art scene, indicated the periods of their existence in the art practice and also depict some of their popular art works as well.

Prof. George Kyeyune (1962 – 2017)

Prof. George Kyeyune is a member of the Ngoma International Artists Workshop and well known sculptor, painter, art historian and educator – Attained his first Degree from Makerere University in 1984. His art explores a rich diversity of ordinary life of the urban and rural settings in Uganda. His themes are inspired by circumstances in which individuals struggle to earn a living, which he sometimes find absorbing, for instance, the livelihood of market vendors, hairdressers, traditional ceremonies, local transport cyclists and general social life of city dwellers.



Local livelihood: hairdresser attending to a client while a young man also applies nail vanish.
Source: *Start Journal of Arts and Culture*

Kyeyune is also a renowned scholar with over twenty publications in art history, most especially in the history of the 20th century art. His wide knowledge in this field of scholarly work, besides painting and sculpture, many other scholars have gone through him while carrying out various art investigations and has currently become one of the leading Ugandan art research historians at Makerere University.



Waiting for the wind by Fred Mutebi.
Source: Start Journal of Arts and Culture

Fred Mutebi (1967 -2017)

A famous Multi-colour woodcut artist who depicts stories about critical social events in Uganda and also portrays images indigenous to the Ugandan environment, was among the early artists whose name and fame the gallery establishments promoted. He was introduced to printmaking when he was a student at the School of Industrial and Fine Arts at Makerere University in Kampala, between 1990 and 1993. Mutebi also obtained a Fulbright Scholar-in-Residence at Christian Brothers University in Memphis and still produces coloured prints to date.

Dr. Kizito Maria Kasule (1967-2017)

Kizito is still a practicing artist and a renowned painter and also one of the pioneer artist that emerged with the famous galleries that sprung up after the economic stability of the 1990s – Attained his first Degree from Makerere University in 1992. He has featured in several art exhibitions both in Uganda and abroad, namely, the Kunst Rett Vest. Asker and Gallery Stilart, Gran in Norway in 2014, Makerere University Gallery, Kampala, Uganda, La Fontaine Gallery in Kampala (2008), Sakaraga Gallery, in New York USA (2006), Windhoek college of Art in Namibia(2004), he has exhibited at the National Museum of Kenya-Nairobi, Kenya, Paris Gallery in New York (2000) and Tulifanya Gallery, Kampala, Uganda (1998), where he began.

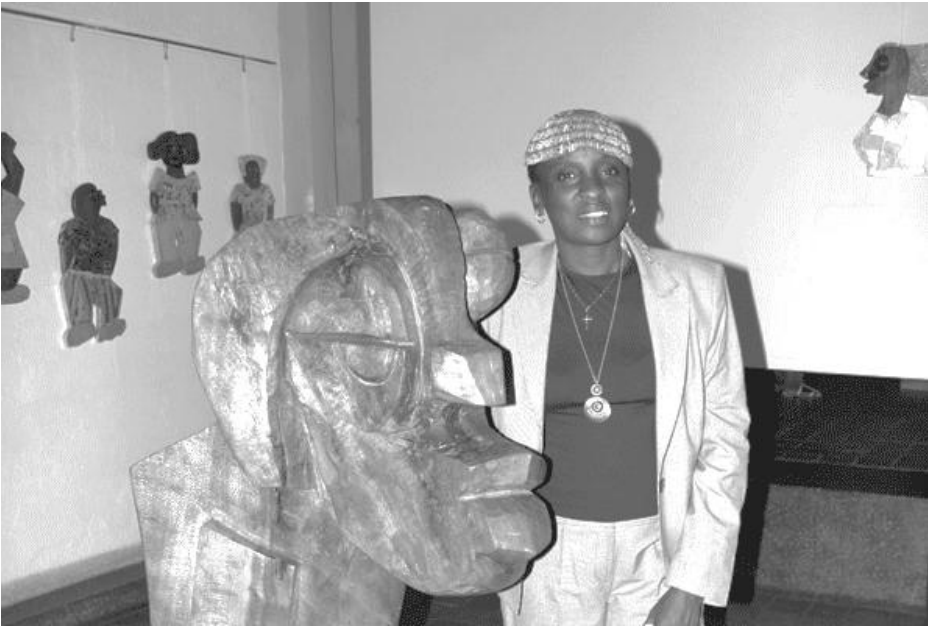
Dr. Kizito Maria Kasule is also the director of Naganda International Academy of Art and Design (NIAAD), a private school of higher education in art, which he founded 2006.



Dr. Kizito Maria Kasule and one of his paintings. Source: Diani Beach Art Gallery

Dr. Lilian Nabulime (1963 – 2017)

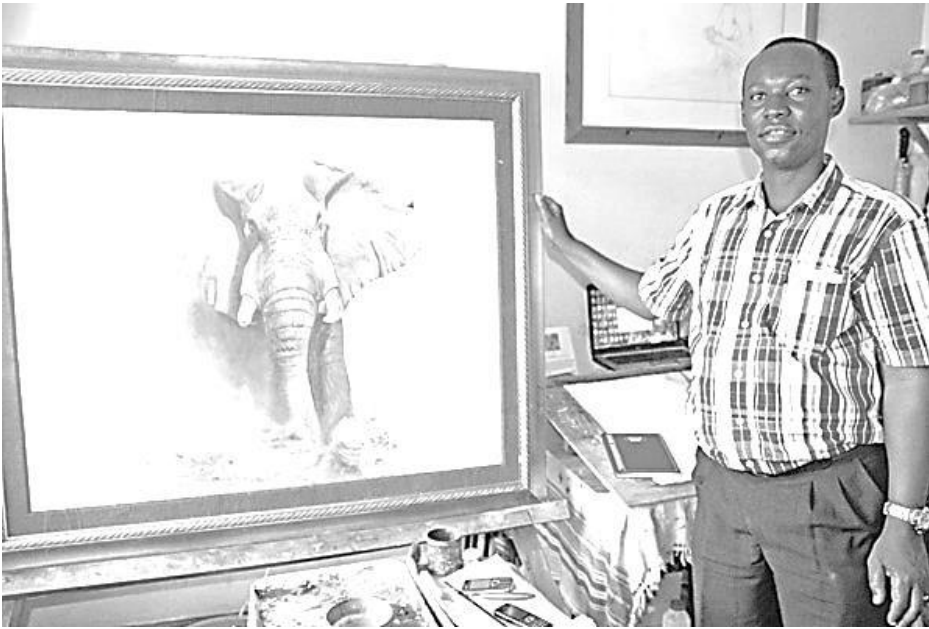
She is a sculptor who works on a combination of wood and sheet metals, to produce monumental sculptures. Her trade mark carvings are characterised by her tree stumps. Nabulime usually chooses a trunk in search for a motif from the stump from which she curves elongated, elegant sculptures, mainly women heads. In addition to her style, her sculptures carry a dynamic, organic rhythm that follows the grain and growth pattern of the tree which often produces a sensation of spiral movement. Dr. Lilian Nabulime is one of the few female sculptors in Uganda.



Nabulime with one of her sculpture pieces. Source: Daily Monitor, July 30 2012

Taga Nuwagaba Francis (1968 – 2017)

Francis Taga is a painter famously known for his wild life paintings. His favourite subject has always been wildlife and the human figure. He has a passion for culture and his source of inspiration for his cultural themes, are subjects derived from rural centres. He has been commissioned to do several projects on the subject of wildlife and has worked with numerous conservation and wildlife groups in Uganda, namely, Uganda Tourist Board , Uganda Wildlife Education centre, Ecotrust, the Jane Goodall Institute in Ngamba Island chimpanzee Sanctuary, including African Wildlife Foundation. His wildlife images have also appeared on Uganda stamps.



Taga Nuwagaba and one of his wildlife paintings. Daily Monitor, May 8, 2011

Maria Naita (1968 – 2017)

Maria Naita is an acclaimed contemporary female artist majoring in sculpture and painting. She moulds wood, copper or metal to produce her sculptures. Her sources of inspiration are from the environment and Ugandan culture. She has exhibited internationally and also serves as the director of the KANN Artist group, which was founded in 1998. And as a part of this artists group, she was among the artists commissioned to create the commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) monument in Kampala.



Maria Naita: Sculpturing her heart to the world. Source: Daily Monitor, January 24 2015

Upcoming artists of the 2000s

One of the popular upcoming artists of the 2000s, is Daudi Karungi, who is the director of AfriArt Gallery in Kampala and also a co-founder of the START journal. His contribution in promoting art and artists through these means have put Ugandan art on the international scene. He and a number of other upcoming artists, including, Wasswa Donald (founder the Artpunch Studio), Eria Nsubuga-Sane, Ronex Ahimbisibwe, Paul Ndema and Kalungi Kabuye (lifestyle editor of the New Vision) , to mention but a few, are among the current fast-growing Ugandan artists on the Ugandan Artscape of the 2000s. These artists have created various platforms that have endeavoured to promote and represent Ugandan artists on an international scale, followed by participation in several ongoing national and international exhibitions.

Conclusion

Uganda's art climate is characterised by exhibitions, art fairs, community museums and performing arts, among others, which was brought about by the favourable economic conditions that were ushered in by the National Resistance Movement in the 1990s.

The freedom that was given to the private sector to set up centres of higher learning and vocational training centres across the country have significantly created opportunities for Ugandans to create their own businesses hence contributing to national development and commercial practice. The vocational centres have especially impacted

practical skills to those individuals that did not afford University education or were limited by the standards that existed to qualify them to attain higher education.

Nkumba University, one of the first private University to offer commercial art courses in Uganda has seen several of its graduates start up their own businesses in Kampala and other parts of the country that include, art shops/studios, vocational art institutions (e.g. Universal Institute of Graphics and Technology - Kampala and Living Stone media 256 ltd- Mbale), Art studios (Jinja Art Studio-Jinja) and printing companies along Nasser road in Kampala. Some have become scholars and administrators in different capacities.

The collaboration measures between the commercial artists and the industry stake holders which led to the establishment of industrial training activities, have established additional hands-on skills practice that have benefited the graduates, in offering better services, job creation skills and problem solving.

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The 1995 constitution of the Republic of Uganda.

Integration of vocational and academic education in Uganda's secondary schools

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Abstract

This paper sought to explore the integration of VE in the secondary school curriculum as a means of transforming communities in Uganda by determining the vocational subjects taught at the secondary education level; to establish factors that influence students' choice of vocational subjects; and to highlight the challenges to the integration of vocational and academic subjects. A cross sectional survey research design guided the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data from teachers, students and parents and data was analysed using descriptive statistics and content analysis. It was established that out of the ten approved vocation subjects, only five are commonly offered. Secondly, students selected subjects basing on expediency other than on the vocational utility of the subjects. Lastly, poor attitudes of parents and students towards VE and limited resources are the key challenges to effective integration of academic and vocational subjects. The paper concludes that integration of vocational and academic subjects is not likely to transform communities. In this regard, the relevant authorities should re-examine the set strategies and use appropriate tools at their disposal to ensure that the integration yields the intended results.

Key words: vocational education, formal education, integration of academic, vocational and community transformation

Introduction

The idea that education and training is a dependable means for transforming communities out of poverty and deprivation is often taken for granted. Communities generally associate lack of or low education with poverty much as it is not clear whether it is lack of education that causes poverty or poverty that causes lack of education. What is clear, however, is that the uneducated and less educated constitute the majority in the ranks of the poor. The human capital theory has been used as one of the key explanations for the relationship between education and social-economic

progress. Accordingly Kefere & Rena (2007) underscore the role of education and training in enriching people's lives, broadening of people's choices and enabling every citizen, every child, every woman and every man to reach her/his full potential in society. As the experience of many countries has shown, however, the link between education, training and community transformation is not straight forward (World Bank, 2010a).

Human capital is the stock of productive skills and technical knowledge embodied in country's population. According to this framework, a well-educated, innovative and skilled population is the foundation as well as the goal of development (Tjahyono, 2012). Human capital is both the goal and the engine of progress since 40 to 60 per cent of growth rates in per capita GDP can be attributed to investment in human resource and the increased productivity thereof. This implies that sustainable community transformation cannot occur in the absence of human resource since no country can achieve sustainable progress without substantial investment in education and training. Several studies suggest significant returns to basic education, research, training, learning-by-doing and capacity building (Rena 2000).

In Uganda's second national participatory poverty assessment study (UPPAP2, 2001-2002), low education and illiteracy were cited as overall effects, causes and characteristics of poverty. By contrast high level of education was construed as an attribute of the well-to-do. Much of the data so collection show that community members considered post primary education and training as a means of transforming them out of poverty. Communities are convinced that education, especially post-primary education, enables one to compete favorably for employment and high-income jobs that can enable a graduate to help the parents in old age. The communities perceived the benefits in terms of certificates gained, nature of employment, income acquired, practical value added or skills acquired and ability to employ oneself (Deepening the Understanding of Poverty, 2002).

Indeed evidence shows that post-primary education contributes significantly to community transformation in terms of economic, social and cultural development and progress. Parents send their children to school for the expected economic benefits as well as the social and cultural gains of schooling (MoES, 2014). Thus, the community has faith in skills training and workforce development as the key to transforming people's lives. Vocational Education (VE) in particular has been emphasized as the gateway to training people in community transforming skills in agriculture, commerce, hygiene, science, ICT and manufacturing (Atchoarena & Delluc, 2011). Indeed, VE is an integral component of

lifelong learning that has a crucial role to play as an effective tool to realize the objectives of culture of peace, environmentally sound sustainable development and social cohesion (Jjuuko, 2010). This paper therefore, sought to explore the integration of VE in the teaching and learning at secondary school level as a means of transforming communities out of poverty.

Kingombe (2012) construe VE as a means for acquisition of human capital in terms of knowledge, skills and values that increase opportunities for productive work, sustainable livelihoods, personal empowerment and socio-economic development in knowledge economies and the rapidly changing work environment. One of the most important features of VE is its orientation towards work. Its delivery systems are considered well placed to train the skilled and entrepreneurial workforce needed to create wealth so as to help poor countries get out of poverty. Secondly, VE can be delivered at different levels of sophistication, which means that schools can respond to different training needs of learners from different socio-economic and academic backgrounds. Finally, since VE prepares people for sustainable livelihoods, the youth, the poor, and the vulnerable members of society can benefit from it (African Union, 2007).

Broadly viewed, VE covers all formal and informal instructions for learners in secondary and post-secondary schools and out of school learners, which prepares individuals for initial entrance into and advancement in an occupation or group related occupations. While the current study focuses on VE at the secondary education level, individual skills acquired can translate into skills necessary to uplift communities (Famiwole & Okeke, 2013). In this way, VE has important implications for poverty reduction in a developing context. While it is acknowledged that skills alone cannot generate formal employment, without skills, the capacity for individual and societal development is considerably stunted (Akoojee, 2007). Thus, the importance of VE in developing skills for community and societal transformation cannot be underestimated.

In Uganda, VE dates way back in the 1920s following the Phelps Stokes Commission criticism of missionary education for being too academic and theoretical. Efforts were then made by the colonial government to enforce teaching of VE subjects in secondary schools (Ssekamwa, 2000). In 1940s, Second World War camps were converted into skills training centers to mobilize and equip war veterans and children with skills for survival (Sempijja, 2003). By the late 1950s, the Artisan Training Organization had been formed to assess the competences of trainees. By 1970, a modern Vocational Training Institute had been established to increase production of craftsmen to meet the country's industrial demands. In 1977, the

infamous Namutamba Project was implemented in Namutamba Teacher Training College to train teachers in vocational training skills. The history of VE in Uganda thus, demonstrates the commitment made by successive governments in to establish and strengthen VE in the country (Ssekamwa, 2000).

The effort thus highlighted was however undermined by the political instability that befell the country from 1979 up to 1990. In 1989, after the Bush war, the NRM government instituted and tasked the Education Policy Review Commission to review the country's education policy. This initiative resulted into the Government White Paper of 1992, the blue print for Uganda's current Education Policy. The White Paper stressed the teaching of vocational education subjects in Ugandan secondary schools. Besides, the Poverty Eradication Plans (2004-08) called for appropriate balance at the Post-Primary Education level of academic and vocational education. In addition, the Education Sector Plan envisaged VE as an alternative to academic education in the last two years of the secondary level (OECD, 2008).

Since the mid-2000s, the traditional drivers of government interest in VE have been reinforced by the growing importance of skills for economic competitiveness, concerns over the ability of the education system to supply the skills demanded by the privatized and diversified economy (GoU, 2004; World Bank, 2010a), the growing social demand for post-primary education, the discovery of oil in the country, and the mass demonstrations in urban areas largely swelled by unemployed youth. These forces have nudged government into prioritizing VE in the current education reform trajectory. Consequently, the secondary education curriculum has been reviewed several times to make it more responsive to labor market demands. Over 50 secondary schools have been re-oriented to VE wherein vocational and academic subjects are emphasized in equal measure to produce a more productive and balanced secondary school graduate. Among the vocational subjects taught are: tailoring, carpentry, construction, brick laying, music, agriculture, technical drawing and crafts, business studies, among others (Education Abstract, 2009).

A number of studies have been done on vocational education in Africa. In a parliamentary briefing paper about projecting Ghana into the real middle income economy Dzeto (2015) gave a situation analysis of vocational education and training in Ghana highlighting its potential and challenges. Famiwole, Remigiu (2013) appraised the adoption of basic technical vocational education and training concepts in Schools and Colleges in Ekiti State, Nigeria. Ayonmike, Chinyere, Okwelle, Chijioke and Chukwumaijem (2013) analyzed the quality of TVET programs In

Nigeria. In Uganda, Jjuuko (2013) gives an erudite expose of the persistent illusions of TVET and the challenges that undermine its supposed comeback on Uganda's post-primary education agenda. In his master thesis, Jjuuko (2010) examined the potential of Vocational Education and Training (TVET) to train young people with incomplete schooling in Uganda. Bananuka & Katahoire (2007) in a paper presented at the Association for the Development of Education in Africa focused on mapping non-formal education at post-primary education level in Uganda. Illuminating as they truly are, these studies focused exclusively on TVET as offered in specialized institutions and not the kind offered in Uganda's secondary schools where academic and VE are concurrently offered.

According to MoES (2014), the two broad goals of vocational education in Uganda are: a) to stimulate intellectual and technical growth of students in order to make them productive members of the community. b) To produce craftsmen, technicians and other skilled man power to meet the demands of the industrial sector. Vocational education is also expected to promote job creation competencies rather than job seeking as the subsector continues to strengthen practical skills acquisition and application that translate into the nation's sustainable development (MoES, 2014). This is in tandem with Dzeto (2015), who takes VE as a cog in the wheel of personal growth and a major tool for social transformation and national progress. Government too recognizes that the employability Uganda's school leavers is hampered by lack of basic technical and vocational skills. The shortage of agricultural extension officers, electricians, artisans, carpenters, creative artists, and mechanics in a country whose post-primary education enrolment levels have been rising dramatically for more than a decade is extremely disturbing (MoES, 2014, 2013).

Bennell (1996) in Dzeto (2015) thus, highlights a multitude of challenges vocational education faces in Africa that include: low public image, supply-driven training mode adopted by schools that leaves graduates with limited options as communities show limited interest in such graduates because of their inability to address community immediate needs, schools focus more on liberal studies and natural sciences than they do on vocational subjects that results in producing graduates rather than skilled manpower. Furthermore, the quality of staff, training equipment and facilities and their adequacy remains a serious challenge. In Uganda, VE service delivery is yet to be fully reformed to widen access and improve quality (Jjuuko, 2010, 2013; MoES, 2014; Maiga, 2012 & Alam, 2007) in Dzeto, 2015; Lugujjo, 2003). Jjuuko (2010) thus counsels that the hype and naïve assumptions of the potential of VE without commensurate

policy reform and real national commitment that persist in Sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere are not likely to produce tangible results soon.

As the education policy pendulum swings towards vocational subjects in Uganda however, the researchers' monitored experience and anecdotal evidence indicates that the integration of VE into mainstream secondary education may be fraught with several challenges that undermine its ability to transform communities. In the first place, the criteria for choosing subjects offered by a typical secondary school seem to be unclear. Secondly, vocational subjects appear to be relegated to the electives category while academic subjects are given first priority. Thirdly, the teaching and learning of vocational subjects is facing pedagogic and resource challenges. Such issues if confirmed would definitely undermine the VE and its potential to promote community transformation in the country. In this study, the researchers examined the integration of vocational and academic subjects in Uganda's secondary schools.

The study was guided by three research questions:

1. What are the common vocational subjects taught at the secondary education level in Central Uganda?
2. What factors do influence students' choice of vocational subjects in the selected secondary schools and learners in Central Uganda?
3. What challenges do face the integration of vocational and academic subjects in the selected secondary schools in Central Uganda?

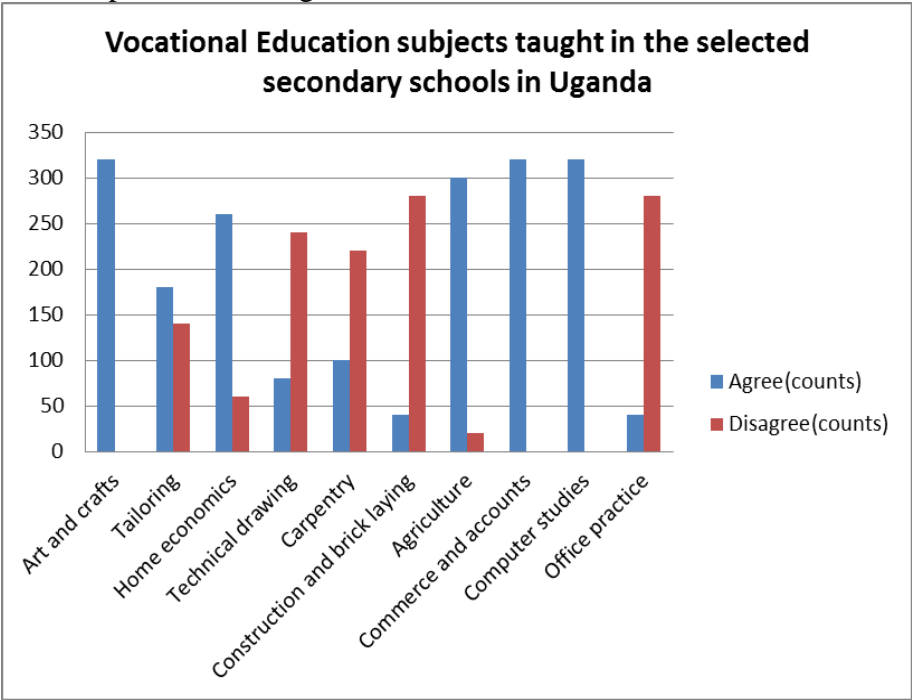
Methodology

The study was a descriptive cross-sectional survey intended to collect sizable data at one point in time. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used with the help of semi-structured questionnaire, key informant interview and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). The study was conducted in 16 schools, purposively selected from the four regions of Uganda. Four schools, two public and two private were selected on the understanding that they offered both vocational and academic subjects in equal measure. The expected number of respondents was 352 comprising 32 VE teachers, two from each school and 320 students, 20 from each school. Teachers were purposively selected while students were selected randomly from senior three classes. Selection of teachers and students from each school allowed for the triangulation of data, establishing consistence or inconsistency of findings in order to

validate the results. A self-administered questionnaire was filled by students while the teachers were interviewed. One FGD was conducted in each school. The items in the questionnaire were of binary type and Likert scale. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics particularly mean and standard deviation. Quantitative data from interviews and FGD was content analysed basing on emergent themes guided by the three objectives. The final results were derived from the collection and subsequent analysis of coded data.

Results

Research Question One sought to determine the nature of vocational subjects taught in the secondary schools that participated in the study. The results are presented in Figure 1.



According to Figure 1, the vocational subjects offered in the sample schools include; Art and crafts, Tailoring, Home economics, technical Drawing, Carpentry, Construction and brick laying, Agriculture, Commerce and Accounts, Computer studies, and Office practice. Such elaborate menu of subjects is clear testimony that in principle, vocational and academic subjects appear on the menu of secondary school programs in Uganda. But having both vocational and academic subjects in the

secondary school curriculum is one thing and according the subjects the same importance is quite another. Table 1 highlights Agriculture, Art & Craft, Computer studies, Commerce, and Accounts as the most frequently offered subjects in schools. Technical drawing, Construction and Bricklaying, Carpentry and Office practice are the least frequently offered subjects in the sample schools. The rest of the subjects fall somewhere in between the most and least frequently offered subjects.

The results indicate that regardless of extensive menu of vocation subjects approved to be taught at the secondary school level, few subjects are actually offered while the rest are not taught at all or are rarely taught. This put into question the effectiveness this integration bearing in mind that its broad goals are to stimulate intellectual and technical growth of students in order to make them productive members of the community and to produce craftsmen, technicians and other skilled man power to meet the demands of the industrial sector (MoES (2014). It also goes against Dzeto (2015), who considers VE as a cog in the wheel of personal growth and a major tool for social transformation and national progress. The under representation of vocational subjects in schools could thus have something to do with the lamentable shortage of agricultural extension officers, electricians, artisans, carpenters, creative artists, and mechanics in the country (MoES, 2013).

This then raises the question of what factors do influence students’ selection of vocational subjects to offer. Research question two sought to establish the factors that influence students’ choice of vocation subjects at the secondary school level. Response to this question was summarized into three categories of factors namely nature of the subject, availability of resources and relevance to community as depicted in Table 1.

Table 1: Factors that influence students’ choice of vocational subjects

<i>factors that influence students’ choice of vocational education subjects</i>	<i>Mean of agreement</i>	<i>Mean of disagreement</i>
nature of subject	145	20.5
resource available	87	73
relevant to community development	88	72

The results show that the mean agreement/disagreement for the three factors highlighted in the Table 2 is 145/20.5, 87/73 and 88/72 respectively. Factors related to the nature of the subject scored the highest

mean score of agreements and the lowest mean score of disagreements (142 vs. 20.5). The difference in mean scores between agreements and disagreements for both resource availability and relevance to community related factors is comparable. Further probing in FGDs with students about the nature of subject, revealed that majority of the vocational subjects are optional (electives). As a result, students choose subjects they consider easy to pass and those with the least workload. In addition, peer influence and character of the teacher were also given as reasons for choosing which vocational subject to offer.

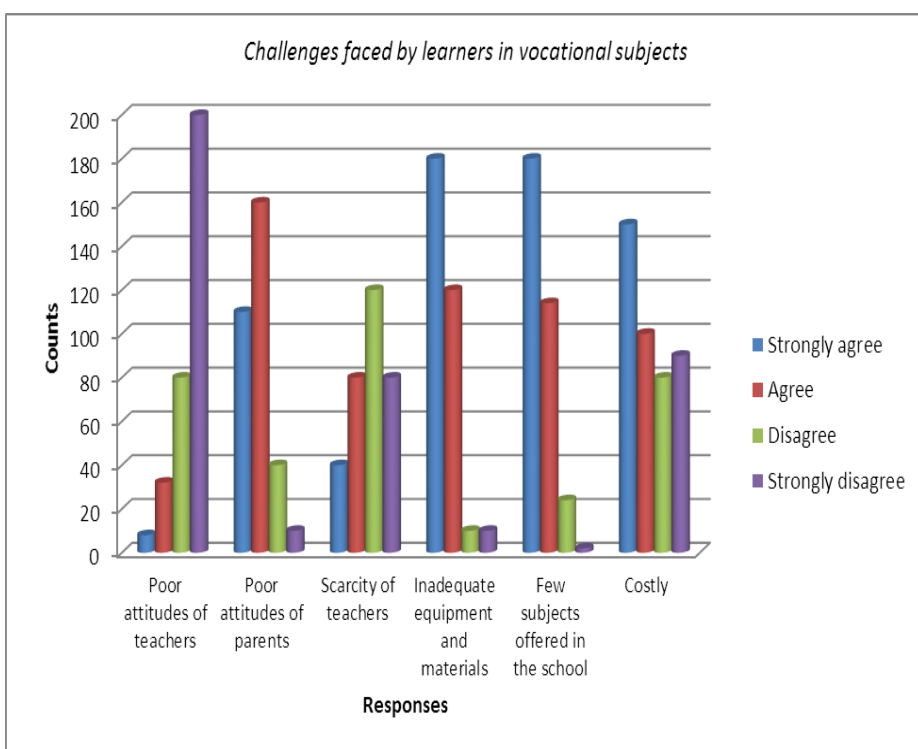
It was established that students chose subjects because they wanted to be in the same class with friends and/or because the teacher was easy going and permissive. Similarly, they would forfeit a potentially useful subject because they wanted to avoid a teacher that is principled and strict regardless of its community transformation value. It was further established that very few students considered the utility of vocational subjects beyond examination requirement. One student during the FGD aptly echoed his peer's views about vocational subjects: *"...school is school and work is work...we shall cross the bridge when we reach it...what matters now is scoring a distinction in all subjects..."* Such mindset militates against the fundamentals and objectives of integrating vocational and academic subjects in the secondary education curriculum. It is also reminiscent of Akoojee's (2007) view that absence of direct linkages to community needs results into serious mismatch between supply and demand for vocational skills. Similarly, Jjuuko (2011) reiterates that the hype and naïve assumptions of the potential of VE without commensurate policy reform and real national commitment persist in Sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere.

Availability of resources or lack thereof was another factor given for the choice of subjects to offer by schools. The study established that many schools, especially the kind patronized by children from low income families, are resource constrained. This considerably limits the number of vocational subjects that can be offered and specifically explains why Technical Drawing, Construction and Bricklaying, Carpentry and Office Practice were listed as the least offered subjects in the sample schools. One teacher summarized it all: *"All one needs to teach commerce and accounts is a chalkboard, chalk and a duster plus a textbook or two...for woodwork and technical drawing, you need a specialized workshop that we cannot even afford to dream of...."* Another teacher lamented: *....given the nature of the parents we have, you cannot ask them to buy even simple technical drawing or construction equipment for their children needed to offer such subjects...it would be like flogging a dead horse.....* Thus,

regardless of government rhetoric about VE, many schools cannot secure the materials needed to implement effective integration. Colin (1999) in Dzeto (2015) concur that in Africa, most schools lack neither sufficient qualified teaching staff nor sufficient facilities to offer quality VE. This indicates that the problem is not on VE itself but it is on the education environment in which VE is offered (Jjuuko, 2010).

As regards relevance to community, respondents were not completely ignorant of the relevance of vocational subjects as a key consideration. One home economics teacher explained that people know what the country needs is vocational education. During FGD, students too agreed that one is more likely to get a job or start up a business in vocational subjects related fields than in the academic fields. One student remarked “...*I take commerce because I can use the knowledge to start up a retail shop or a barber shop after Senior Four...*” However, most students took vocational subjects as a last resort. Every student we talked to wanted to be a lawyer or a doctor or an engineer or a politician and for that matter, vocational subjects are not anybody’s first priority. Analysis of FGDs raised issues of stigma towards VEs as the key issue that militate against successful integration. In support of this finding, Okinyal (2012) and Amodu (2011) agreed that students and parents perceived and treated VE as an education option for drop-outs and learners with less than average intelligence. Okinyal (2012) added that even government inadvertently accentuates the stereotype by sending conflicting signals to stakeholders such as converting public vocational institutions into public universities. This clearly indicates that while policymakers are convinced that vocational education is a potent tool for generating employment to help the masses escape poverty, the integration of vocation and academic subjects in secondary schools still faces a number of challenges.

Research question three sought to elicit challenges to integration of vocational and academic subjects in secondary schools. The results are illustrated in Figure 2



The challenges highlighted in Figure 2 can be categorized into attitudinal and resource challenges. With respect to attitudinal challenges, the mean score for poor attitude of teacher was 142.50 and 17.50 disagreement and agreement respectively. This means that teachers' attitude towards the integration of vocational subjects is overwhelmingly positive implying that this is not a serious challenge. The few teachers who voiced negative attitude explained that while vocational subjects are not the problem as such, the less than conducive environment in which the subjects are taught is the key reason for their poor attitude. Majority of the teachers that reported a positive attitude highlighted job creation and the practicality of these subjects as the key reasons for their positive attitude.

Furthermore, the mean score for poor attitude of parents was 135 and 25 agreement and disagreement respectively. This means that parents' attitude towards vocational subjects is overwhelmingly negative, which is a serious challenge. Majority of parents consider vocational subjects as inferior education meant for manual work, or education for the academically weak learners or education for the low status people. Given that parents not only pay fees for their children's education but they as well wield massive influence over their children, it is very likely that the same parents can influence the children's attitude and perception of vocational education.

This largely explains why students hardly consider vocational subjects as useful beyond examination requirements.

Further challenges established include shortage of competent teachers with mean score agreement of 60 and 100 disagreement, inadequate equipment and materials at a mean agreement of 150 and disagreement of 10, limited number of vocational subjects offered in school at 147 agreement and 13 disagreement, and the high cost of vocational subjects at 125 agreement and 85 disagreement. The results mean that while shortage of competent teachers is hardly a challenge, inadequate material and equipment, limited number of vocational subjects offered, and the high cost of teaching vocational subjects were reported as very serious challenges to the integration of vocational subjects in secondary schools.

Conclusions

Basing on the findings, the study concludes that: Vocational subjects taught include Art and crafts, Tailoring, Home economics, Technical Drawing, Carpentry, Construction and brick laying, Agriculture, Commerce, Accounts, Computer studies, and Office practice. Nevertheless, the most commonly taught vocational subjects in the selected secondary schools were Art and Craft, Home economics, Agriculture, Tailoring, Commerce, Accounts and Computer studies.

The major factor influencing students' choice of VE subjects in secondary schools of Uganda is the nature of the VE subject. When selecting which vocational subject to offer, very few students consider the utility of subjects beyond examination requirement. They instead select subjects they consider easy to pass or with the least workload, or a subject offered by friends or one whose teacher is easy going and permissive, regardless of the subject's community transformation value in the world after school.

The key challenges to integration of academic and vocational subjects in the secondary education curriculum were largely attitudinal and resource based. While teachers' attitude towards the integration of vocational subjects was overwhelmingly positive, they highlighted the less than conducive environment in which the subjects are taught as a key challenge that influence their attitude towards VE. However, parents' and students' attitude towards vocational subjects was overwhelmingly poor. Shortage of competent teachers, inadequate teaching-learning materials, and the high cost of teaching vocational subjects were also given as major challenges.

Recommendations

In keeping with the foregoing conclusions, the study recommends: The number of vocational subjects offered need to be revised in accordance to the evolving community transformation needs. Subjects considered relevant should be emphasized while those that have outlived their community transformation usefulness should be dropped. Besides, there is need for regular monitoring of teaching and learning of VE in secondary schools. Relevant regulatory authorities need to develop strong mechanisms to supervise the teaching and learning of vocational education in the country.

There is need for the relevant authorities to organize a protracted sensitization campaigns for the general public on the value of VE as a viable and high priority part of secondary education. This is likely to fast-track attitudinal change and elicit positive commitment from parents and student towards VE. In this regard, parents and students will cease to take vocational subjects as a distant cousin of academic subjects.

Teachers' positive attitude towards VE needs to be reinforced by facilitating them with adequate instructional materials and conducive teaching-learning environment as key motivators. Schools need to invest greatly in their VE capacity-building initiatives for the teachers to keeping them abreast of new development in technical education methodologies. Besides, instructional resources and infrastructural facilities should be made available in schools to optimize teacher and student performance.

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