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ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES IN PRIVATE RETURNS TO EDUCATION AMONG NIGERIAN WORKERS

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Abstract
This study investigated the extent to which demographic factors were responsible for the variations in private returns to education among Nigerian workers. Data were collected using the 2005 Labour Market Survey of the National Manpower Board covering 19,888 Nigerian workers: 7,032 were with no formal education, 4,910 with primary school certificate, 4,873 with secondary school certificate and 3,073 with first degree. Occupations were categorised into agriculture, information management, commerce and industry, education, health and safety, science and technology, legal and security, and others. Sectors of employment were grouped into private and public. 2 research questions were answered. Data were analysed using multiple regression at 0.05 level of significant. The findings revealed that all the independent variables significantly correlated with workers' earnings. They also accounted for the variance in workers' earnings. Work experience, level of education and sector of employment predicted earning differentials. Based on these findings, it was recommended that employers of labour should ensure that workers' remunerations are commensurate with their level of education so as to minimise earning differentials.

Introduction

The private returns to investments in education have been of interest to scholars all over the world. The rise in earnings inequality and the subsequent increase in the returns to schooling experienced during the 1980s and 1990s in many countries, led to renewed interest in estimates of returns to educational investment. Private returns refer to the additional income earned as a result of attaining a particular level of education. Private returns are used to explain people's behaviour in seeking different educational levels and types and as distributive measures of the use of public resources. According to Todaro, 1982, private returns are the gains that accrue to an individual as a result of attaining a particular level of education.

There is a strong consensus among economists that formal education is an important determinant of individual earnings as well as economic growth (Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1964; Joint Economic Committee of the United States Congress, 2000; and Card, 2001). Many consider human capital to be the engine for growth of an economy, while others who do not necessarily share this view accept that human capital plays a significant role in the economic growth of a nation. Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, literacy and knowledge have become increasingly valuable relative to basic manual skills. This increasing value has led to wage premiums for educated workers as an educated workforce is the dominant factor in explaining differences in regional growth and prosperity. As a result economists have extensively researched education's importance in determining individual differences in wages and regional differences in economic growth. It is clear that better educated people typically are better paid, have access to more information, and enjoy greater economic success. Educational attainment serves as a signal of productivity in the labour market and suggests that a person has broader knowledge in a particular area. Educational attainment also implies that an individual is more productive than persons without a completed education. Education also implies that an individual has enough self-motivation and persistence to complete studies and to achieve goals.

Individuals acquire skills and knowledge to increase their value in labour markets. According to Psacharopoulos (1994) private returns to investments in education is an important factor in determining educational attainment, participation and ultimately

income. This can equally be used to explain people's behaviour in striving for different educational levels. Social returns can be used to set order in future investments in education. Blaug (1972) opines that education and earnings are positively linked. The universality of this positive association between education and earnings is one of the most striking findings of modern social science. Education is critical in income distribution and economic development. This has led many countries including Cameroon to make public spending on education a priority.

Manda and Bigsten (1998) find that private returns to secondary and tertiary education are high, while it is close to zero for primary education in Kenya. However, Kifle (2007) discovered that for countries in Africa, it is commonly asserted that the private returns to investment in education are highest at primary level and thus primary education should be the number one investment priority. Edokat-Tafah (1998) reveals that returns to education are positive and in some cases higher than returns to investment in other sectors of the economy in Cameroon with primary education having the highest returns followed by secondary and tertiary education. Other demographic factors that determine private returns to in education include work experience, year of schooling, gender, sector of employment, occupation and age. Topel (1991) reported that work experience was a major determinant of wage. He finds out that 10 years of work experience will raise the wage of a typical worker by over 25%, while Williams (1991) has found that work experience increases wages only in the first several years of employment.) The strong long term employer-employee relationship conditioned by promotion provisions was mentioned by Theodossiou (1996) to specify the significant effect of work experience on earnings. Firms, in order to discourage labour turnover and inter-firm mobility, establish long-term employment relationships with their most highly valued employees. Thus, employees with longer years of work experience with their current employer have higher earnings than other employees with the same total work experience but relatively shorter tenure.

Altonji and Shakotko (1987) disagree with positive relationship between experience and wages. They are of the view that the partial effect of experience on wages was small because the strong relationship between tenure and wages was due primarily to

heterogeneity bias across individuals and across job matches. Similarly, Jacobson, Lalonde, and Sullivan (1993) have found that high tenure workers separating from distressed firms suffer long term losses averaging 25% per year.

The occupation in which a worker is employed goes a long way in determining the inequality in earnings. Disparities in earnings between different occupations are noticeable in less developed countries than in developed countries (Kothari 1970). Earning differentials would not indicate compensating differentials but rather signal enlarged inequalities because some individuals not only are denied the possibility of working at high and satisfied job levels but also have to accept lower wages (Hartog, 1986). For this reason the reward for education differs substantially by the type of occupation an individual is engaged in.

Returns to investment in education based on human capital theory have been estimated since the late 1950s. The human capital theory puts forward the idea that investment in education increases future productivity. The theory suggests that individuals and the society derive economic benefits from investing in people. There have been thousands of estimates, from a wide variety of countries; some based on studies done over time and some based on new econometric techniques. All the studies reaffirm the importance of human capital theory that lay emphasis on how education increases the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive skills possessed by the workforce. Although types of human capital investment generally include health and nutrition (Schultz, 1981), education consistently emerges as the prime human capital investment for empirical analysis.

Human capital development is an integral part of capacity building, which encompasses both human and institutional capacity building. According to Obadan and Adubi (1998), human capital development refers to the process by which a nation develops and increases its human resources capabilities through the inculcation of the relevant general and technical knowledge, skills and effectiveness to realize set goals efficiently. Unfortunately, the quality of education at all levels is on decline. This calls for a serious attention because of its deleterious effects on national development.

Most countries place a lot of emphasis on education, perhaps because the beneficiaries are needed for the management of the different sectors of the economy. According to Abdulkareem (2001), a nation's growth and development is determined by its human resources. The belief in the efficacy of education as a powerful instrument of development has led many nations to commit much of their wealth to the establishment of educational institutions at various levels. The same reason might have informed the commissioning of a high-level commission to investigate the post-independence manpower needs of Nigeria for a period of twenty years, 1960-1980. This commission was led by Sir Eric Ashby and it was reported that there was inequality between one level of education and the other; limited admission opportunities for primary school leavers; small number of school teachers were qualified and certificated; that the Nigerian education was narrow and literary; and that there was imbalance in the development of education between the North and South. The commission recommended that primary and secondary education should be expanded and improved; the University College at Ibadan should be upgraded to a full-fledged university; three additional universities should be established at Nsukka, Ife and Zaria; the University commission should be established in Nigeria in order to maintain uniform academic standard in all the universities; and that the post-secondary school system should produce the post-independence high-level manpower needs of Nigeria. There was a shortfall in the projection and the Federal Government had to establish additional universities to produce additional manpower needs of the country.

Most governments and even individuals continue to devote increasing proportions of their annual income to education, because of the belief that, a positive relationship exists between investment in education to an individual, national productivity and development. It is for this same reason that education requires adequate financial provision from all tiers of government for successful implementation of education programmes (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). According to Amin and Awung (2005), African governments invested heavily in education, immediately after the early 1960s with the conviction that education would generate rapid economic growth. In fact, education with investment in human capital was expected to contribute to

growth by improving the productivity of the labour force, reduce income inequality and poverty.

Education plays a central role in modern labour markets. Hundreds of studies in different countries have confirmed that better educated individuals earn higher wages, experience less unemployment, and work in more prestigious occupations than their less educated counterparts. Despite the overwhelming evidence of a positive correlation between education and labour market status, social scientists have been cautious to draw strong inferences about the causal effect of schooling. In the absence of experimental evidence, it is very difficult to know whether the higher earnings observed among the better-educated workers are caused by their higher education, or whether individuals with greater earning capacity have chosen to acquire more schooling.

Level of education attained by an individual affects his/her earnings. Cosca (2000) confirms the finding of many economists that, in general, bachelor, master, doctoral, or professional degrees have higher average incomes and lower unemployment rates than do employees with less education. Her study also points out that, although earnings typically vary by occupation, it can be concluded that investing in a college degree pays off.

Gender influences returns to investment in education. Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2002) found that the returns to an additional year of education is marginally higher for girls (12.4 percent) than for boys (11.1 percent). Neuman (1991), using Israeli data, found that the returns to female education are higher than those for males. It should be remembered that such calculations are based on the observed wages of women who are working in the labour market. Several other women have chosen to work at home, tacitly placing a higher value on their household activities time than on market wages. According to Aslam (2007), there is a wide gender gap in labour market returns to education in Pakistan. Differential labour market returns to male and female education is one possible reason for large gender gaps in education in Pakistan. Onphanhdala and Suruga (2006) also discovered that gender differences determine returns to schooling. They found out that on the average, a female earn more than a man. Gender is another factor that may affect employment and earnings. While equal access to education for both

men and women can be justified on human right and equality grounds, since resources are limited, the choice policy makers are facing everyday is really between investing in girl's education versus investing in boy's education. Investment choice is not the only reason why a comparison of returns to education for men and women is necessary.

Aslam (2007) finds out that in Pakistan, there is a wide gender gap in labour market returns to education. Differential labour market returns to male and female education is one possible reason for large gender gaps in education in Pakistan. Earnings function estimates reveal a sizeable gender irregularity in economic returns to education, with returns to women's education being substantially and statistically significantly higher than men's. However, a breakdown of the gender wage gap suggests that there is highly differentiated treatment by employers. He however concludes that the total labour market returns are much higher for men, despite returns to education being higher for women. This suggests that parents may have an investment motive in allocating more resources to boys than to girls within households.

Another study carried out on the relationship between wages and experience shows that initial wages rise with experience and then begin to fall because the data were based on a cross-section. Earnings rise during the early working years of employment. It was also observed that individuals with more experience are generally older and less educated than younger people. Again, skills depreciate over an individual's lifespan. Opposing the significant effect of tenure on wages, Altonji and Shakotko (1987) argued that the partial effect of tenure on wages was small because the strong relationship between tenure and wages was due primarily to heterogeneity bias across individuals and across job matches. Similarly, Jacobson, Lalonde, and Sullivan (1993) have found that high tenure workers separating from distressed firms suffer long term losses averaging 25% per year. Re-examining the wage-tenure relationship, Williams (1991) has found that tenure increases wages only in the first several years of employment

The occupation in which a worker is employed has an important effect on the level of his/her wages and salaries. According to Kothari (1970), earning disparities on account of occupations is more pronounced in less developed countries than in developed countries. Hartog (1986) reveals that earnings differentials would not

indicate compensating differentials but rather signal enlarged inequalities because some individuals not only are denied the possibility of working at high and satisfied job levels but also have to accept lower wages, which makes the reward for education differs substantially by the job level at which an individual is occupied.

Another determinant of earnings differentials is sector of employment. Mann and Kapoor (1988) have explored that, on the average, public sector workers are paid much higher wages than the private and joint sector workers. Rees and Shah (1995) are of the opinion that the private wage determination is subject to profit constraint, whereas the public sector wage determination is subject to an ultimate political constraint. Thus, wages in the public sector are higher than in the private sector. In some other studies, it was discovered that private sector workers earn more than the public sector workers (Okuwa, 2004; Onphanhdala and Suruga, 2006). It was also discovered that salaries in state-owned enterprises and the private sector are substantially above those in the government, and that these salaries increased substantially faster than those in the public sector. The salary scale in the government is quite flat, with the salary of top officials about twice that of the low paid individuals. A top government official might earn only one tenth of the salary paid for a similar position in a private enterprise. This means that there are earnings differentials in public and private sectors. It than imply that sector of employment is an important factor that determines earnings. Arrow (1973) and Spence (1973) put forward the theory that it is not education in isolation which yields higher wages, but rather that education is used by employers as a screening device to identify better workers and likewise by workers to signal their potential high productivity. A worker's level of education is thus correlated with, but not the cause of high productivity.

Years of schooling increase the return to education. According to Altonji (1998), the wage level rises by 8 percent in response to each additional year of academic postsecondary education. Ashenfelter and Krueger (1994) find that each year of school increases wage rate by 12 –16 percent. Card and Krueger (1992) find that being educated in a higher-quality school positively affects the return to additional years of schooling. Linear returns to the individual suggest that extra years of schooling increase wages, but at a constant rate. Increasing returns

suggests that wages increase an increasing rate. This matters because income inequality in the present generations may be affected by increasing returns. Increasing returns potentially indicate a widening income gap, while decreasing returns would imply a declining income gap as education levels increase.

Even though, there is a wide and growing literature on the empirical estimation of returns to schooling in both developing and advanced countries, empirical studies on the returns to education are still scanty in Nigeria. On the whole, even if it is widely accepted that level of formal education is positively correlated with level of earnings, observations show that workers' earnings do not depend on the level of education alone. The higher earnings observed among the better-educated workers may not be as a result of their higher education alone. This type of study is necessary in order to justify the variations in workers earnings and also to solve the problem of dearth of literature on private returns to education among workers in Nigeria.

There is a need to improve on previous studies by looking at the extent to which work experience, years of schooling, level of education, gender, sector of employment, occupation and age determine private returns to education in Nigeria by using labour market survey data that covered the whole country. It is against this background that the study investigated the extent to which work experience, years of schooling, level of education, gender, sector of employment, occupation, and age jointly and relatively contribute to differences in private returns to education among Nigerian workers.

Statement of the Problem

It is widely accepted that level of schooling is positively correlated with level of earnings. However, observations showed that workers' earnings do not depend on the level of education alone. There are variations in earnings of workers who have the same educational qualifications working in the different sectors of the economy. There is a need to analyse differentials in earnings by investigating variables responsible for these disparities. This type of study is necessary in order to justify the variations in workers earnings and also to solve the problem of dearth of literature on private returns to education in Nigeria.

If this phenomenon is not addressed, the role of education as an instrument for promoting the socio-economic, political, and cultural development of Nigeria may never be achieved. Investment in education can be a driving factor for economic growth. Increased education of the labour force explains a substantial part of the growth of output. There is a need to address the situation in other to provide and utilise the much needed manpower to accelerate the growth and development on the economy. It was in the light of the above that this study was carried out to investigate the joint and relative contributions of work experience, year of schooling, level of education, gender, sector of employment, occupation and age to inequality in earnings.

Research Questions

1. What are the composite contributions of level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience and sector of employment to private earnings in Nigeria?
2. What are the relative contributions of level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience and sector of employment to private earnings in Nigeria?

Research Methodology

This study used descriptive survey research design. The survey made it possible to establish the sex, age, educational background, experience and earnings among workers in Nigeria. The population of this study comprised 36,458 workers in the 2005 National Manpower Board Labour Market Survey which covered all the 36 states including the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, by the defunct National Manpower Board survey in 2005. Purposive sampling technique was used to select from the population of 36,458 workers who participated in the study. The purposive sampling technique was used to select 7,032 workers with no formal educational qualification, the 4,910 workers with primary school certificate, 4,873 workers with secondary school certificate and 3,073 workers with university first degrees; thus making a total of 19,888. The data collected were analyzed using multiple regressions to determine the direction and magnitude of relationships among age, experience, gender, occupation, level of education and years of schooling on private returns.

Results

Research Question 1: What are the composite contributions of level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience and sector of employment to private earnings in Nigeria?

Table 1: Regression summary of composite contributions of independent variables to private earnings in Nigeria

Multiple R = 0.635 **R Square = 0.403** **Adjusted R Square = 0.403**					
Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.74317E+12	7	2.49024E+11	774.804	0.000*
Residual	2.57797E+12	8021	321403038.5		
Total	4.32114E+12	8028			

***Significant at P< 0.05 alpha level**

The result presented in Table 1 reveals that the independent variables have a multiple correlation of 0.635 with workers' private earnings. Equally, the combination of these variables also accounted for 40.3% of the variance in workers' private earnings as shown by the coefficient of determination of R^2 = 0.403. Further verification using the ANOVA component of multiple regression produced $F_{(7, 8021)}$ value of 774.804 which is significant at 0.05 level of confidence. This implies that there is significant joint contribution of level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience and sector of employment to private return to investment in education among Nigerian workers. This means that all the independent variables predicted the private returns to education among Nigerian workers.

Research Question 2: What are the relative contributions of level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience and sector of employment to private earnings in Nigeria?

Table 2: Estimate of the relative contributions of the independent variables to private earnings in Nigeria

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
Constant	-27783.743	1320.991		-21.033	0.000
Level of Education	13219.914	2843.382	0.372	4.649	0.000*
Years of Schooling	-332.563	541.026	-0.049	-0.615	0.539
Occupation	-0.07	0.065	-0.009	-1.078	0.281
Gender	551.831	424.047	0.012	1.301	0.193
Age	25.405	16.173	0.014	1.571	0.116
Work Experience	2909.932	42.768	0.611	68.039	0.000*
Sector of employment	-1290.022	590.494	-0.02	-2.185	0.029*

***Significant at 0.05 alpha level**

Table 2 gives a summary of the degree of relative contributions of the independent variables which are level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience, and sector of employment to the prediction of dependent variable. The result presented in Table 2 is a presentation of the individual contribution of each independent variable relative to all other variables. Work experience contributed most ($\beta = 0.611$; $t = 68.039$; $p < 0.05$) with 61.1% contribution private earnings, followed by level of education ($\beta = 0.372$; $t = 4.649$; $p < 0.05$) contributing 37.2% to private earnings, while the sector of employment contributed the least to private earnings with $\beta = -0.02$ and $t = -2.185$; $p < 0.05$. However, years of schooling, occupation, gender, and age did not relatively contribute to earning differentials because they are not significant. The multiple regression analysis therefore clearly shows that work experience has the highest prediction of 61.1% on earnings of workers. This means that 61.1% of worker's earning is due to work experience. Next is the

influence level of education on earnings which is 37.2%. Sector of employment though significant, contributed 2% negatively to earnings.

Level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience, and sector of employment will not significantly predict private earnings in Nigeria.

X_1 = Level of Education (β_1 = 13219.914)
X_2 = Years of Schooling (β_2 = -332.563)
X_3 = Occupation (β_3 = -0.07)
X_4 = Gender (β_4 = 551.831)
X_5 = Age (β_5 = 25.405)
X_6 = Work experience (β_6 =2909.932)
X_7 = Sector of employment (β_7 = -1290.022)
Constant = (β_o = -27783.743)

Hypothesised model of private earnings:

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_o + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \beta_7 X_7 + e$$

$$\hat{Y} = -27783.743 + 13219.914X1 - 332.563X_2 - 0.07X_3 + 551.831X_4 + 25.405X_5 + 2909.932X_6 - 1290.022X_7$$

Hence predictive model of private earnings becomes:

$$\hat{Y} = -27783.743 + 13219.914x_1 + 2909.932x_6 - 1290.022x_7$$

Where: x_1 = Level of education; x_6 = Work experience and x_7 = Sector of employment

X_1, X_6 and X_7 are predictors of Y.

Discussion of Findings

The findings of the study are presented under the following sub-headings:

1) Composite contributions of factors determining differences in private returns
2) Relative contributions of factors determining differences in private returns

1. Composite contributions of factors determining differences in private returns

The findings revealed that level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience, and sector of employment jointly made significant contribution to private return to education among Nigerian workers. A major fact arising from the findings of this study is that variation in private returns to education is a function of many factors and not the education alone. Even though, no earlier study has taken all these independent variables together, a few studies have investigated the contributions of some of these factors to private returns to investment in education. The finding of this study corroborates the findings of some of the earlier studies that have investigated the contributions of some of these independent variables examined in this study. Among them are the findings of Schultz, (1961) Becker, (1964), Blaug (1972) and Joint Economic Committee of the United States Congress, (2000) who discovered that formal education is a strong determinant of individual earnings as well as economic growth and that experience, training, and education are the three main mechanisms for most individuals. This implies that level of education and experience are determinants of private returns to investment in education.

This finding equally agrees with the findings of Neuman (1991), Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2002), Aslam (2007) and Sackey, (2008) that discovered that there is a wide gender gap in labour market returns to education. Differential labour market returns to male and female education are observed. This means that there is disparity in earnings on account of gender. In support of this finding is the work of Okuwa (2004) who observed that there is earning disparity based on years of labour market experience and sector of employment. Also in agreement with this finding are those of Topel (1991), Williams (1991) Theodossiou (1996), and Altonji and Williams (1997) who discovered that work experience increases earnings only in the initial years of employment, due to promotion provisions, and also through the establishment of long-term employment relationships of the employers with their most highly valued employees etc. These are done in order to discourage labour turnover and inter-firm mobility. Thus, employees with longer years of experience with their current employer have higher earnings than other employees with the same

total work experience but relatively shorter years with their present employee.

In consonance with the findings of this study, are the findings of Kothari (1970), Hartog (1986), Cosca (2000) and Onphanhdala and Suruga (2006) who discovered that there are disparities in earnings on account of occupation. This has made the reward for education to differ substantially by the job level at which an individual is occupying. This implies that the type of occupation one engages in determines private return to investment in education.

In the same vein, the finding of this study is in agreement with the finding of Card (2001) who opines that the higher earnings observed among the better-educated workers may not be determined by their higher education alone. It then implies that there are other factors apart from level of education that determine private returns to investment in education. Equally in agreement with this study's finding is that of Arrow (1973) and Spence (1973) who put forward the theory that, it is not education in isolation which yields higher wages, but rather that education is used by employers as a screening device to identify better workers and likewise by workers to signal their potential high productivity. A worker's level of education is thus correlated with, but not the cause of high productivity. This means that level of education is not the only determinant of private returns to investment in education.

2. Relative contributions of factors determining differences in private returns

The findings showed that level of education, work experience and sector of employment made significant relative contributions to private returns to education. It then implies that level of education, work experience and sector of employment are relative predictors of private returns to education among Nigerian workers. While, years of schooling, occupation, gender and age made no significant relative contributions to private returns to education among Nigerian workers.

This finding agrees with the findings of Topel (1991) who reported that work experience is a major determinant of wages. However, this disagrees with the finding of Altonji and Shakotko (1987) who are of the opinion that there is no positive relationship between experience and wages. Level of education contributed more relatively

to private earnings. This implies that, the higher the level of education, the higher the earnings. This finding agrees with Blaug (1972), Cosca (2000), Palacios (2004) and Kifle (2007) who discovered that education and earnings are positively linked and that investment in education has an economic value. This means that the level of education attained by an individual affects the earnings. Sector of employment made significant relative contributions to earnings. This implies that, there are variations in earnings on account of sector of employment. The finding of this study corroborates the findings of Mann and Kapoor (1988), Rees and Shah (1995) and Pritchett (1999) who asserted that public sector workers are paid much higher wages than the private sector workers. Even though, the finding of Okuwa (2004) and Onphanhdala and Suruga (2006), who discovered that private sector workers are paid higher than the public sector workers disagrees with some of the earlier studies, the most important fact emerging from the finding is that disparity occur in earnings as a result of the sector of employment. The implication of this is that private return to investment in education is being determined by sector of employment. While years of schooling, occupation, gender and age made no significant relative contributions to private returns to education among Nigerian workers. These findings imply that years of schooling, occupation, gender and age made no significant relative contributions to disparities in earnings.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study investigated the extent to which work experience, years of schooling, level of education, gender, sector of employment, occupation, and age jointly and relatively contribute to differences in private returns to education among Nigerian workers. The findings revealed that level of education, years of schooling, occupation, gender, age, work experience, and sector of employment jointly made significant contribution to private return to education among Nigerian workers. While level of education, work experience and sector of employment made significant relative contributions to private returns to education among Nigerian workers, implying that these three variables are are relative predictors of earnings.

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

- Policy makers should take note of the factors which contribute to the variations in private returns to education among Nigerian workers and use them as a guide to formulate policies and craft incentives that will promote investment in education.
- Government should try to share part of the total cost at the university level by introducing a loan scheme, the outcome will be a cost effective increase in stock of human capital.
- The salary for both public and private sectors should be harmonized. Government should encourage more private investors in the economy by providing an enabling environment and good policies for private investors to invest in the country. This will go a long way in improving private sector earnings through increase in salary and attractive remuneration, which will in turn induce workers in this sector to be more productive, thereby increasing the productivity and efficiency of the sector.
- Public and private sector employers of labour should ensure that workers' remunerations are commensurate with their level of education in order to make acquiring education a worthwhile investment since education facilitates the acquisition of new skills and knowledge that increase productivity. This increase in productivity frees up resources to create new technologies, new businesses, and new wealth which will eventually result in increased economic growth.

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TEACHER QUALITY IN NIGERIA: CHALLENGES AND OPTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

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Abstract
Quality of teachers available for the prosecution of learning programmes in primary and secondary schools is important for effective service delivery in the education system. Teacher quality is not limited to certification alone. The discussion appears to be more of a product of the type and depth of initial training received by the teachers at the preparation stage of their careers, the level of teacher experience on the job, level of motivation and subsequent commitment and the exposure received through in-service training on the job. These contributory factors to the state of teacher quality in Nigeria are examined. It is observed that training of effective and highly qualified teachers in Nigeria is undermined by the selection of comparatively poor stock of recruits for teacher preparation. Most graduates from high schools do not select teaching in their ultimate career. Secondly, the process of training and mentoring had progressively become inadequate due to unstable school/ academic calendar. There is further lack of continuous on-the-job training to reposition teachers to have appropriate skills for the present day. Suggestions are made on strategies for the realization of higher quality teaching personnel in the Nigerian School System.

Keywords: *Teacher quality; Teacher education; Commitment; Nigeria; Mentoring; Quality assurance*

Introduction

More than ever before, people in some developing countries of the world, including Nigeria have continued to complain about the perceived falling standard of their education system. Murray (2012) observed that the present Irish education is failing to meet the demand of modern society and the uncertain future. In Nigeria, it has been observed by concerned individuals that both the quality of work and the language of presentation by primary, secondary and university products have depreciated and fallen below tolerable levels. It is argued that products of Nigeria`s schools, these days, cannot compare favourably with their counterparts of the sixties and indeed before independence. While the debate on falling standard of education in the country continues, others have moved beyond the controversy to ascribe reasons for the perceived poor performances of products of the Nigerian education system. Some of these reasons are highlighted in order to save space and time:

Factors Militating Against Qualitative Education in Nigeria

1) **Poor or inadequate resource allocation to the education system:** This continues to be a bane of quality education in the country. While the demand for education keeps increasing in leaps and bounds, financial allocations to the system have not been keeping pace with such phenomenal requests and demands. It is posited that education should be treated as a merit good with higher annual budgetary allocations in Nigeria (Ibukun 1988; Alimi 2004; Olaniyan and Obadara 2008).

2) **Poor Quality Teachers**: It has been observed that the quality of teachers in the school system in Nigeria is substandard when compared with Western countries. Ezewu (1996) had earlier observed that a comparison of the primary school teachers in France with her Nigeria counterpart showed that the general education as well as the professional standard of the primary school teacher in Nigeria was grossly deficient.

3) **Poor stocks of input into the education system at the secondary school level:** This is a backlash of the populist education system in Nigeria. Education before the 1960s in Nigeria was highly selective.

Only those who could profit from schooling were allowed to progress through the system. Today, mass education appears to disregard the potentialities of students who are being processed through the system.

4) **Political instability**: This inhibits effective academic programme implementation at all levels of the education system. Endless strikes, such as reported by Aborisade (2012) have reduced the time and volume of work done in Nigerian schools.

5) **Poor implementation of educational policies**: While the absence of technocrats for policy-making and availability of educational blueprints have not been a serious problem in Nigeria, plan implementation has been a bane of the educational system. The shoddy implementation of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in the 1970s, and the secondary school component in the early 1980s in Nigeria, shows the lack of commitment to educational reforms in the country (Olaniyan and Obadara, 2008).

6) **Poor conception of the role of education in national development:** The position of many Western countries on the role of education as a vehicle for national development and integration has not been rightly conceived in Nigeria. The country appears to be a joker when the issue of the importance of manpower as a source of capital formation is considered. Indeed, few years ago in Nigeria, when the rather exorbitant salaries of Councilors were being debated, a Nigerian perceived that it was more difficult to become a Councilor than a university teacher of professional cadre! This shows the value people place on quality manpower in Nigeria.

7) **Politicization of the philosophy and practice of education:** While some argue that the country requires qualitative education, others along political divides root for the free universal and populist education (Kazeem and Ige, 2010). Although qualitative education and mass literacy through free education are not mutually exclusive, for political reasons in Nigeria, unnecessary ideological gulfs are created and pursued in their implementation. Thus, for deliberate, sectional or political reasons, educational plan implementation is often hindered.

8) **The brain drain syndrome in Nigeria's education system:** Many potential teachers have deserted the classroom and the teaching profession in Nigeria because of the poor status, low image and lack of motivation for teachers (Yaqub, 2007). Indeed, those who leave for other jobs often prefer to earn less than their salaries as teachers

We have just highlighted a few of the problems responsible for poor quality education in Nigeria. The remaining part of this paper is devoted to the challenges of the teacher factor in Nigeria's education system.

Role of Teachers in Qualitative Education in Nigeria

Good teaching matters. Therefore, the teacher is an important factor in the quality of education in any nation (Clotfelter, et al; 2007 and Rice, 2003). Teachers are at the last post to translate government policies and intentions into practical form. Rivkin et al (2005) subscribed that the quality of human resources in form of teachers often dictates the extent of the effectiveness of educational programmes. The United Nation Education, Scientific and Cultural Education (UNESCO's) recommendations concerning the status of teachers in the education system posits that:

> *advancement of education is impossible without teachers; they therefore have to be accorded the type of statusnecessary for them to help the advancement of education and of society. (UNESCO Paris, 1966)*

In a study conducted in 1983, resource situation which included quality of teachers was found to be related to higher productivity in the school system (Ibukun 1983). It is unfortunate that in spite of the crucial role of teachers, as the mid-wife of effective programme implementation in schools, the quality of teachers has remained low in professional competence and esteem in Nigeria. This low quality syndrome has a long history. Hear excerpts from the Taiwo Commission report on primary education in Western Nigeria, 1968:

> *We are in no doubt that two major reasons why the educational objectives implicit in the primary school curriculum in the West is imperfectly realized are deficient knowledge of subject-matter on the part of many teachers*

> *and inadequate conception of the teachers functions. (Taiwo Commisson Report, 1968)*

Features of Poor Quality Teachers

Teacher quality is a matter of concern even in the most advanced nations. Archer (2007) reported that it was too easy for unqualified people to get into teaching in the United States of America (USA) as only three states require new teachers to pass qualifying tests. Some of the features of the poor quality of teachers in Nigeria include the following.

(i) Poor stock of personnel selected for teaching. Many brilliant individuals are not willing to take up teaching as a profession. There is preference for other careers such as Medicine, Engineering, Banking and Law. It would appear that it is after these professions have been exhausted or when entry is impossible sometimes due to financial constraints that people opt for teaching in Nigeria (Ibukun, 1986). This should not have been so, if teaching is upgraded to a position of respect in the Nigerian society. It appears that the present system of education in Nigeria promotes the reservation of intellectually and financially deficient students for the teaching profession. How then can third class brains be expected to effectively teach and produce first class brains? Governments should make the teaching career more attractive so that the best brains can also aspire to be teachers and those already there can be retained.

(ii) The training period for teachers appears too short and uncoordinated: As pointed out earlier (Ezewu, 1996), the period of academic and professional training of teachers in Nigeria when compared with the French model has been found to be inferior and substandard. While for instance, it takes 15 years of academic and professional training for teachers to be certified to teach in the French junior (primary) school, such period is only 12 years in Nigeria. What is more, the uncoordinated, haphazard crash programme for the training of teachers from the 1976 UPE era has been the underlying factor of the poor quality teachers being witnessed in Nigeria today. As a reminder, in most cases, only those who failed the Senior

School Certificate Examination made themselves available to be trained as teachers. As if the harm was not enough, only one/ two years of training instead of three were provided for trainee teachers.

Ordinarily, sufficient time should have been devoted to the academic upbringing of these volunteers before the professional training and subsequent drafting into the teaching field. Most of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) and Bachelor's Degree in Education (B.Ed.) programmes being run today in Nigeria at regular and sandwich basis appear suspect in terms of the professional and academic content provided for the trainees. First, there is the general shortage of time arising from strikes and work stoppages for the meaningful implementation of the academic content of the programmes. Secondly, the professional training and mentoring in the field have been made worthless due to the absence of the traditional long vacation period when practicals were held in the 1960s and 70s. While there is a clear-cut period of industrial training for the would be engineer, clinical and housemanship for doctors, attendance of Law school for lawyers, the duration traditionally allotted for the training of teachers has now been eroded due to the uncertainties and instability of the academic year in Nigeria. The result is the production of half-baked teachers who today can be euphorically referred to as cheaters rather than teachers. Perhaps a specific time has to be found for the relevant practical training before students are certified as teachers in the Nigeria school system.

(iii) Lack of Commitment

Many teachers in the country today, probably because of poor motivation are not committed to their jobs. There is divided loyalty. Although there is a general improvement in the take-home pay of teachers, in recent times, there appears to be no commensurate increase in job commitment among the work force. One interpretation of this seeming contradiction is that the status of teachers has not changed in the individual teacher`s perspective or societal perception. Apart from the usual call that Government should do more to improve the life

of teachers, teachers themselves have a role to play here. There should be an element of contentment and self-satisfaction in life. The mode of thinking, value system, dressing, choice and perception of life among teachers should change. If landlords are reluctant to rent their apartments out to teachers, for fear of non or irregular payment of rents, teachers should correct the image through prioritization.

Governments should also ensure that teachers receive their remuneration at the same time as other public servants. Teachers should endeavour to show professional commitment on the job by assisting learners and through prompt scrutiny of assignments. Teachers should be disciplined. They should be embodiments of hard work and honesty. They should be kind and be less irritable on the job. They should be prepared mentally and professionally for each day's work. They should endeavor to search and know more than their students. Nothing destroys a teacher's dignity and sense of pride than a situation whereby learners discover that the teacher has little to offer in form of fresh information over and above the level of the students. Worse still, students fault the teacher's presentation. The corollary appears true; teachers earn eternal respect when pupils know that they can rely on their master for accurate information in his subject-matter.

Strategies for Better Teacher Quality in Nigeria.

(i.) Selection of those with adequate intellectual capability for training as teachers.

(ii.) Improvement in the academic and professional training of teachers. Time should be found for adequate practical work and mentoring before students are certified as teachers.

(iii.) There should be continued in-service training of teachers through seminars, conferences and short-term courses for updating the professional skills and competence of teachers.

(iv.) Training in modern methods of pedagogy and andragogy: Teaching has gone beyond the dishing of facts through lecture methods to the pragmatic and practical methods of instruction. The role of the teacher is changing. He is more of a supervisor,

director, guardian, group leader, advisor, facilitator rather than the reservoir of all knowledge.

(v.) Motivation for teachers should be considered as a means of improving output and productivity in the school system. This could be done through regular salary payments, improved conditions of service etc.

(vi.) Introduction of professional examinations. This is to challenge teachers to improve on their level of intellectual competence on the job.

(vii.) Empowerment of Nigeria`s Teachers Registration Council. This body will handle the professional/membership examinations. The examination could be in three levels, each taken after two or three years .

(viii.) Promotions after the first ten years should not be based on years of experience alone, but on passing of professional/membership examinations peer/superior assessment and general productivity and commitment.

Conclusion

Improvement in the quality of teachers for overall productivity and subsequent rise in the quality of education in Nigeria may not be achieved if teachers are the sole targets of intervention policies. This proposition appears obvious as teacher quality does not constitute the only weak link in the vicious cycle operating in the Nigerian education system. These problems, including financing have been highlighted in the early part of this paper. Thus, beyond the focus of improving teacher quality in Nigeria, there are essential conditions to be met if the overall quality of education is to improve in the country.

(i) There should be improvement in the level of resource allocation to education and funding in Nigeria. Modern educational gadgets like computers, instructional materials and packages etc. should be consciously introduced into the system. The globalization currently in vogue in the world should be extended to the Nigerian education system. There should be improvement in Nigeria’s tele-communication system so that education can take advantage of internet teaching and information technology.

(ii) Improvement in the supervision of education.

(iii) Depoliticization of education programme implementation in Nigeria.
(iv) Adequate planning. Most of Nigeria's educational reforms since independence have been characterized by poor plan implementation.
(v) Mental reorientation on the value and role of education of national development. The principle of human capital development should pervade our political thinking.
(vi) Political stability should be guaranteed. The low quality of educational standard in Nigeria cannot be divested from the lack of stability in the political scene, strikes, acrimonies, cut-throat competition, political bigotry and uncoordinated ideology.
(vii) Cultural inhibitions and mores should be reviewed. These relate to female education, child-labour and early marriage.
(viii) Education for relevance. The curriculum and practice of education should be related to the needs and aspirations of the people.
(ix) Education vices in the areas of examination malpractices, cultism and indiscipline in schools should be adequately addressed. School-heads should be given adequate authority to deal with various forms of social vices in the school system.

The controversy on the failing standard of education in Nigeria continues. A means of raising the standard of education in the country is to improve teacher quality. This could be done through adequate training and motivation of teachers. However, while teacher quality is required as a means of improving the quality of education in Nigeria, it is neither the sole factor nor sufficient condition for genuine and sustainable rise in the quality of the country's sagging education standards. Increases in resource allocation, social and political stability are also required conditions for better quality education in Nigeria.

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EDUCATOR'S INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY STRATEGY: A GLOBAL CHALLENGE TO LEARNERS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

All over the world, nations spend huge resources to bring formal education to their citizens. To achieve this goal, institutions of learning are built with diverse infrastructures and human elements to attain the desired height. But regrettably, most nations do not actualize the quality academic performance they bargained. Blames and counter blames have been heaped on variables that aid or inhibit academic performance and such variables include inadequate provision of teaching/learning facilities, staff welfare, learners' attitude to study, and the unfriendly learning environment. Recently, educational critics have commented on instructional delivery strategy of the educators. Most educators still dwell on the traditional lecture method of instructional delivery in this era of digital and pervasive information communication technology (ICT). This paper therefore x-rayed the various delivery strategies as documented by varying critics of the educators and presented a descriptive analysis of all the strategies reviewed as to determine the best that will illicit effective and greater academic performance in the learners.

The paper advocated for blended approach and further suggested compatibility between instructional strategy, instructional content and instructional design.

Introduction

Educators in all generations concern themselves on how to deploy all resources at their disposal in order to elicit maximum performance from the learners. When learning materials are gathered, which are intended to transform the learner, it becomes expedient to blend them with an appropriate technique so that the learners can achieve the intended goals. This technique or style or method is what we refer to here as instructional strategy.

Job (2010) asserted that literature is replete with varying terminologies used to address instructional strategy- teaching method, teaching styles, delivery system, pattern of teaching and instructional technique, which has also generated varying definitions from scholars. Ekpo (1995) defined instructional strategies as plans for teachers to follow in order to realize the stated teaching/learning objective. Awotua-Efebo (1999) reported that teaching strategies are all those teaching methods available to a teacher during the teaching process for communicating ideas, skills, knowledge, attitudes to the students, such that at the end of instructions the students can behave in the manner stated in the objective for the lesson. Umoh (2002) noted that teaching strategy is a special device adopted by teachers in the process of imparting knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes expertly to facilitate students' achievement of their lesson objectives. Mills (1979) on his part defined instructional strategy as the method in the arrangement of learning experience to help a learner achieve desirable change in behaviour.

There are numerous types of instructional strategies as there exist varying subjects and contents, objectives, learners' characteristics, gender and locations. Also important in the consideration of instructional strategies is the expertise of the educator, type of curriculum, and the resource materials available to them. Hence, the educator is in a dilemma in most cases on what instructional strategies to adopt that could result in meaningful learning.

The low performance of learners, particularly at the intermediate and tertiary levels of our institutions, has attracted huge condemnation. Apart from other variables that inhibit or enhance academic performance, most educational critics have pointed accusing fingers at the educator's choice of instructional strategies, which they argue could turn a well designed and content filled lesson ineffective.

They are of the opinion that the efficiency of teaching depends on the teachers' ability to manage and use instructional resources and materials (Ekpo,1992; Okorie, 1996; Okworo, 2008).

In the same vein, the choice of wrong instructional strategies to communicate emerging concepts and skills could lead to low comprehension, hence poor academic performance. Job (1996) reported that the teaching of English language in Nigerian secondary schools have been limited to the use of traditional methods of lecture and textbook-based approaches. These approaches, unfortunately, are at variance with individualized instruction or use of other effective learning strategies and methods for improved academic performance. Research findings by educationists supported alternative and varying instructional strategies for effective and efficient academic performance from the learners (Ekpo, 1996; Job, 1996; Novak, 2002; Ibe-Bassey, 2004; Bayim, 2004; and Okoworo, 2008). The challenge therefore becomes: which of the instructional strategies could best elicit high academic performance from the learners. This has led to research works on different instructional strategies and their efficacy on producing high academic performance in the nation's schools.

Ezike and Ezengwu (1995) conducted a comparative study of the performance of students taught mathematics using the discovery method and those taught using the expository method. They found that discovery method yielded better performance in students as opposed to expository method, hence they submitted that guided discovery yields better academic performance in the students. Busari (1996) worked on the effects of enriching two main instructional strategies with concept mapping and problems-solving on Nigerian secondary school students' cognitive functions, using 218 randomly selected Nigerian senior secondary school chemistry students as samples. Two research instruments were used – pre and post instruction to test the two hypotheses. It was found that there were significant differences among students in the four instructional groups on students' cognitive operations and cognitive styles. Based on these findings, the researcher submitted that other strategies which are being used in contemporary science teaching world-wide may complement either of these conventional methods.

Bayim (2004) studying the instructional strategies for the teaching of integrated science in tertiary institutions sampled 100

students offering integrated science, who were randomly selected from Cross River University of Technology, Nigeria. The students were grouped into two through simple randomization. The results indicated that students' cognitive learning outcome is influenced by instructional strategies and that skills acquired by students are influenced by the instructional strategies used.

Anyaegbu (1998) also studied the strategies for improving teaching and learning of mathematics in primary school, and reported that, to enhance better teaching and learning in primary school mathematics, the teacher in addition to using other skills, should make use of instructional materials while demonstrating. The researcher asserted that when mathematics is taught practically, that is, by activity method, the pupils usually participate actively, discuss new situations, and learn better.

In quest of the educator's choice of better instructional strategy for optimal academic performance for the learners, Novak (2002) developed concept mapping teaching technique. This concept mapping was primarily evolved to represent the emerging science knowledge of students, which has been used to increase meaningful learning in the sciences. This concept is linked to Ausubels' cognitive psychology, which posited that meaningful learning results when a person consciously and explicitly ties new knowledge to relevant concepts they already possess. The submission here is that meaningful learning ignites series of changes within the entire cognitive structure, modifying existing concepts and forming new linkages between concepts.

Other educational researchers have investigated the concept mapping instructional strategy in other subject areas for validation or otherwise. Canas and Fords (1992) in their study of concept mapping instructional strategy reported that it is of great assistance to knowledge creation due to its intuitive nature and brain storming in new areas. Sharvelson, Baxter and Pine (1991) in their presentation, reported that concept mapping is used to check learning and to identify misconceptions, since it assists teachers in evaluating the process of teaching.

Duru (2006) investigated the effectiveness of concept map strategy on academic achievement and retention of JSS 3 students in Integrated Science in Owerri Municipal Local Government Area –

Nigeria. The sample was 360 students, who were selected through stratified random sampling. Two instruments were used for this study, namely: the concept map instrument and the conventional (lecture) method instrument. Data collected were analyzed using Analysis of Variance and t-test. The result of the tests revealed that concept map teaching strategy improved students' academic achievement and retention.

Job (2010) also investigated "Concept Mapping Teaching Strategy, Achievement and Retention of SS II students in English language in Rivers State – Nigeria. The sample consisted of 202 students. Two types of instruments were used – English Achievement Test and English Retention Test. The data collected were statistically analyzed using T-test and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). The result showed that significant difference exists in the achievement and retention of subjects in English language taught with concept mapping teaching strategy and those taught with lecture method.

All the researchers on concept mapping strategy agree that it enhances academic performance of the learners. It is described as a diagrammatic representation, which shows meaningful relationships between concepts. Job (2010) affirmed that this instructional strategy has three dimensional implications – first to the learner, who is an active participant in the learning process. It enhances the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of the learner, which leads to better understanding and encouragement to the learner. It also helps the learner to build self confidence in their potential for learning since it makes the structure of knowledge explicit and more accessible and easily integrated by the learners. On the other hand, the teacher is assigned the role of a facilitator, who merely helps the learners to get the understanding of the content. The teacher supports from the back, gives guideline, and creates the environment for the learners to arrive at their own conclusion. It also helps the teacher to have dynamic assessment of the learners. In the same vein, it is used in developing a problem based curriculum, which is usually learner- centred.

Other educational researchers have reported that effective use of instructional media would bring about the expected improvement in the quality of academic performance. This group reported that the employment of instructional materials in the teaching – learning process will de-emphasize more acquisition of skills, but will also

promote effective teaching (Oyeyeni, 1986; Ibe – Bassey, 1988; Imogie, 1991; Etun, 1998; and Okworo, 2008). According to these researchers, instructional media make themselves explicit, even in the absence of the teacher. The students can learn, if they have access to the media, where the information could be obtained.

Despite the success recorded in the use of these innovative instructional strategies, the lecture method, which is described as the oldest instructional method, still holds sway. This method involves verbal presentation of the lesson to the learners. In this method, the teacher is at the centre and is the repository of the content and facts. The students are turned passive by this method, except when question and answers are required to keep them attentive in the class. It is argued by some educationist that lecture method remains the best instructional methods, since it is a straight forward way to impart knowledge to students. It also permits the teacher the autonomy of control over what is taught in the classroom, since he is the sole source of information. Unfortunately, the lecture method is condemned for its ineffectiveness, particularly when used in a large class, in terms of interaction. It does not also accommodate the individual difference in terms of learning capabilities.

nother instructional strategy that has been commonly used is the demonstration method. This method is always relevant in experimental setting. It involves a physical display of the form, outline or a substance of object for the purpose of increasing knowledge of such objects. The demonstration method is cherished for presenting facts from concrete to abstract, where the learners observe the demonstration critically and draw their inferences. The demonstration method could be cost-effective as it may involve equipments that are required for the display of the learning content. The teacher is also required to be knowledgeable in the use of the equipment.

A Case for Blended Approach

The dimensions of learning and characteristics of the learners have taken into cognizance the global knowledge explosion and keep pace for the attainment of worthwhile academic achievement. Hence, the educator of these learners must face the reality that no single instructional strategy may be good enough to arouse effective and efficient learning.

This paper therefore advocates for blended approach in the selection of instructional strategy by the educators. A critical view of the various instructional strategies presented above will affirm that blended approach, that is, the combination of the strategies or the other strategies with the lecture method, will elicit the best performance from both the learner and the teachers.

In the blended approach, the educator must build in the following conditions:

1. Planning and preparation of the lesson must be taken carefully. In doing this, the subject matter, question to be asked to the learners and media selection to fit into the particular topic must be done prior to lesson period. The educator should also specify and state his/her learning objectives, the relevant textbooks to be used, and appropriate lesson plan must be on ground.

2. The educator must also be very careful in the introduction of the lesson. Most educators consider it more appropriate to introduce the lesson in a more challenging or problematic form to arouse the curiosity of the learners. Every good impressive introduction will rap the learners all through the lesson hence provoking their thinking capabilities will enhance greater performance.

3. The educator should also present the lesson in a segmented form, starting with the subject matter. The contents should be devoid of boredom and rigidity in style of presentation. The media selected must be relevant both to the subject-matter and the strategy of presentation. The educator must welcome as much questions as possible for proper illumination of the principles under study.

4. The educator should make effort to provide reinforcement within the lesson. Most times, educators misuse the praise pattern in the lesson procedure. There is need for educators to always include congruence, specific recognition of attainment

of performance criteria and focusing on task–relevant behaviour as part of their development.

5. The educators should make effective use of interactive sessions which will enable them use cues, questions and what could be akin to advance organizers. These will help the learners to differentiate what they know from what they do not know. There should be take-home assignments and drills for practice. This way, the learners would be led to the way of mastery of learning materials.

When the educators have blended these points to their instructional strategies which already exist in blended approach, incorporated with appropriate media type, then they should have uplifted the learners to a greater level of academic performance that would attract commendations from the public.

Summary

The instructional strategies of the educators have been identified as one of the major factors for low academic performances of learners. This paper has presented some of the major instructional strategies as investigated by some educational researchers and their collaborative report of high potency in terms of enhancing learners' academic performance. The paper upholds that no single instructional strategy can be good enough to illicit the high standard of performance that is required of the learners in this era of global knowledge explosion.

Recommendations

This paper primarily advocated and recommended the use of blended approach in the educators' selection and use of instructional strategy. Also, in this blended approach, the educators must have effective and efficient lesson plan carefully prepared. This lesson plan should incorporate other variables that will enhance decorum and encourage proper learning that will metamorphose to high academic performance on the part of the learners.

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STUDENTS' ASSESSMENT OF THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS IN A DISTANCE LEARNING INSTITUTION

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Abstract
The study investigated learners' perception on quality of instructional materials and preferences for various formats at the National Open University of Nigeria. It also examined the extent of availability and affordability of the instructional materials. The research design adopted for the study was a descriptive research of the survey type. The population of the study consisted of all learners in the National Open University of Nigeria. Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling technique was used in selecting the sample for this study. A self-designed questionnaire tagged "Students' Feedback on Instructional Material Questionnaire" served as the research instrument. Split half test was used to test the reliability and the reliability coefficient of 0.8 obtained was considered good enough to be used for the study. Six research questions were generated while one hypothesis was tested. The result of data analysis indicated learners' acceptance of physical appearance of the instructional materials except in the area of structure. The study also revealed learners' preference for print mode while instructional materials were found unaffordable and not readily

available to the learners. Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended that instructional materials must be revised to make it more interactive and made readily available and affordable to learners.

Introduction

Open and distance education has now become an alternative to conventional education system all over the world. It is a structured learning format in which the instructor and students are separated by time and space and which uses the latest technology to bridge the gap between learners and instructors. High quality, self-directed, learner-centred instructional materials are the main materials for teaching and learning in open and distance education. These materials include self-instructional materials, audio and video, telephone, computers and teleconferencing. However, printed materials appear to be a major medium of instruction in most of the distance learning institutions.

Unlike in classroom-based teaching where the teacher is the basic resource that could be complemented with other resources such as textbooks, teacher is hardly a prominent feature in open and distance learning. Therefore, the learning materials take over the functions of the teacher by defining what is to be learnt, provide information with necessary examples among other functions. The creation of such materials that can do this complex technical task becomes an ardours assignment as such materials must meet the need of the learners.

The production and utilisation of instructional materials is a basic challenge often faced by young distance institutions. While on the learners' part, they are faced with the challenges of adapting to the use of self-instructional materials. National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) had same challenge. So far NOUN had produced her first set of instructional materials in form of course materials, CD-ROM and web, which are made available for learners' use. To ascertain if the instructional materials are meeting the need of learners as well as for the purpose of instructional material review to meet learners need; evaluation of such materials are very important. In this regard, it is necessary to have the perception of learners on the quality and preferences of course materials. This is the essence of this study.

To guide this study, six research questions were raised and answered, while one hypothesis was tested. The questions include: What is the

learners' perception of the physical appearance of the course materials? What is the learners' perception of the content of the course materials? Do the learners find the course materials suitable as self-study document? Which is the most preferred format of instructional materials by learners? Are the instructional materials readily available to the learners? Are the instructional materials affordable for learners?

The hypothesis raised was: There is no significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate students' perception of the instructional materials. The purpose of this study therefore is to ascertain the perception of learners on the instructional materials. The findings shall be found useful in the development and review of instructional materials for open and distance learners.

Instructional Materials in Open and Distance Education

Open and distance education is associated with removal of barriers to education and allow students to study what they want, when they want and where they want. Kuruba (2008) asserted that distance education is indeed, a viable and most suitable option in meeting the educational needs of people at all levels in today's society because of its flexibility, cost effectiveness, and easy accessibility in different settings. Omolewa (1982) opined that distance education aims at facilitating those who are otherwise deprived of formal education due to many reasons and also assist the economically and socially disadvantaged groups in the society. The thrust of distance education revolves around self-directed learning through correspondence, using communication technology and facilitation through tutorials sessions.

An important foundation of distance education is that successful teaching can take place even though teacher and learner are physically separated during learning process. Advances in telecommunications technology have opened up the possibility of personal and group interaction in distance education (Galusha, 2008). A wide range of teaching media are employed in distance education and the quality, depth of use and coverage as well as involvement of the learner to a large extent determine the quality of graduates from the system. Gujar and Malik (2007) classified instructional materials into printed materials, audio-visual materials, face-to-face teaching and interpersonal activities.

Since students do not have unlimited access to lecturers as in conventional tertiary institutions, such instructional materials must be packaged to facilitate self-study and easy comprehension by the learners without much assistance from their facilitators. Rhaman (2006) observed that traditional texts provide the subject matter without considering the reader's ability to learn by themselves. This is where the text of distance learning differs. Therefore, it is considered significant to understand the basic difference between a textbook normally used in conventional educational system and self-study instructional materials used in open and distance learning system of education.

In the view of Rowntree (1986), self-instructional materials must carry out all the functions a teacher would carry out in the conventional system. Lockwook (1997) in his comparative study between traditional textbook and self-instructional materials indicated that while textbooks assume interest, self-instructional materials arouse interest. He added further that textbooks are written for teachers' use while instructional materials are written for learners' use. Kumar (2000) identified the characteristics of a good instructional material to be self-explanatory, self-contained, self-directed, self-motivating, self-evaluative and self-learning. Gauchuni and Matira (1989) divided the evaluation of good instructional material into academic and physical aspects. The academic aspects include the selection of content, organisation of content, presentation of content, language, illustration and exercises and assignments. The physical aspects include the printing layout and set up, durability and size of the book. The use of this evaluative criteria frame has been described as helpful in getting a fairly good idea about the quality of self-study material with regard to academic and physical aspects. Dekkers (1994) emphasised that the best quality of instructional text requires input from a number of contributors. This includes the writer, editors, graphic artists and multimedia personnel. Bullem (1996) opined that course content itself cannot be ignored in any theoretical or practical consideration of distance education attrition as poorly designed course materials are key contributors to student attrition rates. In the opinion of Price (1996), distance learning materials should be evaluated in several ways, with regard to the production of materials (be these texts, CD-ROM, television, radio, video or audio cassettes).

The format of course materials is observed to be capable of exercising significant impact on the rate of assimilation. Norwegian researchers say books are better than computers. Holding a book and turning the pages allows individuals to have an experience with the book. It also helps with attention spans. The scrolling and clicking that is necessary to read a book on a computer is distracting. The reader is more likely to remember information read from a book and less likely to remember if read on a computer screen. It was therefore asserted that technology does not improve everything in our lives. The physical appearance of a book offers tranquillity to the reader. A book loses its physical dimension which is special to the book when it is digital. This leads to loss of reader's feeling of totality. So the more a reader must do to continue with the reading experience, the more potentials there will be to lose comprehension and more opportunities to abandon reading and move on to something else (Mangen, 2008).

Swedish researchers believe that reading on paper is better. The navigation required reading a book on a computer distracts from the written word. Reading a book promotes better understanding than reading from a screen. Mangen (2008) also believed that when text is not perfectly adapted to the computer screen, the reader struggles to maintain attention. This can lead to increased problems with comprehension. Lewis (1985) and Holmbeg (1989) worldwide survey of distance education showed that print is by far the most used medium and is considered the most important medium in the presentation of learning materials by distance educators. Bates (1982) noted that print is the most convenient and flexible medium for the presentation of new information and new ideas and can be used by students selectively and at their own pace. Print has many advantages as an instructional medium; it is familiar, inexpensive as well as portable as its format allows readers access to any section in any order and for any length of time (Osei and Saah, 2008).

Harry (1992) mentioned that the existing telecommunications systems are inefficient and/or expensive to use, so educational institutions are unlikely to place too much reliance on them for teaching support and information searching. That is the reason why some developing countries still use print, cassettes and radio delivery method. Darkwa and Mazibuko (2000) observed that the limited use of ICT (on-line learning, e-conferencing, e-mails) for information delivery

may be attributed to unavailability and unreliability of power supply and low bandwidth and connectivity which affects the use of ICT as delivery media and contribute to slow website update respectively.

It is observed that students' perception and observation contribute as much to the teaching-learning process by providing suggestions and directions for teachers' future improvement. Teachers can use the information or comments gathered from the students to polish their methodology and style of teaching and look for ways of improvement. This could be very significant in an instructional mode where there is no face-to-face contact between learners and instructors. It is therefore important that regular feedback from students on the quality of course materials should be made an integral part for enhancing quality of instructional materials in open and distance education.

The Process of Instructional Material Development in NOUN

NOUN instructional materials are divided into course material, CD-ROM, radio and web-based text. The management of instructional materials is under the Directorate of Instructional Resources Development. The directorate works with the academic and computing & network units to achieve the final instructional materials sent out for students' use. The process of course materials development include content development done by the content specialist in the academic units, training of course writers and editors, course writing, course editing, course publishing in text. The course materials are uploaded into the university website, while some are put in CD-ROM with the help of staff in computing & network units.

In developing the course materials, the content adequacy, interactivity, structure, age, religion, ethnic setting, and format are given high consideration. At the completion of writing, the material is subjected to two forms of editing – content editing and structural editing. For the content editing, a content specialist which in most cases is higher than the writer is assigned to edit. The content specialist may come from within or outside the university. At the completion of content editing, the material is passed on to the concerned academic unit for reconciliation. At the satisfaction of the academic unit, it is sent to the directorate for structural editing. The structural editors are permanent staff of the university. They read

through the material to ensure appropriateness of structure in terms of grammatical usage, style of presentation and formatting to meet the NOUN house style before the material is finally published in a complete text for students' use.

The course materials that require oral presentation like the use of English and French language are put into CD-ROM. From the published course material, a story board is developed by an instructional designer who works with the content expert. At the completion of this stage, a voice over personnel does the voicing for recording. The completed work is either presented to the students through CD-ROM or through NOUN FM Radio station. The web version in not interactive, rather the course material is simply uploaded into the NOUN website by the webmaster and made available to students. The students could read it online or download or print the material.

Methodology

The research design for this study is a descriptive research of the survey type. The population of the study consisted of all the students in National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). The sample size was 474. Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling technique was used in selecting the sample. Lagos Study Centre of the university with a population of about 12,000 students was purposively selected for the study. This is because it has the largest number of enrolled students. The population was stratified into undergraduate and postgraduate students. With the use of simple random sampling technique, 330 students were sampled out of about 7,000 undergraduate students, and 144 students were sampled out of about 5,000 postgraduate students.

Self-designed questionnaire tagged 'Students Feedback on Instructional Materials Questionnaire (SFIMQ)' served as the research instrument. The instrument was divided into two sections, A and B. Section A was for personal information of the respondents' programme of study, sex and age. Section B consisted of 40 items designed to elicit responses on the instructional materials in terms of physical appearance, content, availability and preference on type of instructional materials with the response options as Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Undecided (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1).

The validity of the instrument was established through face and content validity by two professors. They are specialists in Educational Technology and Educational Administration respectively. Both have cognate knowledge in distance education. To test for the reliability of the instrument, the instrument was administered to 40 students selected from Ilorin Study Centre of NOUN. Split-half test was used to calculate the reliability. A coefficient of 0.8 was attained. This showed that the instrument was reliable for use.

The instrument was administered with the help of three research assistants trained by the researchers to do the job. A hundred per cent retrieval was achieved. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the analysis. To answer research questions 1 – 6, simple percentage was used. To compute the percentage, total number that strongly agree and agree were sum together as one and called 'agree' while the total number of disagree, strongly disagree and no response were sum together and taken as 'disagree'. Following this, the percentage of agree and disagree were determined to take a decision. To take a decision, any total percentage score less than 60% was taken as 'Not Accepted' while 60% and above was taken as 'Accepted'. MANOVA was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level.

Analysis

Research Question 1

What is the learners' perception of the physical appearance of the course materials?

Table 1:Learners' Perception of Physical Appearance of Course Materials

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The course materials are beautifully packaged	360	114	474	76	24	100	Accepted

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The course materials are handy and makes reading convenient	372	102	474	78	22	100	Accepted
The quality of paper used for printing is good	384	90	474	81	19	100	Accepted
The printing is very neat	390	84	474	82	18	100	Accepted

The data in Table 1 showed that the physical appearance of course materials is acceptable by the learners. Among the four items used, 76% is the least percentage of agree and the highest percentage of disagree is 24%.

Research Question 2

What is the learners' perception of the content of the course materials?

Table 2:Learners' Perception of the Content of Course Material

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The writing style is learner friendly	378	96	474	80	20	100	Accepted
Important points are highlighted for easy identification of	330	146	476	70	31	100	Accepted

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
important points							
The contents put into consideration previous learning experiences of learners	330	144	474	70	30	100	Accepted
The introduction to various unit serve as effective motivation for learners	354	120	474	75	25	100	Accepted
The behavioural objectives are clearly stated	330	144	474	70	30	100	Accepted
The content is related to the behavioural objectives	318	156	474	67	33	100	Accepted
Self-assessment exercise are related to the content	342	132	474	72	28	100	Accepted
Tutor marked assignments cover adequately what is in the content	330	124	454	70	26	96	Accepted
Illustrations in course materials are adequate	264	210	474	56	44	100	Not Accepted
Illustrations aid proper understanding of the content	336	138	474	71	29	100	Accepted
Illustrations are highly relevant	336	138	474	71	29	100	Accepted
Course materials are suitable for the specific programmes	348	126	474	73	27	100	Accepted
The references are current	288	196	484	61	41	102	Accepted

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The references and further readings are relevant and readily accessible	234	240	474	49	51	100	Not Accepted
The table and figures as well as other illustrations are inserted in appropriate places	330	144	474	70	30	100	Accepted
The language is learner-friendly	366	108	474	77	23	100	Accepted
The text is written in simple and short sentences	324	150	474	68	32	100	Accepted
The sentences are free from grammatical errors	252	222	474	53	47	100	Not Accepted
There are no spelling mistakes	150	322	472	32	68	100	Not Accepted
The spelling follow UK English format	252	222	474	53	47	100	Not Accepted
Paragraphs are arranged in logical sequence	312	152	464	66	32	98	Accepted
There is no inconsistency in spellings	192	282	474	41	59	100	Not Accepted
The quotations are properly referenced and cited	282	192	474	59	41	100	Not Accepted
The punctuations are appropriately placed	300	174	474	63	37	100	Accepted
The course material is current	294	180	474	62	38	100	Accepted

The criteria used in measuring students' perception of the content of course materials are fairly acceptable as shown in Table 2. The content of course materials meets the need of the programme but the structure of course material is not acceptable by the learners.

Question 3

Do the learners find the course materials suitable as self-study document?

Table 3:Suitability of Course Materials as Self-Study Document

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The writing style makes the learner feel she is engaged in face-to-face contact with the instructor	288	186	474	61	39	100	Accepted
The style of writing is interactive in nature	306	168	474	65	35	100	Accepted
Content of course materials is self-explanatory that learner don't need additional assistance from any facilitator	222	252	474	47	53	100	Not Accepted

There is a fair acceptance that the course materials are suitable as self-study document as presented in the data in Table 3.

Question 4

Which is the most preferred format of instructional materials by learners?

Table 4: Most Preferred Format of Instructional Materials by Learners.

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
I prefer the course material in prints than in any other format	324	150	474	68	32	100	Accepted
I prefer the course material in CD-ROM than in any other format	96	378	474	20	80	100	Not Accepted
I prefer course materials on web than in any other format	120	354	474	25	75	100	Not Accepted
I prefer face-to-face contact with facilitator than any other mode of instructional method	282	192	474	59	41	100	Not Accepted
I prefer radio and television as mode of instruction to other modes	150	324	474	32	68	100	Not Accepted

Learners prefer print mode of instruction to any other mode as shown in the data in Table 4.

Question 5

Are the instructional materials readily available to the learners?

Table 5:Availability of Course Materials

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The instructional materials are made available at the point of registration	72	402	474	15	85	100	Not Accepted
The instructional materials are readily available	90	384	474	19	81	100	Not Accepted

The data in Table 5 showed that the instructional materials are not made available on time.

Question 6

Are the instructional materials affordable for learners?

Table 6:Affordability of Instructional Materials

	Agree	Disagree	Total Respondents	% of Agree	% of Disagree	Total Percentage	Decision
The cost of course material is affordable for the learners	168	306	474	35	65	100	Not Accepted

The instructional materials are not affordable for learners as presented in the data in Table 6.

Testing of Hypothesis

There is no significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate students' perception on the instructional materials.

Table 7:Results of MANOVA of Students' Perception on Instructional Material

	N	Wilks' Lambda	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
No Response	24	0.140	18.02	0.000	0.63
Undergraduate	318				
Postgraduate	132				

$P < 0.05$

The data in Table 7 showed a sig value of 0.000. Since the sig value is less than the alpha value of 0.05 it could therefore be said that there is a significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate students perception on the instructional materials. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. To find out where the difference lies, Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests analysis was carried out and it was discovered that the undergraduate and postgraduate students' perception were statistically significantly different between 'No Response' and undergraduate and 'No Response' and postgraduate. Therefore, considering only those that responded, it could be concluded that the perception of undergraduate students were not statistically significantly different from that of the postgraduate students. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained.

Discussion

Instructional materials play a significant role in open and distance education. They serve as the major means of instruction. For instructional materials to meet this purpose, there are some characteristics that need to be met. The findings of the study revealed acceptance of the physical appearance of the course materials by the students. They further agreed that the materials are handy and make reading convenient. Also, students found the content of course materials adequate for the programmes, but not satisfied with the structure. The illustrations in the course materials, references, sentence structure, grammatical usage and paragraphing were found inadequate. This supports the works of Kurmar (2000) who identified the characteristics of a good instructional materials to be self-explanatory, self-contained, self-directed, self-motivating, self-

evaluative and self-learning. Rowntree (1986) asserted that self-instructional materials must carry out all the functions of a teacher and to Lockwook (1997), self-instructional materials arouse interest. Osei and Saah (2008) also upheld that print format allows readers access to any section in any order for any length of time. The findings implied that the course materials have not fully bridge the gap of the teacher if the illustrations are inadequate and student needs extra support in understanding grammatical usage.

The course materials were found to be fairly adequate as self-study materials and therefore need the assistance of facilitators. Also from the findings, the print mode of instructional material was most preferred by the learners. This supports Swedish researchers who believed reading on paper is better. Lewis (1985) and Holmbeg (1989) opined that print is by far the most used medium and is considered the most important medium in the presentation of learning materials by distance educators. Bates (1982) noted that the print is the most convenient and flexible medium for the presentation of new information and new ideas and can be used by students selectively and at their own pace.

The students may have preferred the print mode because of its interactivity, which was found to be lacking in the electronic mode. It could be because developing electronic mode is more expensive, lack of consistent power supply and limited bandwith. The university has not been able to standardise this mode to meet the self-study format required. This supports Darkwa and Mazibuko (2000) who observed that limited use of ICT for information delivery may be attributed to unavailability and unreliability of power supply and low bandwith.

The instructional materials are not readily available to learners. The course materials are not affordable for learners. This contradicts Osei and Saah (2008) who said that print is inexpensive. However, this may be subject to a comparism between the print and other forms of instructional materials.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion, the criteria for determining quality of instructional materials include physical appearance, adequacy of content and adequacy of structure required for self-study materials. NOUN meets the requirement of preparing self-study instructional materials.

However, improvement is required especially in the structure. Based on this, the following are recommended:

1. The illustrations, referencing/further readings and structure editing should be improved upon. The further reading should be accessible and relevant to the topics. The structure editors should be more careful in their editing; if possible peer checking of structure editing may be used.
2. The content should be reviewed as at when due to keep the materials current.
3. The electronic materials should be made more interactive for effective use.
4. Instructional designers should be effectively used at every stage to achieve a well presented self-study materials .

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TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF ONLINE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SERVICES: IMPLICATIONS FOR MID-CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
The knowledge, attitude and perception of online guidance and counselling by mid-childhood education teachers were investigated in this study. A sample of 225 teachers were drawn from private primary schools in south west Nigeria. A researcher constructed and validated questionnaire of the Likert form was used to collect data. Chi-square statistics was used to analysed the data. The results of the study revealed that the teachers differed widely in their knowledge, their attitudes were not focused and their perceptions of e-counselling were dissimilar. The implication of the results include that the teachers were unfamiliar with e-counselling. It was recommended that teachers' training colleges introduced e-counselling in their courses and that states organize workshops and seminars on e-counselling for practising teachers.

Key words: *Attitude, Knowledge, Online, Perception, Mid-Childhood* and *Counselling*

Introduction

Guidance and Counselling has been practiced in both educational and social settings for a long time. Through guidance and counselling, the services, skills, knowledge and advice of a professional or trained counsellor is made available to a needy individual who has no such knowledge or skill. In education, guidance and counselling services involve trained counsellors or professional counsellors interacting with learners and providing them with pieces of advise, available options or choices and the implications of the choices or otherwise. Educational

guidance and counselling is provided in schools in most progressive nations in order to help the learners make optimum use of the educational opportunities provided for them.

With the introduction of the computer, more ways of making guidance and counselling available to a very wide audience became possible (Barak, 1999). The availability of the Internet multiplied the opportunity by a very wide factor. This became the major source for electronic counselling practice (Barak, 1999; Hart, 2008). Currently, electronic counselling has become available even in third world countries, such as Nigeria. Electronic counselling also called online counselling is gaining increased usage in educational and even social settings. Online counselling permits information searchers to log on to search, browse, copy, and print data in different types of data bases (Bamiro, Oluleye & Tiamiyu, 2006). These authors observed that the unlimited access which online facilities have provided to learners everywhere has been unprecedented. Thus, any learner who has access to a functional computer anywhere can roam the World Wide Web (www) for information or counselling, using a wireless connection or a link through a cable telephone.

There exists however the problem that most teachers and other conservative people in the educational sector often view with disdain, the use of innovations and innovative practices in the process of education (Trepal, Haberstroh, Duffey, & Evans, 2007). Such teachers are suspicious of these innovations and often query the legitimacy of their use. They feel unsure of their ability to cope with the demands of these innovative practices, therefore they shy away from any attempt to learn or use the innovations. There is a likelihood that this same condition may apply to on-line counselling in Nigeria because the use of Internet service is a relatively new approach to education in Nigeria. Most teachers for now seem to have little knowledge or practice of computer and computing. It is suspected that the possession of computer knowledge and practice may affect teachers' disposition and attitude to online counselling.

Some researchers believe that the computer is one of the major innovations of the twentieth century which has contributed immensely to the service of humanity (Bamiro, Oluleye & Tiamiyu, 2006). This is because of the great roles which the computer has played in every aspect in the service of the society such as; in commerce,

education, medicine, information, in leisure, entertainment, storage and dissemination of information. But more importantly, computers have found great relevance in educational practice, both in the way information is collected, stored and used, as well as in the way of collecting and processing new and unfamiliar information. The computer has been employed both in teaching and in research services. It has been of immense benefit for storage and retrieval of unlimited resource materials. Such materials and information can be accessed by teachers and learners through the use of other computer programmes especially when hosted on the web.

The use of the World Wide Web (www) enables information seekers to access such materials easily. This is the origin of the electronic learning or online learning. In counselling services, online counselling has gained much prominence especially in the developed countries where internet facilities are at the door step of all. However, the situation is not exactly the same in developing countries where computer services are still sparsely distributed, and educational application of the computer is still relatively new. In situations such as this, online counselling still remains a novel construct which many teachers and students may view as unfamiliar. In a state like Nigeria, it is believed that many teachers may find online counselling practice a difficult undertaking to accomplish. Such teachers may therefore have feelings that may vary from enthusiasm to despair; but this behaviour needs to be established by research. However, some researchers see online counselling as a welcome development. Adebowale (2009) viewed online counselling as an exciting new method of helping people through life issues. Also Griffiths (2001) and Gedge (2002) pointed out that online therapy is an advantage to counselling services. According to them, it is highly convenient, cost-effective and provides a way to seek instant advice or get quick and discreet information; it is highly accessible, disinhibiting, less stigmatizing and global in nature as it allows therapists to reach a rapidly growing number of people, given the truly international cross border nature of the internet.

The usefulness of online counselling is no longer in doubt. What is doubtful could be whether teachers in a developing country such as those in Africa South of the Sahara will have working knowledge of, develop positive attitude towards and perceive online counselling as worthy. While knowledge can be easily measured, it is known that

attitude of a person to a thing can be inferred from the person's disposition to that thing just like perception. It is therefore possible to obtain an estimate of a person's attitude and or perception through reactions to things in the form of approval, rejection, acceptance, disapproval etc.

One of the empirical studies on attitude that is closely related to this study is Ellis (1993) study of weekend (Saturday) supplementary Educational intervention integrating science, Mathematics, Language arts and counselling on Maths achievement and attitude. The results of the study yielded positive changes for both mathematics and attitude. Porter (1995) obtained similar results. Other empirical researches by Stahl (1993) Crew (1994) & German (1994) found that there is no significant attitude –achievement interrelationship. However, Orji (1998) & Ogunniyi (1998) had contrary findings. Both researchers found positive attitude-achievement interrelationship. These studies therefore give the impression that attitude factor needs to be more carefully studied in well designed researches.

Going by these views, online services approach is worth trying in the educational system in Nigeria. The introduction of e-counselling in educational institutions in Nigeria pre-supposes that teachers will have knowledge about e-counselling. Since e-counselling is still a novel practice, it is most likely that teachers may have little or no knowledge about on-line counselling. Their attitude as well may be anyone's guess, since most of the time the general attitude to a novel practice is to view it with suspicion (Trepal, Haberstroh, Duffy & Evans 2007).

In addition, Hilgard, (1962) defines perception as the process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations by way of the sense organs. He furthered explained that while sensory content is always present in perception, what is perceived is influenced by set and prior experience, so that perception is more than a passive registration of stimuli impinging on the sense organs. Hilgard (1962) posits that the reaction elicited for a stimulus does not always arise directly from the physical stimulus but may occur as a result of distortions which may originate from past experience, metaphorical generalization, functional inference, generalization from significant person or temporal extension. It is therefore apparent that perception could potentially lead to valid or invalid knowledge and or judgement.

Empirical studies on perception such as Abioye, (2008); Kolawole & Oyinloye, (2008) reveal that people's perceptions are usually influenced by factors such as media reports, gender and purpose of embarking on given activity. Equally Oduolowu, (2001) found that teachers perceived creativity as synonymous with conformity and academic success. It is therefore possible and necessary to find out how teachers of mid-childhood pupils perceive on-line counselling services. This study was therefore designed to explore the knowledge, attitude and perception of on-line counselling possessed by primary school teachers.

Statement of the Problem

In view of an increasing popularity of on-line facility usage around the globe, there is the need to find out the reaction of primary school teachers towards the use of on-line Internet facilities for counselling in schools. The purpose of this study therefore is to investigate Primary School teachers' knowledge, attitude and perception of on-line counselling in primary schools.

Research Questions

Based on the problem stated above, this study was designed to find answers to the following research questions:

1) Do primary school teachers have similar or dissimilar knowledge of on-line counselling?
2) Do primary school teachers have similar attitude to on-line counselling?
3) Do primary school teachers have the same perception of on-line counselling?

Methodology

This study employed a survey research design. It involved collecting data and information from teachers and pupils of primary schools who are at the middle basic level (Primary four). The sample consisted of 225 primary school teachers drawn from ten private schools in four different states in South Western Nigeria. The teachers of middle basic 1 (Primary 4) who have a minimum of NCE qualification participated in the study. The teachers completed a set of questionnaire while the

researcher and the research assistants performed oral interviews on the pupils.

The instrument used was a twenty-five item questionnaire of the Likert format. The questionnaire had four possible responses for each item, of which the respondent was to pick one option per question. The responses were graded so that the scale progressed from high to low if the construct in question was positive or the reverse where the construct in question was negative. The instrument was constructed by the researcher and face validated by two counselling professionals and two childhood lecturers at the University of Ibadan. They were trial-tested in schools that were not part of the study. The teachers' questionnaire had four sections: Section 'A' sought information on the teacher's bio data; Section B ' was on teacher's knowledge of on-line counselling; Section 'C' on attitude of teachers to on-line counselling while Section 'D' was on perception of teachers of on-line counselling. The researcher and the four research assistants administered the instruments (questionnaire and interview schedule). The questionnaire was collected on the spot after completion, while the interview schedule was used by the researcher and assistants to collect data from pupils.

The data collected with the instrument was used in the analysis. The analysis involved the use of chi-square statistic for each of the items on the questionnaire.

Result

Table 1 show the analysis of teacher's response to knowledge item of on-line counselling questionnaire.

Table 1: X^2 Analysis of Teachers Response to Knowledge of On-line Counselling Questions

Q No	Freq	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2	Sig.
(1) On-line guidance and counselling is available only in the developed countries.	Fo	9	39	76	101	3	87.52	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-47.2	-17.2	19.8	44.8			
(2) On-line guidance has negligible benefits for school children.	Fo	15	36	64	110	3	89.97	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-41.2	-20.2	7.6	53.6			
(3) Religious bodies are most suited for providing on-line guidance and counselling services.	Fo	9	31	86	99	3	99.25	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-47.2	-25.2	29.8	42.8			
(4) Academically able children have no need for on-line guidance and counselling.	Fo	6	40	67	112	3	106.89	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-50.2	-16.2	10.8	56.8			
(5) Children should be free to access on-line counselling.	Fo	14	37	63	111	3	92.42	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-42.2	-19.2	6.8	54.8			
(6) On-line counselling is a wasteful venture.	Fo	14	29	79	103	3	92.99	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-42.2	-27.2	22.8	46.8			
(7) Providers of on-line counselling must be good citizens.	Fo	8	41	70	106	3	92.88	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-48.2	-15.2	13.8	49.8			
(8) On-line counselling is only for children of the elite.	Fo	8	41	70	106	3	87.69	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-46.2	-14.2	10.8	49.8			
(9) On-line guidance counselling prepares children only for white collar jobs.	Fo	18	46	68	92	4	120.09	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-27.0	1.0	23.0	47.0-.44			
(10) On-line guidance should be provided for all	Fo	22	40	77	86	3	48.93	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			

children in the country.	Res.	-34.2	-16.2	20.8	29.8			

Key: SA= strongly agree; A= agree; D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree.

Questions one (1) to ten (10) on the questionnaire are knowledge questions about on-line counselling. The chi-square analysis of responses to the questions shows that the chi-square for each of the questions is significant. The chi-square values range from 48.93-120.09 which are highly significant at .05 levels. Since the answers to the questions were distributed among four options and the chi-square values for the questions are significant, then the respondents' answers show a wide disparity of distribution. That explains the significance of chi-square value. This implies that the teachers' answers to the questions were not in agreement. The implication of this is that the teachers do not have similar knowledge about on-line counselling.
Table 2 shows the analysis of teachers' responses to attitude to on-line counselling questions.

Table 2: X^2 Analysis of Teachers' Attitude to On-line Counselling .

Q No	Freq	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2	Sig.
(11) I like on-line guidance and counselling.	Fo	11	44	84	86	3	68.49	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-45.2	-12.2	27.8	29.8			
(12) On-line counselling wastes resources.	Fo	14	35	65	111	3	94.41	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	42.2	-21.2	8.8	54.8			
(13) Counselling on-line makes me happy.	Fo	11	35	83	96	3	85.24	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-45.2	-21.2	26.8	39.8			
(14) On-line counselling is of no use.	Fo	12	39	83	91	3	74.29	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-44.2	-17.2	26.8	34.8			
(15) On-line counselling will provide more opportunity for children.	Fo	16	36	73	100	3	75.11	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-40.2	-20.2	16.6	43.8			
(16) I hate on-line	Fo	12	42	67	103			

counselling.	Fe	45	45	45	45	3	152.93	.000
	Res.	-33.	-3.0	22	-44			
(17) On-line counselling is a welcome development in education.	Fo	22	28	79	96	3	72.33	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-34.2	-28.2	22.8	38.8			
(18) Every child should be given a chance for on-line counselling.	Fo	7	45	74	99	3	83.46	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-49.2	-31.2	17.8	42.8			
(19) On-line counselling makes me reveal my secrets without seeing the counsellor.	Fo	14	42	69	100	3	72.26	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-42.2	-14.2	12.8	43.8			
(20) Providing on-line counselling for children is bad.	Fo	23	43	72	86	4	107.42	.000
	Fe	45	45	45	45			
	Res.	-22	-2	27	41-44			

Key: SA= strongly agree; A= agree; D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree

The chi-squared values for the questions range from 68.49 to 152.93, for 225 candidates at 3 degrees of freedom. All the chi-square values were significant. This implies that the attitude of teachers to on-line counselling were highly different from one teacher to another. While several teachers were fairly well disposed towards on-line counselling, many others were indifferent while still many were unfavourably disposed. The implication of the result shows that there is no agreed pattern of disposition by the teachers towards on-line counselling.

Table 3 shows the analysis of teachers' responses to the perception of on-line counselling.

Table 3: X^2 Analysis of Teachers' Perception On-line Counselling

Q No	Freq	SA	A	D	SD	Df	X^2	Sig.
(21) I am familiar with on-line counselling.	Fo	2	30	82	111	3	129.65	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-54.2	-26.2	25.8	54.8			
(22) I will love to practice on-line counselling in my school.	Fo	11	31	72	111	3	105.44	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-45.2	-25.2	15.8	54.8			

(23) There are no facilities for on-line counselling in my school district (LGA).	Fo	20	33	79	93	3	66.18	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-36.2	-23.2	22.8	36.8			
(24) I will like to train as on-line counsellor.	Fo	16	34	60	115	3	99.21	.000
	Fe	56.2	56.2	56.2	56.2			
	Res.	-40.2	-22.2	3.8	58.8			
(25) Money spent on on-line counselling services is money well spent.	Fo	16	37	60	111	4	164.93	.000
	Fe	45	45	45	45			
	Res.	-29.0	-8	15	66-44			

The perception questions on Table 3 are questions from number 21 -25 of the questionnaire on on-line counselling. The chi-square values range from 66.18 to 164.93, which are highly significant at .05 level. The chi-squared value on each of the questions was significant indicating that there is a lack of agreement among the teachers in their responses to the items. These responses indicate lack of focus on the part of the teachers' perception of their familiarity, need to practice, and availability of facility as well as investment on on-line counselling.

Discussion and Implications for Mid-Childhood Education

It is surprising that teachers hold so different ideas about on-line guidance and counselling. Teachers differ very widely on their levels of knowledge about on-line counselling. Therefore, to introduce on-line counselling will demand a lot of training and retraining of teachers on the meaning, uses or practice and value of on-line counselling service in the education of children. The extent of disagreement in teachers' knowledge of on-line counselling shows that most teachers might neither have heard, learned nor used on-line counselling. Furthermore, there is lack of agreement on the attitude of teachers to online counselling in schools. This finding is in line with Stahl (1993), Crew (1994) & German (1994), who found that there is no significant attitude-achievement interrelationship. This is unlike Orji (1998) and Ogunniyi (1998) who found significant attitude and achievement

change. Therefore, the result suggests further empirical studies with other samples to see whether a different result will emerge.

For perception, the data analysis shows lack of agreement on factors that lead to teachers' perception of on-line counselling. The results is not in agreement with Abioye (2008), Kolawole and Oyinloye (2008) who obtained a significant relationship between perception and various factors such as gender and purpose. It is therefore necessary to re-examine the availability of such services in teacher training institutions and other youth development services. The provision of learning resources like Internet, modern textbooks, e-library services, are the types of resources that could provide teachers with the requirements for on-line counselling services

The implication is that when teachers generally do not have functional content area knowledge, as important as this knowledge is for on-line counselling, then such teachers should be considered unsuitable for the guidance of learning activities of childhood learners. The state should make up for this observed deficiency in serving primary school teachers. One of the solutions of the problem is for the state to review the curricula of teacher education institutions and infuse sufficient content knowledge for trainee teachers on the meaning, purposes, use and application of on-line counselling and also provide sufficient practical exposure to the trainees. Also, the state should not continue to engage the services of teachers who cannot offer useful counselling advice and leadership to mid-childhood pupils. Such teachers are not suitable for such level of learners and as such their engagement should be discouraged.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study established lack of focus on the part of the teachers' perception of their familiarity, need to practice and availability of facility as well as investment on on-line counselling. The attitude of teachers to on-line counselling were highly different from one teacher to another. While several teachers were fairly well disposed towards on-line counselling, many others were indifferent, while still many were unfavourably disposed. The implication of the result shows that there is no agreed pattern of disposition by the teachers towards on-line counselling.

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

(1) Teacher training institutes should incorporate courses on on-line counselling in order to provide pre-service teachers with some knowledge of on-line counselling.
(2) Provision of facilities in schools and community centres for e-counselling and e-learning services should be actively pursued by the federal, state and local governments in the country.
(3) Some incentives should be provided for qualified counsellors who are serving in the field in order to attract more hands into the field.

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SMALL-SCALE ENTREPRENEURS' SUCCESS IN NAKAWA DIVISION KAMPALA DISTRICT UGANDA

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Abstract
The study established the extent to which 386 out of 2200 purposively selected Small-Scale Entrepreneurs (SSEs) in Nakawa division Kampala District are successful in their ventures, using descriptive comparative and cross sectional survey designs. By means of a self made questionnaire data was collected to answer three questions; 1) profile of SSEs; 2) level of success; and 3) differences in levels of success. Data analysis using frequencies, means, t-test and ANOVA, revealed that more than 56% of SSEs in Nakawa division are men, majority are graduates, below 30 years, 63% are sole proprietorships, 50% employ less than 5 workers and 67% have been in business for less than five years. There was a moderate level of success internally (mean = 3.06) and externally (mean = 3.27). Success differed significantly according to; gender (male > female), education level (graduates > non graduates), age (50 and above > below50), business form (joint ventures > sole proprietorship ventures) and years in business (5years or above > less than 5years). It was concluded that SSEs are less successful internally and more successful externally. Male entrepreneurs are more likely to succeed than females. Entrepreneurs who are educated, preferably up to a graduate level are more likely to succeed than those who are not. Younger entrepreneurs have less chances of success than old ones. Entrepreneurs with joint ventures are more likely to succeed than sole

proprietorships. The more years one manages a venture the more chances of success and vice versa. It was recommended that there is need to promote education of SSEs on formation of joint ventures; anf entrepreneurial skills be made mandatory in institutions' curricula. Avenues to increase SSEs revenue and profits should be undertaken, e.g. forming strong associations, looking for bigger markets, reducing taxes and license fees.

Key Words: *Success, small-scale entrepreneur, venture, enterprise, business, entrepreneur*

Background

In all countries entrepreneurs are catalysts for economic growth through innovation and job creation (Kelly et al, 2011). They are therefore critical to the development and well-being of society. Therefore, understanding their success is critical for proper policy guidelines. In Uganda, local entrepreneurs have not been performing well since colonial days, as most enterprises were in the hands of foreigners. After independence, a few Ugandans in Kampala started small-scale enterprises (SSE) for profit (Musiime, 2007), leaving medium and large-scale enterprises to Asians. Musiime (2007) noted that Ugandan small-scale entrepreneurs (SSEs) lacked skills in business know-how, bookkeeping, and raising capital, which limited their success. This became more vivid in 1972, when Asians were expelled, local entrepreneurs who took or opened up shops in Kampala hardly survived for a year and the country was dragged into business crisis (Musiime, 2007). Of recent, the Government has encouraged entrepreneurs by reducing interest rates, taxes on imported capital goods and allocation of gazetted areas for SSEs (Bbumba, 2009).

Many theories explain factors affecting success of entrepreneurs; for example environmental and individual schools of thought by Hanns & Freeman, 1977 (in Revander & Racculla, 2001). The Environmental school asserts that, entrepreneurial performances that lead to success are affected by external factors, while the individual school focuses on personality traits shared among successful entrepreneurs such as social skills, motivation, need for achievement, need for independence, responsibility, determination and power.

This study was conducted in Nakawa Division Kampala District, the abode of most SSEs, in welding, metal works, sole shops, schools, restaurants and other professional firms. Although Uganda ranks high on entrepreneurial index in the world (Namatovu et al, 2010), mortality rate of new SSE is very high (Lois & Annette, 2005). Ishengoma & Kappel (2008) noted that most SSE in Uganda die in their first two years, majority employ less than 5 workers and contribute less than 20% to GDP. According to Ssempebwa, 78% of SSEs in Kampala are constrained and so have limited chances of success (MoFPED, 2008). While this problem is well documented, a few researchers (e.g. Mayanja, 2001; Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2006) have bothered to examine the extent to which these firms are successful at a micro level. This necessitated a study to cover this gap by examining the; i) profile of SSEs; ii) level of success of SSEs; and iii) establish if there are significant differences in level of success according to demographic characteristics of SSEs in Kampala.

Conceptualization

In order to establish the extent to which small scale entrepreneurs in Nakawa Division, Kampala district are successful, the study involved a conceptualisation and operationalisation of the term entrepreneurial success by dissecting it into constructs including entrepreneur, small-scale enterprise and entrepreneurial success and obtained views, ideas and opinions from experts and scholars in the field of entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneur

An entrepreneur is a person who initiates, organise and re-organise resources and undertakes risks of establishing a new venture (Hisrich, 2000). To Bygrave (2004), an entrepreneur as a person who perceives an opportunity and creates an organisation to pursue it. The University of Pretoria defines an entrepreneur as a person, who sees a market opportunity, gathers resources, creates and grows a business venture to satisfy these needs, undertakes venture risks, and is rewarded with profit if it succeeds (Kunene, 2008).

Small-scale Entrepreneur/ Enterprise

A small-scale entrepreneur is defined as an individual who initiates, owns and runs a SSE. A SSE is defined differently basing on many factors. Richard & Donald (1992), defined a SSE as; "one independently owned and operated, and not dominant in its field of operation" (p.56). Broom et al (1983) identified the criteria used to measure the size of a venture being small or large, as; number of employees, sales volume, assets size, insurance in force and volume of deposits, but this study concentrated on the first three measures.

Entrepreneurial Success

Entrepreneurial success is defined as the level and extent to which the entrepreneur's venture meets owner's objectives and society's expectations (Cohen, 1993). According to Emeric (1998), entrepreneurial success construct involves economic success and entrepreneur's satisfaction. Regarding the later, some SSEs take themselves as successful because their ventures support a certain life style, even though they earn a smaller income than when they were employees. Nieman et al (2003) defined successful entrepreneurs as having a business longer than two years, having more than five but less than 30 workers, making a profit and increase in assets.

To Cohen (1993), success dimensions are grouped into personal and environmental. Personal success includes experience, satisfaction, adaptability and exposure. Environmental success includes relationships with others (e.g. customers, subordinates and friends). This study considered personal success as internal and environmental success as external. Internal success involved personal benefits like increased profits, sales, personal satisfaction, expansion, etc, while external success involved benefits to society where the business is located and include increased job opportunities, output, improved quality, relations, trained people, increased assets, etc.

The conceptualisations above indicate that entrepreneurial success is measured using various dimensions such as personal satisfaction and satisfaction of expectations of the society. Many researchers have identified various indicators of venture success whether personal or societal; Newton (2001) considered increased productivity, competitiveness, market share, profit and opening branches; Bosma et al (2000) considered increased trained people,

satisfaction and long term survival. To Emeric (1998) success can be measured subjectively using perceptions of entrepreneurs and objectively using economic performance such as efficiency, growth, profit, size, liquidity and market share. This study used perceptions to measure their success.

Methodology

The study followed an ex-post facto, descriptive comparative and cross-sectional survey design. It was ex-post facto since the researcher had no control over variables and sought to report what existed (Cooper & Schindler, 2008); descriptive comparative survey since the researcher described and compared levels of success of a big sample of SSEs, using demographics such as gender, age, education and workers.

The target population of this study was 2200 SSEs from Nakawa Division in Kampala District (Uganda business register, 2008), out of whom 1364 were professionals and 836 were non professionals. The sample consisted of 386 SSEs owners selected through stratified and purposive sampling. This sample consisted of 189 professionals and 197 non-professionals. For professional owners, the entrepreneur had a primary, secondary school or a health services business. For non-professional firms, the entrepreneur selected had to own a retail or a whole sale shop or a restaurant.

A researcher made questionnaire was used consisting of eight bio data questions and 28 five points Likert scaled items on success, divided into two; 10 items on personal success and 18 items on external success, where 1 = very low or no increase at all; 2=low; 3=moderate; 4=high increase; 5=very high increase.

Construct validity was used to ensure content validity using factor analysis, results of which showed that the internal questions had a variance of 58.447% while for external success it was 61.129, hence items were valid in explaining the constructs in instrument. Reliability of data collected was tested using Cronbach's coefficient alpha, results of which showed a high degree of reliability (overall Cronbach's alphas 0.914).

Frequency counts and percentages were used to analyse data on profile of SSEs. Means were computed to measure the level of SSEs success, which reflected strengths and weaknesses. For interpretation of means, the following numerical values and descriptions were used:

Mean Range	*Description/ Response Mode*	*Interpretation*
4.21-5.00	Very high increase	Very successful
3.41-4.20	High increase	Successful
2.61-3.40	Moderate	Fairly successful
1.81-2.60	Low increase	Unsuccessful
1.00-1.80	Very low or no increase at all	Very unsuccessful

At bivariate level, the Student's two independent samples t-test and Fisher's One Way ANOVA were used to establish whether success differed significantly according to demographic characteristics of SSEs at 0.05 level of significance.

Findings and Discussions

Data were analysed as they relate to the study objectives and results presented in the following four tables.

Respondents' Profile

Table 1: Profile of Small Scale Entrepreneurs in Kampala

Major Category	**Sub-category**	**Frequency**	**Per cent**
Sex	Male	196	56
	Female	154	44
	Total	**350**	**100**
Education Level	Primary	3	1
	Secondary	73	21
	College certificate	77	22
	Diploma	90	26
	Degree	108	31
	Total	**350**	**100**
Age Group	Below 30 years	164	47
	30 - 49 years	161	46
	50 and above	25	7
	Total	**350**	**100**
Business Form	Sole proprietorship	220	63

	Partnership	80	23
	Limited company	50	14
	Total	**350**	**100**
Business Sector	Business Services (e.g. schools & health)	137	39
	Communication (telephones & computers)	38	11
	Foods and Drinks (restaurant)	38	11
	Stationary and printing art and designs	32	9
	Other forms	105	30
	Total	**350**	**100**
Number of Workers Employed	Below 5	167	49
	5 - 9 workers	36	10
	10 -14 workers	43	12
	15 -19 workers	29	8
	20 and above	75	21
	Total	**350**	**100**
Years in Business	Below 5years	235	67
	5 - 9 years	84	24
	10 and above	32	9
	Total	**350**	**100**

Source; Primary data, May 2011

Table 1 indicated that most SSEs were male 196(56%), compared to females 154(44%). This coincided with Lois & Annette (2005) who showed that female entrepreneurs in Uganda contribute over 45%.

Concerning education level, most SSEs in Nakawa Division were graduates 108(31%), consistent with MoFPED (2008) showing that 60% of the small and medium enterprises in Uganda are started by educated people, basically graduates. In respect to age, SSEs below 30 years were majority 164 (47%) which is consistent with Lois & Annette (2005) that most SSEs in Uganda are in the age bracket of 30s or below. For

business form, sole proprietorships dominated others (220, 63%), which is in conformity with Lois & Annette (2005) who showed that over 90% of the SSEs in Uganda are sole proprietorships. In terms of business sector, most SSEs are in services 39(39%), implying that Uganda's economy is becoming service based.

For employees, most SSEs employed <5 workers 167(49%). For years spent in business, 235(67%) spent less than five years, implying a low level of business survival. The MoFPED (2008) indicated that on a cumulative basis, 37% of the small and medium enterprises in Uganda are less than five years old.

Level of Success among SSEs in Nakawa Division Kampala

Nakawa Division SSEs rated the extent to which they have been successful in their ventures on each item indicated in table 2.

Table 2: Level of Success

Internal Success	**Mean**	**Interpretation**	**Rank**
1 Profitability	3.18	Fairly successful	
2 Business Expansion	2.71	Fairly successful	
3 Improved Life	3.30	Fairly successful	
Average mean	**3.06**	**Fairly successful**	
External Success			
1 Increased Job Creation	2.92	Fairly successful	6
2 Increased Output	3.09	Fairly successful	4
3 Improved Public Relations	3.04	Fairly successful	5
4 Business Assets	3.26	Fairly successful	3
5 Improved Quality	3.70	Successful	1
6 Increased Trained People	3.62	Successful	2
Average mean	**3.27**	**Fairly successful**	
Overall average mean	**3.17**	**Fairly successful**	

The means in Table 2 demonstrated that SSEs in Nakawa Division Kampala rated their level of personal success as fair on all the three measures. Personal success was highest on improved life conditions (mean=3.30) and lowest on business expansion (mean=2.71). The overall mean (3.06) confirmed that entrepreneurs perceived themselves as fairly successful. This impies that where as

SSEs earn relatively high profits, they put them on improving their life (e.g. buying good food and home utilities like TVs, radios, building good houses and sending their children to good schools) than expanding their ventures.

For external success, the means in Table 2 revealed that entrepreneurs rated themselves as fairly successful on four items and successful on two. Their external success was highest on improved quality (mean=3.70) and lowest on job creation (mean=2.92). This implies that SSEs are poor at creating jobs and good at maintaining quality. On the overall, SSEs rated themselves as fairly successful (overall mean=3.27).

Significant Differences in the Level of Success According to SSEs' Demographic Characteristics

To establish whether success differed significantly according to demographic characteristics, the researcher hypothesized that success does not significantly differ according to demographic characteristics. To test this null hypothesis, the computed mean indices in Table 2 were compared with demographic characteristics of SSEs; results are indicated in Table 3.

Differences in Levels of Success between Male and Female Entrepreneurs

The underlying assumption here was that the levels of success do not differ significantly between male and female entrepreneurs in Nakawa Division Kampala. The students' two independent samples t-test used to test this hypothesis are indicated in table 3A.

Table 3A: ***Difference in the Level of Success between Male and Female SSEs***

Measures of Success	Sex	Mean	t- value	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on H_o
A. Internal/Personal Success						
1. Profitability	Male	3.32	4.162	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.01				
2. Expansion	Male	2.85	3.297	0.001	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.51				

Measures of Success	Sex	Mean	t- value	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on H_o
A. Internal/Personal Success						
3. Improved Life	Male	3.45	4.314	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.10				
Overall Internal Success	Male	3.21	4.604	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.88				
B. External Success						
1. Increased Job Creation	Male	3.04	3.702	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.75				
2. Increased Output	Male	3.19	3.172	0.002	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.94				
3. Improved Relations	Male	3.14	2.935	0.004	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.92				
4. Increased Assets	Male	3.36	2.994	0.003	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.12				
5. Improved Quality	Male	3.74	1.119	0.264	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.64				
6. Increased Trained People	Male	3.82	4.860	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.38				
Overall External Success	Male	3.38	3.820	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	3.15				

Results in Table 3A indicated that internal success differed significantly between male and female SSEs (all sigs. < 0.05). As a result, the null hypotheses for all three components of internal success were rejected and a conclusion made that levels of internal success differ significantly between male and female SSEs in Nakawa Division Kampala. Results indicated that male entrepreneurs were more successful than females.

Table 3A also indicated that external success significantly differed for all components except one; improved quality (F=1.119, sig. =0.264). Based on these results, the null hypothesis was rejected and a conclusion made that external success significantly differed, with male entrepreneurs are more successful than females. This may be due to big differences between men and women in most communities of Uganda. For example, in education, men have for a long time surpassed

women, indicating that women skills are inadequate compared to men, explaining why men are more successful than women. This is supported by Mujtabah & Kaif (2011) in India, Tajaddini *et al* (2011) in Iran and so on. The other reason is the traditional inferiority complex in women. A few women put in the required effort and many believe that wonderful gains in business are achieved by men (Tajaddini *et al*, 2011). From the theoretical assertions of Delmar, personal characteristics such as gender impact significantly on venture success (Leavander & Racculla, 2001). Such characteristics according to Delmar are due to societal perceptions of the roles and strength of men and women, which propel men to exert more effort on business and other life endeavors.

Differences in Success among Entrepreneurs of Different Education Levels

The underlying assumption here was that success does not differ significantly among entrepreneurs of different education levels. Fisher's ANOVA was used to test it, as indicated in Table 3B.

Table 3B: Difference in the Level of Success According to Profile Characteristics

Variables compared	Categories	Mean	F	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
Success Vs Education Level	Secondary	2.91	10.635	0.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	College certificate	3.15				
	Diploma	3.11				
	Degree	3.39				
Success Vs Age	Below 30 years	3.06	6.337	0.002	Significant difference	Rejected
	30 - 49 years	3.25				
	50 and above	3.40				
Success Vs Business Form	Sole proprietorship	3.05	13.368	.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	Partnership	3.30				
	Limited company	3.47				

Success Vs Years Spent in Business	Below 5years	3.00	17.413	.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	5 - 9 years	3.37				
	10 and above	3.47				

Results in Table 3B indicated that the level of success differ significantly according to education level (F = 10.635, sig. = 0.000). In all cases, entrepreneurs who are more educated scored highly on the levels of success, implying that the more educated an entrepreneur is, the more chances of success and vice versa. This is in line with the environmental theoretical assertions that certain factors outside one's personality, influence entrepreneurial success (Drucker, 2005). Kunene's findings also showed that graduate entrepreneurs in South Africa were more successful in their ventures compared to none graduates, although the difference reduces beyond first or second degree. Barreira (2004) confirmed that individual qualities such as a degree from a reputable university are a prerequisite for success.

Results indicated that success significantly differed among entrepreneurs of different age groups (F=6.337, sig. =0.002), where the mean success for older entrepreneurs exceeded that of young entrepreneurs. These findings are in line with those of Mujtabah & Kaif (2011) in India and Kumar & Jain (2010) in Afghanistan. However, Kunene (2008) found that although the level of success for older entrepreneurs was slightly higher than that of the young, the difference was not statistically significant. This study found that the higher the age, the higher the level of success and vice versa, contrary to the findings of Kunene (2008) that at a very high age, success levels are lower, agreeing with Rwigema & Venter (2004) that at a certain maximum age of 80, success levels are lower.

Table 3B indicated that success differs significantly according to business form (F=13.368, sig. = 0.000), suggesting that partnership and limited company ventures are more likely to succeed than sole proprietorships. These findings agree with Kunene (2008), where there were more sole proprietorship entrepreneurs who were less successful and more joint venture entrepreneurs who were more successful.

Results in Table 3B indicate that success differed significantly according to number of years spent in business (F=17.413, sig. = 0.000), suggesting that the more years one spends in business, the more

chances of success and vice versa. This implies that it takes time for novice to achieve objectives. The findings agree with those of Kunene (2008), Barreira (2004) and Fielden *et al* (2000). All collaborate that the more years one manages a business, the more experience one acquires and the more chances of success.

Conclusions

It was observed that the level of external success among SSEs in Kampala is generally high, on aspects like job creation, quality and number of trained people. Most SSEs in Kampala are graduates, which is good to hear because such people are easy and good to deal with when spreading new ideas, especially those concerning business development.

Nakawa Division SSEs are least successful on most internal dimensions such as expansion (opening up another branch and increasing assets), business profitability and improved life. On external success, they are weak in training workers, maintaining adequate stock, public relations (e.g. instilling confidence in employees and customers and attending social functions).

The level of internal success differed significantly between male and female entrepreneurs in Nakawa Division. Men were more likely to succeed in a business than women. The level of external success significantly differed between male and female entrepreneurs. Male entrepreneurs in Nakawa Division were more successful compared to female entrepreneurs.

The level of success differed significantly among entrepreneurs of different educational levels, with graduates exhibiting higher success levels compared to those at lower educational levels. However, the extent of business expansion and quality improvement did not significantly differ according to education level, although graduate entrepreneurs are still at advantage. Therefore, entrepreneurs who are educated, preferably up to a graduate level are more likely to succeed in business both internally and externally.

Generally, the level of success significantly differed according to age, where by SSEs who are higher in age are more likely to succeed compared to those of low age. However, levels of business expansion, improved relations, increased assets and quality did not increase with increase in one's age.

The level of success significantly differed among SSEs of different business forms. There tended to be more success with joint ventures compared to sole proprietorships. However, quality improvement did not differ among entrepreneurs of different business forms.

The level of success differed significantly according to number of years spent. The more years an entrepreneur manages a venture, the more chances of success and vice versa.

Recommendations

From the findings and conclusions reached in this study, the following recommendations are made.

a) There is need by the government and women organisations to promote more women entrepreneurs in Nakawa Division, in order to promote gender equality in business and economic growth.

b) There is need for the curriculum developers to promote entrepreneurial skills in universities and other training institutions. This study found more graduate entrepreneurs and diploma holders, therefore introducing entrepreneurial skills in training courses will go a long way in boosting performance of these entrepreneurs.

c) The attention of organisations and authorities responsible for promoting entrepreneurs in Uganda and Nakawa Division in particular should be put on young entrepreneurs since they are the majority in Kampala.

d) There is need by the entrepreneurship organisations to educate SSEs in Nakawa Division Kampala on formation of joint ventures since most of them are still running sole proprietorships, which are more prone to risks and can hardly get assistance from organisations and loans from financial institutions.

e) Small-scale entrepreneurs need to put much more effort on how to open up branches but must also be careful of when to do it to avoid ruining the mother branch and assets acquisition in their businesses as this helps in consolidating the business and increasing their wealth, other than keeping liquid cash, which can lose value and can easily be spent on less important and unplanned things. In all the efforts to open up another branch,

the entrepreneur must consolidate the first branch or look for partners in the second branch. Kampala SSEs also need to look for avenues of increasing their revenue and profits. They can do this by forming strong associations through which they can collectively bargain for higher prices, look for bigger markets and advocate for reduced taxes among other things. The government also needs to help SSEs increase their revenue and profits, through reducing taxes and license fees.

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THE EFFECT OF ICT BASED INSTRUCTIONS ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS BIOLOGY IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN IKENNE LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OGUN STATE.

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Abstract
The study investigated the effect of ICT based instructions on students' attitude towards Biology in selected secondary schools in Ikenne Local Government Area of Ogun State. The study adopted a pre-test, post-test, control group, quasi experimental design using a sample of 240 (126 male and 114 female) SS. Two Biology students from 4 senior secondary schools, two from rural and two from urban, randomly selected from Ikenne Local Government Area of Ogun State. Five validated instruments were used (SAS, BICT, TIGBICT, TIGBCI and ESAT) . Two null hypotheses were generated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. Mean, Standard deviation and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) were used to analyze the data collected using the pre-test scores as covariates. Also, multiple classification analysis was employed to show the magnitude of various groups. The result indicated significant difference between students exposed to ICT software

presentation and control group. Appropriate recommendations were also highlighted for the use of ICT based instructions.

Introduction

The application of appropriate computer technologies to the processing of information is known as Information Technology (IT). When information is combined with tele-communication, this gives rise to Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Although there are many aspects of computing today, the major concern is ICT as it relates to dissemination of information and teaching in education. ICT related tools and gadgets are radio, television, computers, handsets, satellite, personal digital assistance (PDA), etc. The application of ICT as a means of facilitating delivering quality teaching has been a topic of discussion by several authors in the past one decade. It has been studied from different perspectives and referred to by different names. Some of such names include projected and electronic learning aids (Awariale 2004 as cited by Sodiq 2008). He described projected and electronic learning aids as those teaching aids that require projection and electricity before they can be used for teaching and learning. They include radio, tape recorder, videotape, compact disks (CD), overhead projector, slide projector, opaque projector, television, film strips and motion pictures. These days, CDs usually accompany foreign textbooks. They often contain textual or speech technology instructions.

The very nature of scientific knowledge provides the opportunity for pupils to be able to develop ICT skills as they learn science and also develop scientific skills. The use of ICT has enhanced many skills (observing, manipulating, classifying, inferring, hypothesizing, e.t.c) that are important to becoming a scientist and which we try and teach our pupils in science. This implies that introducing ICT into science teaching serves dual roles. Firstly, pupils develop ICT skills and acquire science concepts. For example, Booham (1994) was of the opinion that students using ICT develop new strategies for solving problems, also they learn to build models by creating entirely new rules. They complete tasks of greater cognitive complexity (Wideman and Owston, 1988), they develop higher-order thinking (Cathcart 1990) and they engage in casual reasoning. All these were discoveries made by researchers who investigated the use of computer-based simulations and modeling techniques.

However, the teaching of Biology requires a well-balanced broad-based educational system that allows for thorough development of individual skills. Biology is a unique life subject which promotes the acquisition of specialized science skills and knowledge and such skills and knowledge enhance some special career opportunities and enable us to have a meaningful life in the society. The study of the subject has provided useful information that has formed the logical basis for genetic counseling and provision of logical solution in certain cases of disputed paternity and the general well-being of individuals.

The concept of attitude is not only indispensable to social psychology but also to the psychology of personality and that of learning in general.The concept of attitude arises from attempts to account for observed regularities in the behaviour of individual persons. The quality of one's attitudes is judged from the observable and evaluative response he tends to make. More often than not, attitude held by others are not directly observable, they must be inferred from behaviours.

Attitudes are predispositions to classify sets of objects or events and to react to them with some degree of evaluation consistency. While attitudes logically are hypothetical constructs, they are manifested in conscious experience, verbal reports, gross behaviour and psychological system. Ajiboye, Adu and Amosun (2005) as cited by Olatundun (2008) defined attitude as a mental predisposition to act and it is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. Students generally have attitude that focus on objects, people or instructions.

Various authors have also defined attitude in different ways. Allport (1996) as cited in Odutola (2009) defined attitude as that which is a disposition to act which is built up by the integration of numerous specific responses of a general neutral set when activated by a specific stimulus. Thomas (1998) defined attitude as understanding a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of individual counterpart of the social value. Attitudes are also attached to mental categories. Mental orientations towards concepts are generally referred to as values. Attitudes consist of four components namely; cognition, affective, behavioural and evaluation (Scholl 2002). Attitude has many attributes; it implies an established state of readiness and action tendencies. Attitude can be learned or acquired.

Attitude can exert a potent influence on an individual serving as motives, incentives and drives in attaining a goal. Attitude is evaluating in nature and such evaluations are based on beliefs. It is also said to be learned out of experience, therefore it could be changed.

The researcher considers that the attitude of learners to the teaching and learning of Biology is one of the variables that could be determined by his/her achievement in the subject, in the use of ICT in test and examination, be it internal or external. Hoffman (2001) suggested that successful implementation of ICT needs to address five interlocking frameworks for change: the infrastructure, attitude, and staff development support (technical and administrative), sustainability and transferability. There are different kinds of ICTs implementation at teaching and learning such as tele and video-conferencing and e-learning tools. These products can be used in education for different purposes. Some of them help students with their learning by improving the communication between them and instructors (Valasidou and Bousiou, 2005).

Odinko (2002) quoting Warwick (1992) identified the effects school location has on resource provision for effective teaching and learning. According to him, schools cited-in- cities typically have better resources and better qualified teachers because they prefer to live in where more intellectual aiding materials are available. Oyeboade (1999) attributed to economic conditions of rural dwellers which may not have predisposed them to send their children to school. As a result of the above finding, one can conclude that schools situated in the less city area are likely to have smaller population which will in turn affect their income. Thus, less intellectual stimulating materials will be provided by the owners of such schools. Salaries of school teachers in the public schools irrespective of school locations are paid according to qualifications, year of graduation from school and teaching experience. Though salaries are generally the same for teachers on the same grade level in public schools, teachers in the urban tend to be mind-committed to their jobs than those in the less city because most teachers in less-city also preferred to remain in the urban than travelling daily to their place of work or get late to work while some just absent themselves from school without proper permission from the school authority.

In other word, well educated urban dwellers prepared their children for school more adequately than the less educated less city dwellers. The result therefore is that students from the former background often succeed in their studies.

Statement of the Problem

The use of ICT to aid instruction has been advocated in many places of work and in the educational sector. And in Nigeria, several articles have been put forward for the quick integration of ICT into the Nigerian schools' instructional systems.

However, Biology is a life subject which needs to be taught practically. Departing from the traditional method and using ICT to teach Biology is an innovation. The need for ICT in Biology instruction calls for the main purpose of this research. The effect of ICT instruction on Senior Secondary School students' attitude is what the study seeks to find. ICT has proved to be very useful in teaching of some subjects thus we need to know how useful and effective the use of this method will be in Biology instruction.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses have been generated for this study:

Ho1 There is no significant main effect of treatment on Biology attitude.

HO_2 There is no significant main effect of gender on Biology attitude.

Methodology

The research design is pre-test, post-test, control group, quasi-experimental design. The subjects of the study were divided into experimental group and control group**.**

There were five research instruments designed and used by the researcher in this study. These are:

(1) Students Attitude Scales (SAS)

(2) Biology ICT - Based Instruction (BICT)

(3) Teachers Instructional Guide for Biology ICT-Based Instruction (TIGBICT)

(4) Teachers Instructional Guide for Biology Conventional Instruction (TIGBCI)

(5) Assessment sheet for Evaluating Teachers during Training (ASET)

SAS contained 16 items which was developed by the researcher. It was divided into two sections. Section A was demographic which sought information on the name of the school, name of the group, gender, school's location, and time allowed for the test. Section B aimed at assessing student's attitude toward biology with four point Likert scale .The test instrument was examined by experts' teachers in the field of Biology to give it face and content validity. The instrument was also examined by researcher's supervisor to make sure that the items measure the intended contents. The instrument was trial-tested and Cronbach Alpha measure was used. The reliability coefficient of the test was calculated as 0.81

BICT and TIGBICT were used for the training of the teachers in experimental schools which is meant for their conformity. TIGBCI was used to train teachers in control schools to see that there is uniformity in their teaching in the class. ASET is the assessment sheets that were used to score the trained teachers and the students on the role play i.e whether they perform actively or not in the class during the lesson.

The researcher took permission from the principals of the schools involved for the study in order to get support from the Computer teachers, Biology teachers and the entire S.S 2 students. The two groups for the treatment were selected randomly from each of the four schools; two schools from rural and two schools from urban in local government. This random sampling was used to select intact classes that were used in each school.

The researcher trained the participating teachers in their different schools which lasted for two weeks. This training made the teachers involved to acquire the necessary procedure and competency to carry the treatment out as it should be done. The teachers were instructed of the importance of the strategies assigned to them to render for the students of the groups in order to achieve the best result in academic achievement, attitudes and skills in Biology.

Each lesson for the eight weeks was discussed fully for the participating teachers. SAS was handed over to the teachers with a copy of lesson note prepared for each group, that is, TIGBICT and TIGBCI. TIGBICT was given to teachers in experimental group while TIGBCI was given to teachers in control group.

After training of teachers, all the students of the groups for the study were given the first test i.e. pre-test by the researchers and the trained teachers.

The pre-test was based on Student Attitude Scales (SAS)

The main Treatment is to ensure that proper treatment is given to the groups involved by the trained teachers. The researcher went round to monitor the teaching and classroom activities by the trained research assistants for each school. The treatment lasted for eight weeks i.e. a traditional/lecture method while the students in the experimental group were taught using the learning software Encarta (Biology) and power point presentation. Six hours per week were used for eight weeks to cover the four broad topics meant for the 3rd term of their academic session which they have had no prior knowledge of before the study. These four topics are Digestive system, Transport system, Respiratory system and excretory system. Emphases were laid on academic performance, attitudes and scientific skills in Biology. After the treatment, the SAS tests were administered.

The data derived from the study were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) was used to present the magnitude of the mean scores and Duncan post hoc test was employed to detect the direction of differences among the groups where the main effects were significant

Result

Ho1: There is no significant main effect of treatment on Biology attitude of students exposed to ICT instruction and their counterparts.

TABLE 10: Summary of 2x2x2 Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) on Biology Attitude

		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Source	Corrected Model	*625.223(a)*	*8*	*78.153*	*24.958*	*.000*	*.738*
	Intercept	*1055.339*	*1*	*1055.339*	*337.022*	*.000*	*.826*
	Attitude_Pre	*3.430*	*1*	*3.430*	*1.095*	*.299*	*.015*
	Location	*105.409*	*1*	*105.409*	*33.662*	*.000***	*.322*
	Group	*227.147*	*1*	*227.147*	*72.539*	*.000***	*.505*

	Sex	***287.200***	***1***	***287.200***	***91.717***	***.000*****	***.564***
	Location * Group	***5.442***	***1***	***5.442***	***1.738***	***.192***	***.024***
	Location * Sex	***.546***	***1***	***.546***	***.174***	***.677***	***.002***
	Group * Sex	***19.287***	***1***	***19.287***	***6.159***	***.015*****	***.080***
	Location * Group * Sex	***.007***	***1***	***.007***	***.002***	***.962***	***.000***
	Error	***222.327***	***231***	***3.131***			
	Total	***156962.000***	***240***				
	Corrected Total	***847.550***	***239***				

A- R Squared = .738 (Adjusted R Squared = .708)

Table 10 above shows that there was a significant main effect of treatment on students' attitude towards Biology. Students exposed to ICT instruction performed significantly better than their counterparts (F_1, 231=1.095; P<.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho1b) was rejected. The MCA in table 11 below further reveals the magnitude of the differences of treatment on students Biology attitude.

Table 11: Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) on Post test of Biology Students' Attitude Scores According to Treatment, Gender and School Location.
Grand mean = 44.18

Treatment + category		N	Adjusted for Factors and Covariates	Unadjusted	Adjusted for factors and Covariates	Eta	unadjusted	Beta
Treatment	ICT- Based Instruction	132	43.00	42.47	-1.175	0.399	-1.706	0.579
	Conventional method	108	45.61	46.26	1.436		2.085	
Gender	Male	126	42.24	42.09	-1.937	0.626	-2.088	0.674
	Female	114	46.32	46.48	2.141		2.307	
Location	Rural	114	43.58	42.90	-0.596	0.174	-1.277	0.373
	Urban	126	44.71	45.33	0.539		1.155	

Ho2: There is no significant main effect of gender on Biology attitude of students expose to ICT instruction.

The Table 10 reveals that there was a significant main effect of gender on students' biology attitude ($F_{1,}$ 231=91.717; P<.05). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. Table 6 reveals that the female students have positive attitude towards Biology than the male students. The mean score of male (X = 42.24) was less than that of the female (X = 46.32). This was further corroborated by MCA on table11.

Discussion

The results of the data analyzed revealed that there was significant main effect of treatment on students' attitude to Biology. Those students taught with computer software performed better in Biology attitude test (SAS) compared with those taught using the conventional method. This result seems to support the earlier studies which concluded that students taught Mathematics and Physics with computer achieved higher cognitively than those taught without computer (Udousoro and Abimbade, 1997; Adeniyi 1997; Hassan 1997; Jonah 1991, Kulik's 1997 as cited by Onasanya et al 2004).

The results of the data analyzed revealed that there was significant main effect of gender on students' attitude to Biology. The female students acquired positive attitude towards Biology learning than their male counterparts.

The result gathered from the present study implies that the use of ICT software presentation should be encouraged in all levels of educational system in Nigeria. The treatment used help to increase students' attitude in Biology.

The use of ICT based instructions for teaching and learning in Nigeria schools should be encouraged or even made compulsory for teachers and students in all levels of educational system in respect of any subject. Quality education should be newly introduced by Federal government by removing inequality in urban and rural schools by given them necessary amenities that will generate inspirations for students in rural areas. This will make them to be able to fit into the society as functional people in future.

To teachers, differentiations among the boys and girls in learning science should be discouraged because gender is not a

determiner for education excellence. Science teachers should learn how to prepare note and instructional packages using ICT software presentation Teachers should make sure that learning is student-centered and are involved in activities that can lead to meaningful learning. In-service training and seminars should be given to teachers on regular bases to ensure effective use of ICT based instructions in classroom setting.

In addition, Government should equip the schools in Nigeria with computers and ICT facilities and other instructional packages so that each school will have access to the internet and students should be given privilege to use it on regular bases. Curriculum planners should enforce the use of ICT and computer training into school curricula where it should be indicated in each subject. There is need for government and non governmental agencies to organize seminars, workshops, conferences as well as in-service training for teachers on methodology of teaching so as to enable us to compare and contrast effects of different methods of teaching on students' achievement.

The use of ICT-based instructional materials was found to be more efficacious than the conventional modified lecture based instructional in improving students' attitude towards Biology, and should be adopted in senior secondary schools.

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INTERACTIVE AND REFLECTIVE LEARNING USING MULTIMEDIA: INSIGHT FROM PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' MICROTEACHING EXPERIENCE IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This study sought to determine the perceptions of pre-service Biology and English teachers on the use of interactive reflective learning and multimedia technology in microteaching. The sample for this study was 40 (20 Biology and 20 English) pre-service teachers who had registered for Biology and English method courses, respectively. The instruments for data collection were the questionnaire on pre-service teachers' perceptions of interactive, reflective learning and multimedia technology; microteaching feedback sheet; and semi-structured interview. Descriptive statistics using mean and standard deviation were used in data analysis. Results suggest that the interactive and reflective engagement through multimedia served as a self motivating mechanism that resulted in students engaging in self-improvement/ self- directed learning activities.

Key words: *Multimedia, Technology, Pre-Service-Teachers, Microteaching, Biology, English.*

Introduction
Microteaching is a critical component of the curriculum for teacher education in Nigerian higher institutions. In the curriculum, it exists as a separate course or an integral part of the subject method courses in the Sciences, Arts and Humanities. It is considered a prerequisite

experience that every pre-service teacher must have before embarking on teaching practice. The significance of microteaching is hinged on the fact that it is the melting point of theoretical knowledge of teaching and its actual practice though under a simulated classroom environment. Over the years, microteaching has been relegated to the background or has become merely a routine and was no longer accorded its pride of place in teacher preparation. Its importance in teacher preparation has continued to diminish and its actual practice mundane, uneventful and obsolete. Yet, the quality of teachers and standard of education continue to attract frequent criticism in the society. There is therefore the need for teacher preparation programmes at all levels of the educational system to rise to its responsibility and begin to pay more attention to the components of teacher preparation programmes in order to engender professional growth and development of prospective teachers. Aspects of teacher education curriculum that aim at providing teacher trainees with opportunities to link theories of teaching with practice thus stimulating acquisition of teaching skills and competence has to be encouraged (Korthagen, Loughran and Russell, 2006). There is a call by Aisiku (2002) for a more authentic, stimulating, motivating and worthwhile teacher education programme that will enable prospective teachers acquire skills that will chart the course for their life-long professional development.

What is Microteaching?

Micro-teaching is a scaled-down, stimulated teaching encounter designed for training of both pre-service and in-service teachers. Its purpose is to provide teachers with the opportunity for safe practice of an enlarged cluster or teaching skills while learning how to develop simple, single-concept lessons in any teaching subject. Fernendez and Robinson (2007) conceptualized microteaching as a cooperative learning experience aimed at challenging prospective teachers' thinking about teaching and supporting their connection of theory and practice. Similarly, Pringle, Dawson and Adams (2003), view microteaching as an on-campus way of introducing pre-service teachers to the complexities of teaching and as a bridge that connects theory to practice. Microteaching helps teachers improve both content and methods of teaching and develop specific teaching skills such as questioning, the use of examples and simple artifacts to make lessons more interesting,

effective reinforcement techniques, and introducing and closing lessons effectively. Immediate, focused feedback and encouragement, combined with the opportunity to practice the suggested improvements in the same training session, are the foundations of the microteaching protocol.

The history of microteaching dates back to the early and mid 1960's, when Dwight Allen and his colleagues from the Stanford University developed a training programme aimed to improve verbal and nonverbal aspects of teacher's speech and general performance. The Stanford model consisted of a three-step (teach, review and reflect, re-teach) approach using actual students as an authentic audience. The model was first applied to teaching science, but later it was introduced to language teaching. A very similar model called Instructional Skills Workshop (ISW) was further developed in Canada during the early 1970's as a training support programme for college and institute faculty. Both models were designed to enhance teaching and promote open collegial discussion about teaching performance.

Importance of Micro-teaching in Teacher Education

Microteaching is an excellent way to build up skills and confidence, to experience a range of lecturing/tutoring styles and to learn and practice giving constructive feedback. Furthermore, microteaching gives instructors an opportunity to safely put themselves "under the microscope" of a small group audience, but also to observe and comment on other people's performances. As a tool for teacher preparation, microteaching trains teaching behaviors and skills in small group settings aided by video-recordings.

According to Amobi (2005) and (Kpanja, 2001), the basic importance of micro-teaching is that of exposing students to their roles as teachers and the realities of teaching. Microteaching makes the teacher education programme, more purposeful, goal oriented and helps to decide common objectives for the programme. It provides individualized training with more realistic evidence to students which enable them to develop competency in using specific teaching skills in view of their unique needs. It also provides a democratic type of behavior among faculty members and student teachers. In the same perspective, micro-teaching facilitates supervision which is not critical on threatening type, but is of a helpful and suggestive type, which

equip them for transition to school teaching. It is a system of controlled practice that makes it possible to concentrate on specific teaching behavior and to practice teaching under controlled conditions. This way microteaching is a teacher education technique which allows teachers to apply clearly defined teaching skills to carefully prepared lessons in planned series to five to ten minutes encounters with a small group of real students, often with an opportunity to observe the result on video-tape.

Assumptions of Microteaching

Researchers (Gess-Newsome and Lederman, 1990; Brent, Wheatley, Thomson & Scott, 1995; Benton-Kupper, 2001) have identified the notion of micro-teaching in terms of helping students and teachers engage in dialogue and discussion centered on making connections between theories of teaching and practice. They assume that in every microteaching experience five knowledge bases are integrated and translated into actual practice, namely, knowledge of self as a teacher, knowledge of content, knowledge of teaching and learning, knowledge of students and knowledge of school and social context. The quality of microteaching can thus be broken down into different dimensions:

i. Microteaching can reduce the complexities of education. It simplifies the study of inter-action between the teacher and the students.
ii. It can develop teaching skills. It provides an opportunity of integration of theory and practice. Specific skills can be developed.
iii. It is completely an individualized training programme. It is a successful technique for individual training and thus facilitates continuity in the training of the teachers.
iv. It is real teaching. Microteaching technique is useful for both pre-service and in-service teachers.
v. It can control the practice by feedback. Self evaluation is possible by tape recorder, video tape or digital camera.
vi. Feedback can be provided by various means, such as criticism by a teacher, preparing video film of the lesson, etc. There is provision of immediate and effective feedback.
vii. Its objectives can be written more clearly and specifically.

viii. Its use helps in the research work related to classroom teaching.
ix. It helps students build their confidence for teaching, and,
x. It inculcates the values of reflective and interactive learning.

Reflective Learning and Microteaching

Reflection is a conscious activity undertaken by someone to recall, think –over, consider and evaluate an event that has already taken place based on certain already specified parameters or purpose. It occurs with the intention of evaluating an event for the purposes of gaining an insight necessary for decision making on future plan of action concerning similar event. Amobi (2005) Freiberg and Driscoll (1992) defined reflective teaching and learning as 'strategies that stimulate students to use experiences to discover learning for themselves and to lead, gain knowledge, understandings, skills and attitudes'. Schon (1983) and Mezirow (1990) described reflective learning, as a dialectic process used to improve the professional practice of teachers. It involves the student- teacher identifying the assumptions, values and beliefs that frame his or her practice and then critically analyze his or her teaching in terms of such assumptions. Bartlett (1990) further pointed out that becoming a reflective teacher goes beyond the teacher being primarily concerned about the methods of instruction and 'how'. It also entails the teacher also asking the 'what' and 'why' questions regarding instructions and managerial techniques not as an end but as part of broader educational purposes. At the heart of reflection activity, therefore, is a cyclical process leading to a construction of meaning by the students.

Bartlett (1990) further provided a description of reflection in microteaching as an enquiry that emphasizes an ethics of caring, a constructivist approach to teaching and creative problem-solving. A constructivist approach, as emphasized in this study, also seeks to connect theory to practice and views the student as 'thinker, creator, and constructor'. Integral to a constructivist theory of learning, therefore, is creative problem-solving by which teachers are asking 'what decision should I be making?', 'on what basis should I be making them?' and 'what can I do to enhance my students' learning?' (Meizirow (1990). These considerations confer on the teacher a certain measure of power and control over his or her teaching. Central to any

approach of reflection are four events: the event itself, recollection of the event, review and response to the event, peer and supervisor's observation.

Schon (1983) considered the capacity to reflect in order to engage in a continuous learning one of the defining characteristics of professional practice. He argued that the model of professional training which he termed 'technical rationality' merely charges students up with knowledge in training school so that they could discharge their duties when they enter the world of practice. It is in this perspective that Atherton (2005) considered the cultivation of the capacity to reflect in action (while doing something) and on action (after doing the something), an important feature of professional training programmes in any discipline.

Rationale for Using Multimedia Technology in Microteaching

James Steven cited in Ushigiale (2007) defined multimedia as "a story which combines text, still pictures, video clips, audio, graphics and interactivity presented on a web site in a non- liner format in which the information in each medium is complementary, not redundant" (p.12). Multimedia are the forms or vehicles by which instruction or information is formatted, stored and delivered to the learner or to an audience (Pippert & Moore, 1999). The use of multimedia in the recording of microteaching performance is one of the most effective strategies that enhance the benefits of interaction and reflection in microteaching. Furthermore, videoed microteachings help to promote critical interactive and reflective activity, by providing student teachers' and course instructors with the opportunity to review lessons taught, make observations, provide feedbacks and constructive criticisms. Video recordings of microteaching have since become a necessary requirement for the stimulation of self-reflection for student teachers during microteaching (Lee and Wu, 2006). However, its use has not been encouraged in especially developing economies primarily as a result of financial and time constraints, coupled with the issue of large class sizes in teacher preparation institutions (Karthegiyan, 2006).

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of pre-service Biology and English teachers on the interactive reflective

learning sessions in microteaching. Furthermore, the study sought to determine the extent to which students perceive the usefulness of multimedia technology as a self- motivating mechanism in micro-teaching.

Research Questions

The following research questions were posited:

1) What are the pre-service teachers' perceptions on the use of Multimedia technology for microteaching?
2) What are the pre-service teachers' perceptions on the interactive reflective learning sessions in microteaching?

Methodology

The following section provides an overview of the Research Methodology. The overview includes the following subheadings: design, population, sample, instrumentation, validity and reliability as well as the microteaching sessions.

Research Design

This is an action research, which utilized quantitative and qualitative methods in data sourcing. Qualitative and Quantitative research stems from different philosophical assumptions that shape the ways researchers approach problems and collect and analyze data. Quantitative research uses objective measurement and statistical analysis of numeric data to understand and explain phenomena. It generally requires a well-controlled setting. Qualitative research, in contrast, focuses on understanding social phenomena from the perspective of human participants in the study (Ray, 2003 : 27).

Population and Sample

The population of this study comprised all pre-service teachers in a Faculty of Education in one Nigerian University. The sample consisted of a total of 40 (20 Biology and 20 English) pre-service (300 level) students randomly drawn from the Department of Science and Technology and Department of Arts and Social Science Education, in the Faculty of Education, University of Lagos, Nigeria. These were student- teachers admitted into 4year degree programme. During the first two years of

their programme, the students took compulsory and elective courses in Arts and Sciences respectively. However, both groups of pre-service teachers took similar compulsory professional Faculty of Education courses which included courses in Educational Foundation, Philosophy and Sociology of Education and Educational Administration. The ages of the participants ranged from 19-38 years.

Instrumentation

The instruments for this study were: Questionnaire on pre-service teachers' perceptions on the use of interactive reflective learning and multimedia; microteaching feedback sheet; and semi- structured interview. The questionnaire comprised three sections namely: Demographic data (Section A), Pre-service teachers' perception of Interactive Reflective Learning (Section B) and Pre-service teachers' perception of the use of Multimedia (Section C). Four- Likert Scale of: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly disagree (SD) was used with numerical values of 4,3,2,1 in that order for positive statements and 1,2,3,4, for negative statements.

Validity and Reliability

The content and face validity of the questionnaire and the Microteaching Feedback Sheet were ascertained by submitting the two instruments to two other experts in the area of research in addition to the two researchers. Their comments and suggestions resulted in the reduction of the number of items of the questionnaire from 25 to 10. This resulted in each of the two variables under investigation to have five (5) items each. The Microteaching Feedback Sheet comprised 20 criteria which were reduced to 12. The criteria retained included: clarity of lesson goals and objectives, lesson presentation style, implementation of constructivist teaching and learning goals, mastery of content, teaching strength and weaknesses, communicative skills, time, class management and evaluation to mention just a few. A number of researchers (Vaidya, 1970; Amobi, 2005; Karthigeyan, 2006) have observed that when feedbacks are to be generated from pre-service teachers during microteaching, there is need for the evaluation criteria to be a bit more detailed rather than general.

The questionnaire showed a test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.85 with two weeks intervals between the tests while for the

Microteaching Feedback Sheet, test -retest reliability coefficient obtained was 0.75. Semi- structured interview was primarily used to elicit more detailed information from some pre-service teachers depending on their perceptions of certain variables of the questionnaire.

Biology and English Method Courses

The students who registered for the Biology and English method courses met for two hours lectures, twice a week with their respective course instructors for six weeks out of the thirteen weeks duration of the course work. The course contents for the two method courses covered similar topics which included: objectives of the method course, methods and techniques of teaching, constructivist theory of teaching and learning, students' learning modalities and learning style, lesson plans, objectives of each lesson, roles of the teacher and student in the teaching and learning process, goals of microteaching, criteria for microteaching assessment, use of technologies in teaching and learning among others. Student teachers in the two cohorts were expected to use constructivist epistemological framework in their microteaching and peers were also to assess microteaching performance using the same framework. The lecture part of the course lasted for six weeks of two hours per week. The second part of the course was the 'microteaching session' during which each student teacher had the opportunity to present two microteaching sessions of ten minutes.

Pre-microteaching activities

For the pre-microteaching activities, a modification of the assumption set by Brent and Thompson (1996) was adopted. In this connection, student teachers were put through the following procedures:

(1) They were put into small cooperative groups of four students with each group comprising two Biology and two English Education students ;
(2) The goals and objectives of the microteaching sessions were explained to all the students' teachers;
(3) They received briefing on microteaching guidelines that included information regarding preparation and conduct of the microteaching;

(4) Received instruction on the use of the Microteaching Feedback Sheet;
(5) Prepare forty minutes lesson plan to be submitted to his or her course instructor /supervisor on any general topic of choice for assessment before the group's microteaching;
(6) Prepare a ten minutes, single concept lesson plan as an excerpt from the forty minutes lesson plan. The teaching sessions were expected to also conform to the constructivist's teaching and learning paradigm as well as other goals of the microteaching session; and
(7) To come to the microteaching group sessions with personal new Compact Disk.

Two Digital Video Disk recorders were provided by the researchers. Digital Video Disk recorders were preferred since it is a newer technology and students generally have easy access to facilities around the campus so they could use it to record their teaching in full.

Phases of Microteaching

Generally, the microteaching was structured in four phases.

- Phase one- Pre-micro-teaching / Orientation
- Phase two- Micro-teaching (Knowledge Acquisition)
- Phase three- Micro-teaching (Skill Acquisition)
- Phase four- Post-microteaching (Consolidation)

Phase one : Pre-Micro-teaching /Orientation(1 week)

The course instructors modeled the entire processes of teaching by presenting a ten minute single concept lesson each on a neutral topic which was also video recorded. The pre-service teachers were asked to use the Microteaching Feedback Sheet to assess the course instructors' lesson presentation. During a replay of the videos, students were encouraged to comment freely on the presentations. The instructors (researchers) themselves, also, commented on their own lessons by explaining to the students the thinking behind certain actions taken in the video in the course of the lessons.

Phase two: Microteaching (Knowledge Acquisition) (3weeks)

Two periods of two hours each were scheduled per week for the microteaching. To ensure the participation of all the student teachers,

groups were asked to feel free to schedule their presentations at other times in the week convenient for them and their supervisors. Pre-service teachers each made ten-minute presentations in their respective groups in the presence of their respective supervisors. In each group, during presentations, pre-service teachers simultaneously assessed the roles of teacher, student, classmate and peer/friend (Bell, 2007). They were expected to act as much as possible as the real students in a normal classroom situation. Each presenter made his or her presentation bearing in mind the goals of the microteaching and other attributes and features of good teaching. For every presentation, a student member of the group was appointed as a scribe and had the responsibility of summarizing the groups' interactive reflective feedbacks. As each member of the group made his or her 10 minutes presentation, the other three teacher trainees in the group used the Microteaching Feedback Sheet to assess their peer's presentation.

At the end of all presentations, the interactive reflective session commenced with a time frame of 15minutes for each presentation. To kick-start the process, the Digital Video Disk was played back in turns. For each presentation, the presenter commented first on the presentation while indicating his or her challenges. Peers and the supervisors made observations and constructive criticisms based on comments recorded in the Microteaching Feedback Sheet for each presenter. Evidences of controversial observations were sorted from the video clips. The stipulated time limits for reflective interactions were strictly adhered to. For this reason, peers were often advised to make not more than one positive and one constructive criticism each without repeating each others' observations.

At the end of this session, the scribe appointed for a specific student's presentation presented the groups' summary of observations including areas to improve on. The presenter also was expected to assess his or her video recording using the microteaching feedback sheet. With this self assessment and that of the group, each student teacher wrote a final report on his or her microteaching and submitted the report to the supervisor indicating clearly areas he or she needed to work on**.** The self reports contained 4 sections: an introduction, teaching strengths, teaching weakness and areas for future improvement. Students were encouraged to watch some recordings of students in other groups before the next round of presentations.

Phase Three: Microteaching (Skill Acquisition) (3 weeks)
During the next phase of microteaching, each pre-service teacher in a group prepared a new 10minutes single concept lesson plan based on the topic of choice earlier submitted to the supervisor. The lessons were presented and video recorded. Similar procedure, as in Microteaching session 1, was followed in obtaining the necessary feedbacks. These assessments, as well as the video recordings, provided enough evidence as to the extent of improvement and skill acquisition per student in comparison to the previous presentations. Interactive, reflective discussion sessions were videoed in both phases of microteaching to enable all pre-service teachers have access to discussion sessions in all the groups.

Phase Four: Post-Microteaching Activities (Consolidation): (1Week)
After the microteaching sessions that lasted for six weeks, a questionnaire titled: Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions on Interactive Reflective learning and use of multimedia was administered on all 40 pre-service teachers. On analysis of the responses to the statements of the questionnaire, there arose an urgent need to carry-out some follow-up interviews of some Biology and English language pre-service teachers in order to throw more light on certain responses they had made in the questionnaire.

Data analysis:
Descriptive statistic (mean and standard deviation) were used to analyze the responses of the pre-service Biology and English students to each of the items of the questionnaire. Interviews of some pre-service Biology and English students using the semi- structured Interview schedule were also audio-recorded and transcribed.

Results and Discussion
The results of the study with respect to the two research questions are hereby presented.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistic of Perception of Pre-service Teachers on Interactive and Reflective learning

Items	Statements	Groups	N	Mean	SD
1.	Interactive and reflective learning sessions motivated me to begin to re-evaluate my beliefs and attitudes about teaching generally.	Biology	20	3.20	0.951
		English	20	3.35	0.912
		Total	40	3.28	0.925
2.	Through interactive and reflective learning sessions, I learnt the need to always reflect back on my teaching in order to do better next time…	Biology	20	3.00	0.794
		English	20	3.10	0.911
		Total	40	3.05	0.845
3.	During the interactive and reflective learning sessions, for my presentations, I felt tensed up and uneasy because of the observations and corrections being made on my presentation	Biology	20	3.00	1.123
		English	20	3.05	0.944
		Total	40	3.02	1.025
4.	The interactive reflective learning sessions was fun and I felt 'safe' expressing my observations about the teachings of others and mine.	Biology	20	2.80	0.833
		English	20	2.60	0.940
		Total	40	2.70	0.882

5.	I believe there was no need for the interactive and reflective learning sessions because it merely repeated what we had entered into the microteaching feedback sheet.	Biology	20	3.10	0.967
		English	20	3.10	0.911
		Total	40	3.10	0.928

From the Table 1 above, Biology and English pre-service teachers' responses to Item 1 showed a mean of 3.20 and 3.35 respectively. For Item 2 also, Biology and English student teachers' responses showed a mean of 3.00 and 3.10 respectively. These results clearly indicated that both groups were in agreement with the two statements 1and 2 above. For Item 3, with a mean of 3.00 and 3.05 for Biology and English student teachers, it appeared that both groups of students disagreed with statement 3. However, with SD = 1.123 for Biology groups, the perception of the groups appeared more dispersed from their mean of 3.00 than that of their English language counterparts. With respect to Item 4, with a mean of 2.80 and 2.60 respectively, Biology and English pre-service teachers' appeared to disagree with the statement that interactive and reflective learning was fun and also provided a comfortable environment for self expression. With a mean of 3.10 in response to Item 5, both groups of pre-service teachers disagreed with the statement that there was no need for the interactive reflective learning sessions with the microteaching feedback sheet already used to obtain feedback.

Research Question 2

Table 2

Perception of Pre-service Teachers on the use of multimedia technology for microteaching

Items	Statements	Groups	N	Mean	SD

1.	Use of video recordings in microteaching helped me to focus on improving my areas of weakness.	Biology	20	3.20	0.894
		English	20	3.00	0.917
		Total	40	3.10	0.900
2.	The use of videos in microteaching did not benefit me except for entertainment it offered.	Biology	20	3.20	0.894
		English	20	3.25	0.910
		Total	40	3.23	0.891
3.	I was distracted by the video recordings and so could not concentrate fully on my teaching during my presentation.	Biology	20	2.90	1.071
		English	20	2.85	1.182
		Total	40	2.88	1.113
4.	During the playback of the video, a lot of time was wasted because the technicians spent so much time adjusting the pictures and sound effect.	Biology	20	3.10	0.852
		English	20	3.35	0.670
		Total	40	3.23	0.767
5.	Video recordings of presentations made it possible for me to view the presentations of peers in other groups and to learn and	Biology	20	2.85	0.933
		English	20	2.55	1.099

expand my teaching methods.	Total	40	2.70	1.017

Results on Table 2 showed the mean response to Item 1 for Biology and English pre-service teachers' to be 3.20 and 3.00 respectively. This indicated that the two groups were in agreement that the use of multimedia helped them focus on improving their areas of weakness. However, with a mean of 3.20 for Biology and 3.25 for English pre-service teachers' in response to Item 2, both groups disagreed with the view that the use of multimedia merely offered them entertainment during the microteaching. With respect to Item 3, and with a mean of 2.90 and 2.85, respectively, Biology and English pre-service teachers' appeared to be in agreement with the statement that the use of multimedia was somehow distracting. Table 2 above also showed the mean responses of Biology and English student teachers to Item 4 to be 3.10 and 3.35 respectively. These means indicated that both groups disagreed with the perception that the use of multimedia used was time wasting. Responding to Item 5, with a mean of 2.85 and 2.55, respectively, Biology and English pre-service teachers disagreed that the use of multimedia for microteaching made them learn and expand their teaching method and techniques through watching the videos of others outside the groups.

Findings from the study appeared to indicate that pre-service Biology and English teachers hold the perception that interactive and reflective learning motivated them to begin to re-evaluate their beliefs and attitude to teaching generally. This finding may not be unconnected with the fact that during the reflective learning sessions, the students had opportunities to review their conception of what teaching is especially from a constructivist perspective. Also, as a result of the interactive and reflective learning sessions, the two groups of pre-service teachers learnt to reflect back regularly on their teaching in order to improve on their future teaching. These finding accorded well with Wilkinson (1996), Amobi (2005), Benton-Kupper (2001), Pringle, Dawson and Adams (2003). Although, the pre-service groups of Biology and English students teachers did not experience tension and discomfort while their presentations were being commented on, they did not perceive the interactive reflective sessions as fun either. Perhaps, these observations may be due to the fact that interactive and

reflective learning is a new experience for the pre-service students. An attempt was made to find out why a few of the Biology and English student teachers indicated a feeling of tension and discomfort with the interactive and reflective learning sessions. On interviewing two of such students, it was clear the student teachers were yet to get used to their presentations being critically but objectively analyzed. One of the students responded this way:

> I want to say that I liked the reflective sessions. But people in the group talked on everything I did and ended up embarrassing me.

Furthermore, the findings of this study, with respect to the perception of Pre-service teachers on the use of multimedia, indicated that the use of multimedia in microteaching helped Biology and English pre-service teachers to focus on improving their professional skills in teaching. This result appeared to be in harmony with Pippert and Moore (1999) who observed that the use of multimedia helped to capture the attention and interest of the students. Another interesting finding of this study showed that Biology and English pre-service teachers found the use of multimedia distracting. On further interview of two students from the two groups, it became clear that this was due to the fact that the students were yet to get used to being videoed while teaching.

A biology student had this to say:

> While teaching, the video (video camera) was almost permanently (focused) on me. I could not concentrate fully on my teaching. I mean, I was self conscious most of the short period'.

The second student made this response:

> 'I did not like the way I looked in the first video. I tried to improve on my appearance more than on my teaching.

Studies like Brent, Wheatley and Thompson (1995) and Pippert and Moore (1999) attested to the fact as observed in this study, that the use of multimedia assisted pre-service teachers obtain objective assessment of their microteaching. It also helped them to be specific as to the areas of the teaching they needed to work on or change. Further findings of the study showed that the students disagreed that watching the video of others helped them learn and expand their reflection. Through the interview of two students, each from both groups, it became obvious that

students were reluctant to give their videos to others outside their groups to observe. This was attributable to the fact that they did not feel comfortable allowing others outside their microteaching group to see their mistakes. These comments indicate that the pre-service teachers were self conscious and were yet to get used to being corrected by others. On the whole, the pre-service teachers did not perceive the use of multimedia for microteaching as having no effect or a waste of their valuable time. Hougham (1992), Thomson (1992) and Amobi (2005) to mention just a few, appear to be in agreement with these findings.

Implications of the findings

One major implication of this study is the urgent need for teacher Education programmes in Nigeria and other African countries to begin to pay greater attention to the microteaching experience of pre-service teachers. Specifically, teacher educators especially subject method course instructors need to re-define microteaching experiences to incorporate interactive, reflective learning and the use of multimedia technology as explicated in this study. Microteaching, being the first contact with teaching for most pre-service teachers, needs to incorporate opportunities that will sensitize and encourage prospective teachers to begin early to acquire the skills of constantly reflecting on their teaching for sustainable growth of teaching skills and general competence in teaching. Interactive and reflective learning practices as well as the use of multimedia especially in small groups have been demonstrated in this study to be an effective means of improving student teachers' professional growth in teaching. Also, microteaching sessions for each student needs to be extended to give them enough time to get used to the camera and become familiar with the process and concentrate more on growth in their teaching skills This study has further shown that microteaching experience can be multidisciplinary. The implication of this finding is that microteaching can be effectively managed by any method course instructor provided contexts are well specified and presentation topics are open-ended rather than subject-bound. It is expected that the results of this study, will help to address the problem of large class sizes which had tended to make a mockery of microteaching in some subject areas in Nigeria (Odusina, 1991:49-73).

Conclusion

In concluding this paper, the following recommendations are made to enhance the effectiveness of microteaching experiences of pre-service teachers in higher education:

(1) Teacher Education should emphasize the pivotal role of microteaching in the entire experiences of pre-service teachers by increasing its credit load and status to the level of that of Project Writing in the curriculum. This is in view of the fact that it is the first initial experience of the pre-service teachers that defines teaching as a real profession to them.
(2) Interactive and reflective learning using multimedia preferably (DVD) should be made important features of pre-service teachers' microteaching experience since the ability to reflect holds the key to growth in teaching skills.
(3) Course instructors and peer assessments should be encouraged during reflective learning sessions.
(4) The use of Microteaching Feedback Sheets by microteaching instructors and students should be encouraged as it was observed to compliment interactive reflective learning.
(5) Small multidisciplinary groups are recommended for microteaching as it will help to make the experience more meaningful and manageable to students' and supervisors' respectively. By making microteaching an interdisciplinary experience, method course instructors with large classes can be assisted by colleagues with smaller class size.
(6) Extra copies of some groups' presentations should be made and student teachers should be encouraged to view them with the purpose of learning and enhancing their teaching skills, methods and techniques.
(7) Workshop should also be organized to awaken in-service teachers' consciousness to the benefits of the new microteaching.

Finally, the findings of this study draw the attention of all Teacher Education institutions to the need to begin to accord microteaching experience its pride of place in the teacher preparation programme. The effectiveness and success in the professional growth of pre-service teachers, especially in the teaching practicum and in their subsequent future careers as teachers are dependent on the level of success achieved

during microteaching, which will enable them to acquire the basic teaching skills and the arts of teaching. Microteaching provides an effective avenue for teacher educators to begin early to sensitize prospective teachers' on the need to always reflect back on their teaching and constantly strive to improve on mistakes of the past. Based on the findings of this study, interactive, reflective learning and the use of multimedia and feedback sheets should be an integral component of every education process. Inter-disciplinary microteaching in small groups should also be considered as one of the best practices in Teacher Education in view of the challenges that large classes pose to microteaching presently.

Limitations of the Study

Although, it is not our intention to discourage future researchers, we will at this point review some of the limitations of this study that might be helpful in thinking through potential problems for futuristic researchers. First, there was nothing easy, fast or simple about this type of research and ensuring its rigor becomes even more demanding. Not only was the handling of the qualitative data difficult, but we needed to carefully manage the data. Secondly, the themes that emerged from the interview data clustered within the four phases of the study. It is possible that these themes could have been recorded and further merged together in presentation. However, this study was exploratory in nature, and so the decision was made to display only a few excerpts from the interviews. Third, the process of transcribing the interview data and creating a quantitative data set were all very rigorous, labour intensive and financially involving. Fourth, getting the subjects to assemble together at the right time in the same venue was not an easy task. We had to spend a lot of money on phone cards calling them and reminding them about the lessons. Fifth, a lot of delays where encountered on adjusting the pictures and sounds and this added to the rigor of the exercise. Finally, more Universities and Colleges of Education could have been utilized to provide more insights into the culture of reflective learning and microteaching teaching in Nigeria. Nevertheless, researches involving more Universities should be carried out to properly understand and articulate the dynamics and dimensions of interactive reflective learning in multidisciplinary small groups.

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DISPOSITION OF SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS MATHEMATICS TEACHERS TO THE MODALITIES OF THE STATE UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATION BOARD ORGANISED IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN OSUN STATE OF SOUTH-WESTERN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This paper examined the perceptions of primary school teachers in South-western Nigeria about the in-service short training provided by the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) in mathematics The study was with a view to addressing the appropriateness of the materials, resource persons, training venues, focus of the training, duration of the training, its timing, training strategies employed and the assessment techniques. A total of 340 out of 420 teachers were sampled from whom data were collected using a questionnaire titled "Teachers' Disposition to In-service Training Questionnaire" (TDIT). The data collected were analysed using frequency counts and simple percentages. Findings showed that majority of teachers had positive perception about all the variables of interest except the focus of the training where majority were of the view that the focus was not appropriate. The study concluded that SUBEB-organised training would be productive the more if teachers are carried along in deciding the focus of the training

Introduction
The popular and common assertion that no nation may rise above the level of her teachers is crucial in determining how teachers are trained and retrained in an attempt to provide a worthwhile formal education to the citizens. Nigeria is a nation that still needs to inject considerable improvement into her educational system for it to meet the global standard. To this end so much effort is being made in the training and retraining of teachers at all levels so that its educational inputs and outputs can compare favourably with those of the advanced countries.

Studies (Rowan, Correnti and Miller, 2002; Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain, 2005) have established the importance of teachers in achieving development in the education industry. For instance, Hansen & Simonsen (2001) state that the development and improvement of education is dependent on the professional development of teachers, although issues of quality in education are a bit sensitive as noted by researchers. For instance, it has been reported that available literature worldwide generally acknowledges the sensitive character or lack of consensus associated with any attempt to address matters relating to quality issues in education (Sifuna & Sawamura 2010). As a result, there have been varied perspectives towards the conceptualization of quality education. In an attempt to achieve this, two main government educational organs in the country; the National Teachers Institute (NTI) and the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) through the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) have been championing retraining of teachers both in pedagogy and in subject matter contents to ensure competence. Akerele (2008) asserted that regular professional development of all members of staff is important to maintain high quality service provision in the school system. Retraining of teachers is conducted to boost professional efficiency with a view to improving knowledge and skills that will enable them to perform better, thereby enhancing their level of productivity. Woghiren(1997) noted that the retraining opportunity enables teachers to cope with the ever-increasing challenge of educating the people in the country.

The NTI was established in 1974 with a view to *enhancing the professional skills of serving teachers for high quality education delivery at primary and secondary school levels among others.* The Institute has been making recognizable contributions to the development of teacher education in Nigeria in line with its mandate. NTI gets this achieved through series of motivation provided the teachers during the retraining exercise. The idea of the universal basic education in Nigeria started in the 1950s. In 1955, the regional government of the then western Nigeria introduced the Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy, which made attendance at primary school for the school age children free and encouraging. Later in 1976, UPE was re-introduced at the national level to provide free and compulsory education to children at the primary school level. The policy at the time did not succeed due to several unanticipated problems such as enrolment explosion,

shortage of teachers, inadequate infrastructural facilities among others that emerged at the early stages of implementation of the scheme (Oluwole, 2011). In 1999, the idea of free and compulsory primary education resurfaced with the introduction of Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme to replace and improve upon the UPE. This new scheme makes the first nine years of schooling free and compulsory for all Nigerian children of school age (Jaiyeoba, 2007). UBE was backed up by an Act in 2004. The UBE Act 2004 mandates every government to provide free, compulsory and universal basic education for every child of primary and junior secondary school age. The idea of UBE in Nigeria is to provide a holistic approach by the government to achieve Education for All (EFA) by year 2015. Fabunmi (2004) observed that the programme was conceived as a response to the level of awareness and general education for the populace.

National Policy on Education in Nigeria stipulates that teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development (FGN, 2004). The policy also stipulates that teacher education programmes shall be structured to equip teachers for the effective performance of their duties and that in-service training shall be developed as an integral part of continuing teacher education and shall also take care of all inadequacies. All these, if well implemented, are capable of evolving a well training teacher. However, this is not enough to produce a competent and effective teacher. Diversities in the entrants into the teaching profession is brought about by the nature and amount of training received, their beliefs and levels of motivation, their access to information, opportunities for professional development and support among others (Robinson and Latchem, 2003). Robinson and Latchem further noted some identifiable stages in the process of becoming a teacher. The stages were noted to be five; novice, advanced beginner, competent performer, proficient performer and an expert teacher. They also noted that the journey from being a novice teacher to becoming an expert teacher would be facilitated, quickened and made less stressful by well planned and executed in-service training programme. The idea of well planned training programme is subject to considering the standards of training programme planning, the judgment of the planners as to what they consider as being well planned; as well as the judgment of the recipients of the training programme as to what they also consider as

being a well planned programme according to their interest. The knowledge of this is important because the success of any training programme depends to a very large extent on the, internal quality of the programme and on the external factors that surround the running of the programme. These external factors include, the quality of the resource persons utilized, the environment of the programme and the disposition of the recipients of the programme. Ritchhart (2001, in Thornton, 2006) viewed dispositions as a collection of cognitive tendencies that capture one's patterns of thinking, addressing the often noticed gap between abilities and actions. Dispositions are affective, not cognitive. Behaviours that reflect feelings are observable, but the affect that drives them, is not (Lang & Wilkerson, 2008).

The government through the organizers of the programme ensures that the in-service training run are of good quality in terms of the content as well as the programme environment. What can however not be controlled by government is the disposition of the teachers that are trained. Such issues that determine how effective an in-service training is revolve around the disposition of the teachers. These issues according to Sharan (2002) include determining the kinds of activities and in the correct order that are suitable for the workshop, the seriousness of the facilitators, the academic content of the workshop, the training strategies used in the implementation of the training as well as the mode of assessment put in place to determine the effectiveness of the training. Rebore (1998) also identified issues like misunderstanding of the intentions of the training programme, impression towards the organizers and facilitators as well as teachers' resistance to change as factors that may influence in-service training effectiveness. This study therefore seeks to find out the general disposition of the teachers to these training programmes.

Statement of the Problem

The extent to which the government commits huge resources to retraining mathematics teachers is expected to have started yielding significant improvement in both the teachers' and students' performance in the teaching and learning of mathematics respectively. Up till date, there has been continued worry over how teachers teach and how students learn mathematics. The idea that the effectiveness of the training programmes depends on the quality of the progrmmes as

well as on the disposition of the teachers to the training suggests doubts on the two variables. Studies, according to Oluwole (2011) have however established that the training programmes run by SUBEB are of good quality. There is the need therefore to investigate the disposition of the teachers to the training modalities of the programme.

Purpose of the Study

The general objective of this study is to find out the views of the teachers about the modalities of the implementation of the various in-service short courses in terms of the timing, focus of the training, training strategies adopted, training materials made use of, venues of the training, measures to determine the effectiveness of the training and the resource persons engaged. The specific objectives of the study are therefore to:

i. examine the opinions of the teachers on the timing of the programme;
ii. find out the views of the teachers on the duration of the programme;
iii. examine the views of the teachers on the training strategies adopted by the resource persons;
iv. find out teachers' views on the appropriateness of the venues used for the training;
v. examine teachers' opinions on the quality of the training materials used;
vi. examine teachers' opinions on the adequacy of the assessment measures used in the training;
vi. find out the perception of the teachers on the focus of the training; and
vii. examine teachers' opinion on the appropriateness of the resource persons engaged in the training.

Research Questions

For the purpose of achieving the objectives of the study, the following research questions were raised.

1. What are the opinions of the teachers on the appropriateness of the timing of the training exercise?
2. How adequate do the teachers consider the duration of the programme?

3. Do the teachers consider the training strategies adopted by the resource persons appropriate?
4. What are the teachers' views on the appropriateness of the venues used for the training?
5. What are the teachers' opinions on the quality of the training materials used?
6. How appropriate do the teachers consider the focus of the training?
7. What are the teachers' opinions on the appropriateness of the resource persons engaged in the training?
8. What are the teachers' opinions on the adequacy of the assessment measures used in the training?

Methodology

The study adopted the quantitative survey design. The study population consisted of the 420 primary school teachers in Osun State, South western Nigeria . An intact group of 340 teachers who were given in-service training in the August 2011 training sessions at Osogbo, the Osun State capital constituted the sample for the study. The participants were drawn from all the 30 Local Government Areas and the One Area Office of the State. All the participants had taught for a minimum of five years and a total of 155 of the participants had attended the training workshop for at least two times. The participants were made up of 216 females and 124 males.

A questionnaire titled "Teachers' Disposition to In-service Training" (TDIT) was used to collect data. TDIT had two sections. Section A sought personal information of the respondents while section B sought information on the objectives of the study. The 16-item instrument was developed for the study and validated with the assistance of two primary school Head teachers and an Academic each in the Tests and Measurement and Mathematics Education Units of the Faculty of Education. The instrument was administered to the respondents on the last day of five-day training exercise with the assistance of the resource persons and their technical assistants.

The copies of the TDIT, after duely completed were scored. Data generated were analysed using percentages and means.

Results and Discussion

Findings of this study are hereby presented in accordance with the research questions earlier raised for the purpose of addressing the objectives of the study.

Research question 1: What are the opinions of the teachers on the appropriateness of the timing of the training exercise?

This question was asked to find out if the timing of the training workshops is acceptable to the beneficiaries. Information obtained from the items 1 and 2 of the questionnaire were used in addressing this question. Data obtained are presented in table 1

Table 1: Teachers' Views about the Timing of the In-service Training

Is Timing Appropriate? / Timing of Training	**Yes**		**No**		**Total**	**Overall %**
	Counts	**Overall %**	**Counts**	**Overall %**		
Beginning of Term	07	2.1%	02	0.6%	09	2.6
Middle of Term	00	00%	00	00%	00	00%
Towards End of Term	06	1.8%	01	0.3%	07	2.1%
During Holidays	312	91.8%	09	2.6%	321	94%
Any Time	03	0.9%	00	00%%	03	0.9%

Results in table1 show that the significant number of the respondents; 321 (94%) indicated that in-service trainings for teachers in mathematics are organized during holidays. Out of the 321 participants, 312 (91.8%) opined that this timing is appropriate while only 9(2.6%) were of the view that this timing is not appropriate. From the records of the Osun State Universal Basic Education Board, in-service training is usually held for teachers during holidays. There is therefore an indication that teachers were of the opinion that the timing of in-

service training is appropriate. This timing is considered very appropriate in that it makes it possible to organize it regularly and it also affords the teachers the opportunity to attend. This supports the assertion of Akerele (2008) that regular professional development of teachers is important to maintain high quality service provision in the school system.

Research question 2: How adequate do the teachers consider the duration of the programme?

The essence of this question was to consider the views of the respondents as to how adequate they see the duration of the in-service training. Data were collected from respondents using the item 4 of the questionnaire. The summary of the responses of the teachers was then compared with the arrangement of the duration of training as provided by SUBEB. Summary of the analysis of the data is presented in table 2.

Table 2: Summary of teachers' views on the appropriateness of the training duration

Item	**3days**		**1 week**		**1 month**		**Subject to training content**	
	Counts	**%**	**Counts**	**%**	**Counts**	**%**	**Counts**	**%**
How long should training last?	1	0.3	12	3.5	0	0	327	96.2

Teachers had the opinion that training duration should be subject to the volume of the content of the training rather than making use of pre-determined duration. This opinion was found to coincide with how SUBEB fixes duration for trainings. This was therefore an indication that participants considered the training duration quite adequate. The main focus of this type of training is to ensure quality of teachers. What makes quality in a training can be determined from time to time depending on what is expected and this is why it is very appropriate to allow this expectation determine the timing of the training. This corroborated the submission of Sifuna & Sawamura 2010 as to the fact that there is sensitivity in the character or lack of consensus associated

with any attempt to address matters relating to quality issues in education.

Research question 3: Do the teachers consider the training strategies adopted by the resource persons appropriate?

The study considered it necessary to find out the opinions of the participants as regards how appropriate they see the strategies used by the facilitators. Participants were therefore asked to identify the strategies they see the facilitators use as well as indicate the one(s) they consider more appropriate than the other. Summary of the responses gathered are presented in table 3

Table 3: Summary of teachers' views on the training strategies used by facilitators

S/N	Training Strategies	No of Teachers who identified it	No of Teachers who considered the strategy as individually appropriate		No of Teachers who Identified the combination as appropriate
			No	%	
1	Teacher Exposition	340	296	87	340
2	Group Discussion	340	34	10	
3	Use of Instructional Technology	340	03	0.9	
4	Home work	340	07	2.1	
5	Combination of all	340	340	100	

All the 340 teachers identified the strategies listed in table 3 as those that facilitators use in training as well a combination of all the four strategies. All the teachers also identified the listed individual strategies as well as a combination of all of them as appropriate. On further request, the teachers noted that a combination of all the strategies provides a comprehensive approach towards effective teaching. In-service training is expected to bring teachers up to date on developments in teaching and learning. There is therefore the need for diverse strategies in ensuring that this happens. This is further buttressed by Robinson and Latchem (2003), when they asserted that diversities in the entrants into the teaching profession is brought about by the nature and amount of training received, their beliefs and levels

of motivation, their access to information, opportunities for professional development and support among others.

Research question 4: What are the teachers' views on the appropriateness of the venues used for the training?

This question was to sample the opinion of the teachers on the adequacy or otherwise of such physical resources of the organization of the workshop such as ventilation, lighting, adequate sitting arrangement and neatness.

The teachers were requested to rate the appropriateness of the training venues in terms of their conduciveness with respect to ventilation, lighting, adequate sitting arrangement and neatness. Summary of the responses of the teachers is presented in table 4.

Table 4: Percentage summary of the responses of participants on the appropriateness of workshop venues

S/N	ITEM	VERY APPROPRIATE		APPROPRIATE	
		Number	%	Number	%
1	Ventilation	327	96%	13	4%
2	Lighting	327	96%	13	4%
3	Sitting arrangement	315	93%	25	7%
4	Neatness of venue	330	97%	10	3%
5	Average	324	95%	16	5%

On the average, out of the 340 respondents, 324 (95%) were of the view that the venues were very appropriate for the workshop while the remaining 16 (5%) regarded the venues as appropriate. There were no teachers who said the venues were either fairly appropriate or not appropriate.

Research question 5: What are the teachers' opinions on the quality of the training materials used?

The essence of this question was to ascertain the views of the participants on the appropriateness of the training materials used for

workshops. Table 5 summarises the responses of the participants on the types of training materials that are used and the level of appropriateness of the materials.

Table 5: Summary of the responses of the participants on the training materials

S/N	Identified material	No of respondents who identified the material	Very appropriate	Appropriate	Fairly appropriate	Not appropriate
1	Training Manual	340	340(100%)	0	0	0
2	Writing pad	340	340(100%)	0	0	0
3	Pen/pencil/ruler	340	340(100%)	0	0	0
4	Workshop bag	340	340(100%)	0	0	0

The training materials identified by the participants were training manual, writing pad, pen, pencil, ruler and workshop bag. The entire 340 (100%) participants rated these training materials as very appropriate. Sharan (2002) noted that the importance of the kinds of activities and in the correct order that are suitable for a workshop. These include the seriousness of the facilitators, the academic content of the workshop, the training strategies used in the implementation of the training as well as the mode of assessment put in place to determine the effectiveness of the training.

Research question 6: How appropriate do the teachers consider the focus of the training?

This question sought to determine how participants viewed the focus of the training in terms of whether they were considered

appropriate or not for their needs. Three training emphases were identified. Participants' views are as summarized in table 6.

Table 6: Percentage summary of teachers views on the appropriateness of the training focus

S/N	Training focus identified by participants	No of participants who identified them
1	Primary mathematics contents	21 (6.2%)
2	Mathematics teaching methods content	319(95.8%)
3	Combination of mathematics contents and teaching methods contents	11(3.2%)

These are primary mathematics content, mathematics teaching methods and a combination of the two. Out of the 340 teachers, 21 (6.2%) mentioned primary mathematics contents, 319 (95.8%) mentioned mathematics teaching methods and 11(3.2%) mentioned combination of the two. In terms of appropriateness of the focus of the training, 112 (32.9%) of the participants opined that the focus is appropriate while the remaining 228 (67.1%) participants were of the view that the focus of the training was not appropriate. This finding raise doubts as to the functionality of the training. With majority of the participants supporting that the focus of the training is not appropriate suggests that teachers may not be as happy with the training and the possibility of making use of the learning outcomes from the workshop is very slim.

Research question 7: What are the teachers' opinions on the appropriateness of the resource persons engaged in the training?

Participants first of all observed that there were different resource persons for the different aspects of the training rather than having a singe facilitator taking the entire training. There was a consensus of all the 340 participants that the resource persons were competent in terms of the mastery of the subject matter and effectiveness in answering all the questions asked by the participants. The quality of resource persons featured in a training exercise and the

perception of the participants about them is very important. Studies have reported that inappropriate organization of a training can lead to misunderstanding of intentions. Rebore (1998) identified issues like misunderstanding of the intentions of the training programme, impression towards the organizers and facilitators as well as teachers' resistance to change as factors that may influence in-service training effectiveness.

Research question 8: What are the teachers' opinions on the adequacy of the assessment measures used in the training?

Table 7: Summary of the participants' opinion on the appropriateness of the assessment of training

Assessment method	**No of participants who identified it**	**Opinion of participants in terms of adequacy in percentage**
Paper and pencil assessment	340(100%)	Adequate(100%)
Group assignment presentation	340(100%)	Adequate(100%)
Individual project work	340 (100%)	Adequate(100%)

Participants identified three assessment techniques in the training process namely; paper and pencil test, group assignment and individual project work. They were of the view that a combination of the three techniques was used to assess the effectiveness of the training and that the techniques used were appropriate. Assessment is an integral component of any training. It provides the opportunity to determine the worth of the training. For this to be realized, appropriate assessment techniques have to be used and that the participants should also be seen to have confidence in the assessment process.

Conclusion

The study concluded that the in-service training that are organized for teachers in Osun State of Nigeria are well conceived and the teachers are favourably disposed to the conduct of the training except for the focus of the training where teachers would have to be carried along in deciding. The timing was considered very appropriate in that it made it possible to organize it regularly and it also afforded the teachers the opportunity to attend. Teachers were also satisfied with the duration of the training because it was always dependent on the quantity of training materials to be covered and not a predetermined duration that would make resource persons to either rush to complete a volume of work more than what time was available or not to have much to do to exhaust the time allotted. The study also noted that the training strategies adopted in the training were effective and productive, its focus, the quality of resource person, the training manuals used and the assessment techniques employed.

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COST IMPLICATION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE AND CONTROL OF DISTANCE LEARNING IN THE PRODUCTION OF TEACHERS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The paper examines the cost of distance learning in the training of teachers in Nigeria tertiary institutions, while accepting the axiom that a key function of distance learning is its' massive roles in the production of teachers, which is currently facing the challenges of low enrolment by intending applicants through Joint Admission and Matriculation Board. The study has therefore attempted a quality control and cost assessment of the distance learning and the on-campus training programmes for teachers in Nigeria Universities and Colleges of Education. Nigeria is made up of six geo-political zones namely: North-West, North-East, North-Central, South-South, South-East, and South-West. Thus, a purposive simple random sampling method was adopted. South-West geo-political zone was selected out of which three universities and three colleges of education were randomly selected among the institutions running on-campus and off-campus programmes. A stratified sampling technique was used to select 1,920 consisting of 900 on-campus and 900 off-campus students and 120 academic staff as sample for the study. The instrument used was a self constructed questionnaire titled: Cost and Quality Control of Teachers Production Questionnaire (CQCTPQ). Before administration, the questionnaire was validated with reliability coefficient of r = 0.82. It was however discovered that there is a significant difference in the quality assurance and control between on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers. df =(5, 199), F-cal = .548 > F-tab= .487 ; P < .05 and no significant difference in the institutional costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers (t-cal = .601 < t-tab 1.96 ; P> 0.05) . Also, there is a significant difference in the direct private cost between the on-campus and distance learning

training programmes for teachers in Nigeria. On the basis of the findings, it is therefore recommended that the large number of courses offered through distance teaching should be reduced far more carefully than in on-campus to improve the quality of the course. Differential access to technical assistance, including detailed instructions regarding the electronic media used that affects private cost should be checkmated.

Keywords: *direct private costs, cost structure, human frontiers of knowledge, teacher's social status, on-campus, off-campus, social cost, conventional method***.**

Introduction

Education is changing all over the world, in methods of learning, in course content and in administration. It is changing because human frontiers of knowledge and skills are expanding. In recognition of the changes, providers of education review the educational needs of their society from time to time and tailor the curriculum and administration of their schools to meet the changing needs of their society.

It is instructive to note that there is a departure from the classicalists' view of education as the transmission of knowledge, values and norms of the society from generations to generation. The Neo-classicalists perceived education to be a potent weapon in the arsenal of a nation's developmental process. This is justified by the two key issues facing developing countries in their quest for transition from subsistence agricultural economies to modern industrial and service-oriented societies (Sambo, 2008).

The pride of educational system depends not just on the quantity but more importantly, on the quality of its products at all levels. The quality of the products in turn depends largely on the quality of the education diet that student-teachers receive in tertiary institutions, which is also dependent upon the standard of control that lecturers and student enjoy.

Teacher Education in Retrospect

Making Teacher education an integral component of sustainable development at the national and state levels remain a challenge to the 21st century provider of education. Thus, the National Policy on Education (Federal Government of Nigeria, FGN, 2004) recognizes the roles of the teacher within the education system when it states that "no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers" a statement that made the Policy list the goals of teacher education as:

(a) the production of highly motivated conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our education system;
(b) encouraging further spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers;
(c) helping teachers to fit into social life of community and the society at large and enhancing their commitment to national goals;
(d) providing teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and make them adaptable to changing situations; and
(e) enhancing teachers commitment to the teaching profession.

It is important to note that applications to pursue educational courses in the Nigeria Tertiary Institutions have been very low for almost two decades now and this could be attributed to the following factors:

- Poor Status of the Teaching Profession: In Nigeria, teaching as a profession, has never assumed that status of being accorded a true profession when compared with the other professions such as Medicine, Accounting, Engineering, Law etc. The non-professional graduates who are allowed to teach have cheapened, relegated, and degraded teaching as a profession. This has made people to consider teacher education as a career without prospects.
- Low Teacher's Social Status: The social status of the teachers in Nigeria is not encouraging because teachers are regarded as third class citizens unlike the high social status accorded them during the colonial days. This current poor social status has serious consequences on preference for teacher education in Nigeria.
- Parental Attitude: The parents, on their own part, do normally discourage their children to develop keen interest in teacher education.
- Inadequate Infrastructural Facilities: Inadequate infrastructural facilities are part of the problems militating against high preference for

teacher education in Nigeria. Teachers' institutions lack essential facilities compared with what is obtainable in other faculties or schools.

- Government Policy: The Nigeria educational policy has not really given priority to teacher education as expected. The Government has not come up with road maps which would give priority to teacher education to enable the general public realize that it is the father of all disciplines and that more people should be encouraged to offer education as a course of study.
- Attitude of Non-Governmental Organizations: The Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as Mobil, Shell, Chevron, and other private organizations give priority to other disciplines more than teacher education by providing useful and required learning facilities to schools in those fields. At times, they award scholarships to deserving students for excellence, while neglecting students undergoing courses in teacher education. This invariably discourages other people to go for teacher education as a course of study in higher institutions.
- Teacher Education as the Last Hope: There is persistent lack of interest of candidate to select teacher education as first choice. Most of the students that are offering courses in faculties of education in Nigeria do so against their wish and plan after they failed to pass the Post Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) to gain admission to the original course of their choice.
- Poor Salary Structure: The income of the teachers is comparatively lower than those of their contemporaries in other professions such as Law, Medicine, and Architecture. This supported by the finding of a study by Kazeem (1999) is that teachers and other school workers tend to remain contented and reasonably motivated as long as salaries are paid on time and they are promoted regularly. Eton (1984) also identified the payment of salaries, allowances and promotion as the key factors that shape teacher attitudes towards their work. Amadi (1983) also concluded that the irregular payment of salaries is one of the major problems facing the teaching profession in Nigeria.
- Teacher's Conditions of Services: The teacher's conditions of service are deplorable. This not only has negative influence on their morale and output but also discourages enrolment into teacher education courses in Nigeria.

Meanwhile, no nation of the world can develop fully without adequate trained teachers to train the manpower needed in transforming the economy for better. This shortage of qualified teachers to implement the secondary education curriculum caused by the points enumerated above, calls for a drastic solution which propelled the drive towards distance education in various forms. Thus, a controversial topic in higher education today revolves around the enormous growth of distance education (Novak, 2002; Meyer, 2002).

Distance Education: A Call for the Supply of Teachers

Although there has been a recent explosion of distance education, particularly due to the new technologies available, the origin of distance education can be traced back to over 100 years ago (Meyer, 2002; Birnbaum, 2001). According to Moore (1990), distance education, referred to as correspondence study, began in the late 1800's. Correspondence study was developed in Germany by two researchers named Charles Toussaint and Gustav Langenscheidt, who were both language teachers in Berlin (Watkins, 1991). Another pioneer of distance education is an English man, Isaac Pitman. He taught shorthand via correspondence study in England in the 1840's (Verduin and Clark, 1991).

The concept of correspondence study made its way to the United States in 1873, when Anna Eliot Ticknor founded a Boston based society named 'The Society to Encourage Studies at Home'. Since the early 1900's, distance education has been incorporated into the practices of many institutions, as has the traveling of faculty to meet students off campus to conduct educational instruction (Moore, 1990). According to Meyer (2002), in order to help alleviate the demands of travel for faculty and students, institutions began utilizing available technologies, such as audio connections (i.e. telephones), videotapes, and television, to conduct distance education efforts. These types of delivery methods and media continued to be used, as distance education began to grow as a form of education. Beginning in the 1980's, satellite telecommunications used to transmit broadcasting of lectures and instructions to off-campus locations became a popular way to conduct distance education. From the late 1980's to the 1990's, microwave-based interactive video was utilized, and this method of educational delivery was used until land-based interactive video was

developed and used in the late 1990's. When the Internet and the World Wide Web became available, "a growing comprehension that education need not be site-or time-bound" began to develop throughout university and college settings.

Quality Assurance and Control of Teacher Education through Distance Learning

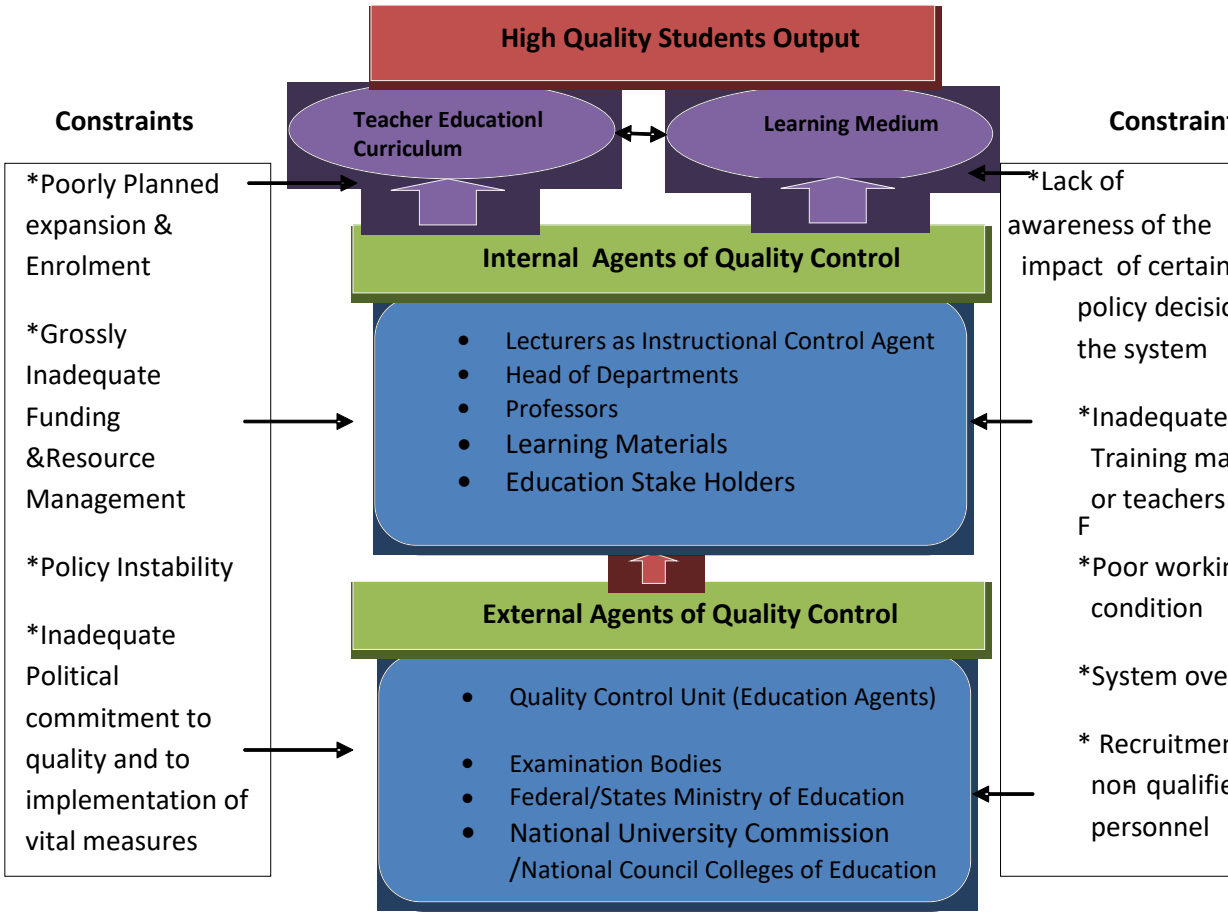
Quality teaching involves a learning-triggering activity, hence, excellent teaching is that which maximizes the chances of learning through the efficient use of the formulation of objectives and syllabuses, handouts, reading lists, teaching materials, classroom activities, choice of modes of assessment, design of exercises, assignments, projects and quizzes, feedback to students and final examinations. All these centre on educational standard which can be maintained and implemented by an excellent teacher education system through supervision. For a competent teacher to achieve efficiency in the output of his products, he or she must have a deep knowledge and understanding of the subject matter, is committed to teaching and is hardworking, continually seeks ways to improve, innovate and be up-to-date, has a strong passion for the subject, has a high esteem for teaching, is an inspirational role model to students, empathizes with students and is eminently approachable.

In order to improve the quality of distance education offerings in practice and research, one must first know what quality is and how to assess quality in distance education programmes. According to Meyer (2002:22), "the lack of consistent, agreed-on definitions for what quality is" can be very problematic. Oblinger (1998) asked, "Is quality assessed on faculty expertise or volumes in the library? Are some criteria more important than others? Further, how much weight should be placed on the traditional input variables, i.e., faculty degree or rank, library volumes, number and variety of degree programmes, Carnegie classification. Which process variables should we use, those dealing with instructional models, attention to student learning styles and other important differences, the use made of technology, faculty/student ratios or class size, contact hours, or opportunities to be taught by full professors? And what outcome variables indicate quality – the final GPA, student satisfaction, alumni giving, or some assessment of what has been learned (if possible)? (Meyer, 2002: 23).

According to Akpofure and N'dupu (1998), the current trends for some decades in quality evaluation and control lead to some concerns as to where the country is and where it must go in search of minimum standards compatible with qualitative education. Basic concern for quality maintenance and control explains the pre-occupation with uniform educational standard in the National Policy on Education (FGN, 2004).

In order to improve the quality of distance education offerings in practice and research, one must first know what quality is and how to assess quality in distance education programmes.

Figure1: The Model on Quality Control in Distance Education



Source: Oyetakin (2010:21)

Figure 1 explains that quality control of instructions entails the supervisory roles of the institutions and the regulatory bodies. Constraints such as poorly planned expansion and enrolment of students, inadequate funding, policy instability, and inadequate political commitment to quality and to implementation of vital issues, inadequate training materials due to cost, poor working conditions, system overload etc. are challenges that militate against the quality assurance and control of Teacher education through distance learning mode.

The quality assurance measures for distance education, identified by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (1998), are similar to traditional quality measures, in that faculty control plays a big role. Therefore, according to Meyer (2002), "accreditation has become a battlefield between those who would use traditional accrediting standards to forestall the changes brought by distance education. The Instructional Telecommunications Council (ITC) developed characteristics of successful distance education programmes in 1998. These characteristics include:

(i) financial support and commitment from all key players of administration; (ii) a strong rationale for utilizing distance education delivery methods in the institution; (iii) a clear analysis of the audience (who they are and what their needs are); (iv) faculty and training support; (v) student support services that allows easy access to the instruction; and (vi) the appropriate amount of staff and personnel to conduct the programme (Tulloch and Sneed, 2000; Meyer, 2002: 78).

In a similar report, *Accreditation and Assuring Quality in Distance Learning*, conducted by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (2002), the common platforms used to assess quality by the eight regional accrediting institutions and the nine national accrediting organizations are again discussed. However, the report provides a good summary of the seven key areas that are reviewed when quality of distance education is examined, which were identified in the *Best Practices* report (Council of Regional Accrediting Commissions, 2000) as:

- Institutional mission: Does offering distance education make sense in this institution?
- Institutional Organizational Structure: Is the institution suitably structured to offer quality distance

learning?

- Institutional Resources: Does the institution sustain adequate financing to offer quality distance learning?
- Curriculum and Instruction: Does the institution have appropriate curricula and design of instruction to offer quality distance learning?
- Faculty Support: Are faculty engaged competent in offering distance learning and do they have adequate resources, facilities, and equipment?
- Student Support: Do students have needed counseling, advising, equipment, facilities, and instructional materials to pursue distance learning?
- Student Learning Outcomes: Does the institution routinely evaluate the quality of distance learning based on evidence of student achievement? (Council for Higher Education Accreditation, 2002: 7).

Perhaps the most difficult challenge is the full control for teacher quality. Teacher characteristics included in existing studies capture several important dimensions of teacher quality, but these characteristics predict only a small share of variation in teacher quality as directly measured from teachers' impacts on the test scores of their students. Moreover, teacher quality is likely to be negatively correlated with concentrated student disadvantage, so imperfect controls for teacher quality will bias the coefficients of the student disadvantage variables toward zero. As a result, hedonic studies may systematically understate the impact of concentrated student disadvantage on the compensation a district must pay to attract teachers of a given quality.

The New Secondary School Curriculum and Challenges of Producing Teachers through Distance Learning

The global changes in event have also brought a change in the National secondary school curriculum in Nigeria. The new policy changed the system of Education from the 6-3-3-4 system to 9-3-4 system. This means that students are expected to spend 9 years in Basic Education, 3 years in Senior Education and 4 years in the University. According to Obioma (2008), the philosophy of the 9 years basic Education was that every learner who has gone through the 9 years basic education should

have acquired appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communication and life skills as well as the ethical, moral and civic value needed for laying a solid foundation for life-long learning as a basis for scientific and reflective thinking.

Also at the senior secondary level, students should have been well prepared for higher education as well as acquired relevant functional trade/entrepreneurship skills needed for poverty eradication, job creation and wealth generation and in the process strengthened further the foundations for ethical, moral and civic values acquired at the basic education level. The new National Curriculum for Nigeria secondary school is relevant to the integration of a complex topic such as climate change into schooling: Learning is more effective when students see the connections and relationships between ideas, people, events and processes, as in real life situations.

Thus, the national curriculum is broken down into different groups

A. A group of 5 compulsory subjects, namely: English Language, General Mathematics, Computer Studies (ICT), Civic Education, Trade and Entrepreneurship subjects.
B. Four fields of studies, namely:
i. Senior secondary science and mathematics: The following subjects are under this category- Biology, Chemistry. Physics, Further Mathematics, Agriculture, Physical Education and Health Education.
ii. Senior secondary technology: The following subjects are under this category- Technical Drawing, General Metal Work, Basic Electricity, Electronic, Auto-mechanics, Building Construction, Wood-work, Home Management, Foods and Nutrition, Clothing and Textiles.
iii. Senior secondary humanities: Under this, we have the following subjects: Nigerian Languages, Literature in English, Geography, Government, Christian Religion Studies, Islamic Studies, History, Visual Arts, Music, French, Arabic, Economics.
iv. Senior secondary business studies: The following subjects are under this category: Accounting, Store Management, Office practice, Insurance and Commerce.

The new secondary school curriculum structure comprises also 35 trade/entrepreneurship subjects: Auto body repair and spray painting;

Auto electrical work; Auto mechanical work; Auto parts merchandising; Air conditioning refrigerator; Welding and fabrication engineering craft practice; Electrical installation and maintenance work; radio, TV and Electrical work; Block laying, brick laying and concrete work; Painting and decoration; Plumbing and pipe fitting; Machine wood working; Carpentry and joinery; Furniture making; Upholstery; Catering and craft practice; Garment making; Textile trade; Dyeing and bleaching; Printing craft practice; Cosmetology; Leather goods manufacturing and repair; Keyboarding; Shorthand; Data processing; Store keeping; Book keeping, GSM maintenance and other maintenances; Photography; Tourism; Mining; Animal husbandry; Fisheries; Marketing; and Salesmanship.

The policy emphasis on environmental education and the fact that many secondary teachers have no training in environmental education, because the syllabus includes climate change topics. A cursory look at the new curriculum demands for a high administrative cost to achieve the stated objectives. Thus, it is necessary to ascertain the cost implication of administering the awareness creation on the part of secondary school teachers who are saddled with the responsibilities of realizing the objectives of the climate change embedded in the curriculum which has definitely change school life.

Cost Implication of Teacher Education through Distance Learning

One of the common analytic tools used in this study is the estimation of the cost structure of the educational production process. Knowledge of cost structure and estimates of efficiency should shed light not only on the expenditure side, but also on efforts to derive useful policy implications for the funding and equity in distance education. It was perceived to be time to overhaul the institutional aid mechanism for funding distance education, taking into account appropriate measures of teacher education need and resources. Oyetakin (2010) notes that in an ideal economy, therefore, total demand for product will be the sum total of intermediate demand for the product added to the final demand for the product by consumers, investors, the government and exporters as ultimate users. The provision of education to the society who are the customers basically will amount to the cost of providing it, which thus lead to the cost of input. The higher the enrolment, the higher the cost of providing education, and vice versa. Enrolment

growth in recent times has increased the cost of free education (Social cost) and the cost borne by students/parent (Private cost).

Support for distance education goes well beyond the university/college setting. According to Mingle's (1998) report entitled, *New Technology Funds: Problem or Solution*, in 1996-1997, legislatures appropriated over $370 million to technology applications in higher education. However, with all the excitement and the potential applications of interactive computer technology in distance education which has various cost implication to both the providers and the beneficiaries, one big question that professionals have been asking for years is, how do you ensure that distance education coursework and degrees are of high quality? (Meyer, 2002; Moore and Anderson, 2003).

According to Wedemeyer (1981), the fundamental nature of distance education is a distinct 'non-traditional' type of education, which focuses on the independence of the student learner. The ideal distance education system that encompasses what Wedemeyer believed to be the essence of distance education is made up of ten characteristics which also have humongous cost implication. In order to emphasize independence and autonomy, the system should:

(i) be capable of operation any place where there are students – or even only one student – whether or not there are teachers at the same place at the same time;
(ii) place greater responsibility for learning on the student;
(iii) free faculty members from custodial-type duties so that more time can be given to truly educational tasks;
(iv) offer students and adults wider choices (more opportunities) in courses, formats, methodologies;
(v) use, as appropriate, all the teaching media and methods that have been proved effective;
(vi) mix and combine media and methods so that each subject or unit within a subject is taught in the best way known;
(vii) cause the redesign and development of courses to fit into an "articulated media programme";
(viii) preserve and enhance opportunities for adaptation to individual differences;

(ix) evaluate student achievement simply, not be raising barriers concerned with the place, rate, method, or sequence of student study; and
(x) permit students to start, stop, and learn at their own pace (Keegan, 1986: 63).

Statement of the Problem

It has been observed that, the problem of adequate and effective quality control has been responsible for production of students who remain half-baked teachers and could not assist the society in which they find themselves (Anderson, 2008). Education has been described as the bedrock of every society and tool for nation building. For quality education to be achieved in a nation, the principal actors of learning: the teachers, learners and the environment must be cooperatively organised. In other words, the teacher must be adequate in quality and in control. Distance learning programmes in Nigeria that are being used to solve the problem of producing qualified teachers through Part-time and Sandwich degree programmes in Colleges of Education and Universities face the challenges of quality and costs on the part of the providers and beneficiaries of such programmes in Nigeria. This situation necessitates a timely study to explore the crucibles on costs of the programme.

Research Questions

The study therefore attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any difference in the quality assurance and control between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria?
2. Is there any difference in the institutional costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria?
3. Is there any difference in the direct private costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria?

Hypotheses

For the purpose of the study, the following null hypotheses were generated and tested.

1. There is no significant difference in the quality assurance and control between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.
2. There is no significant difference in the institutional costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.
3. There is no significant difference in the direct private cost between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.

Methodology

Design

Descriptive research design of survey type was used.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

Nigeria is made up of six geo-political zones namely: North-West, North-East, North-Central, South-South, South-East, and South-West. Thus, a purposive simple random sampling method was used to select South-West geo-political zone, out of which three universities and three colleges of education were randomly selected among the institutions running on-campus and off-campus programmes. A stratified sampling technique was also used to select 900 on-campus and 900 off-campus students and 120 academic staff that responded to the research instrument.

Instrumentation

For data gathering, the instrument used was a self constructed questionnaire titled: Cost and Quality Control of Teachers Production Questionnaire (CQCTPQ). Before administration, the questionnaire was validated with reliability coefficient of r = 0.82. The statistical tools applied were one-way ANOVA and t-test to test the hypotheses, the level of significance used on the study was the 0.05 alpha.

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the quality assurance and control between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.

Table 1: ***Difference among the Means of Quality Assurance and Control between On-Campus and Distance Learning Training Programmes for Teachers in Nigeria***

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-cal	F-tab	Sig.
Between Groups	13.31	5	13.31	.548	.487	P>.05
Within Groups	246882.52	199	41147.09			
Total	**246895.83**	**224**				

* Significant

Table 1 shows that there is a significant difference in the quality assurance and control between on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria. df =(5, 199), F-cal = .548 > F-tab= .487 ; P < .05. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the institutional costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.

Table 2: ***Summary of Difference in the Institutional Costs between the On-Campus and Distance Learning Training Programmes in Nigeria***

Variable	N	Mean	SD	df	t cal	t tab
On-Campus	6	14.64	1.84	11	.601	1.960
Distance Learning	6	14.57	1.95			

NS= Not Significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 reveals a two-tailed t-test performed, the mean difference revealed a mean of 14.64 for on-campus and 14.57 for distance learning. The t-cal = .601 < t-tab 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. Thus, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the institutional costs between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria is upheld.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the direct private cost between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.

Table 3: ***Summary of Difference in the Direct Private Cost between the On-Campus and Distance Learning Training Programmes in Nigeria***

Variable	N	Mean	SD	df	t cal	t tab
On-Campus	900	18.73	3.87			
				1798	164.3	2.08
Distance Learning	900	19.40	4.39			

* Significant at 0.05 level

From table 3, it was revealed that t-cal was 164.3 which is greater than the t-table value 1.96 at 0.05 level of significant. Thus, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. Hence, there is a significant difference in the direct private cost between the on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria.

Discussion and Conclusion

This paper highlighted the quality assurance and control of teacher education through distance learning as a device to march the low application at the colleges of education and faculties of education in Nigeria universities. But it was found that there is a significant difference in the quality assurance and control between on-campus and distance learning training programmes for teachers in Nigeria and this is in line with Allen, Bourhis, Burrell, and Mabry (2002) submission that there is a slight preference of students to take courses delivered in a conventional method over distance education; However, the finding also supported that students are equally as satisfied with instruction via distance education as with traditional course delivery. It is also at

variance with Neuhauser (2002) submission that no significant differences of the two courses in tests scores, assignments, and final grades; however, the online group's overall averages were slightly better than the on-campus group's averages. The argument for the wide spread adoption of quality management in education by Shaw in Adegoke (2003) should be the basis for quality assurance and control of both on campus and off campus teacher education programmes.

It can be concluded from the findings of this study that although on-campus teacher education programme have a higher advantage of quality professional lecturers over off-campus programmes, different direct private cost of the programme stands as a limiting factor to their optimal performance.

Recommendations

Based on the findings in this study, it is therefore recommended that:

1. The large number of programmes produced through distance teaching should be reduced far more carefully than in conventional teaching to improve the quality of the courses.
2. Differential access to technical assistance, including detailed instructions regarding the electronic media used that affects institutional and private costs should be checkmated.
3. In order to meet the demands on distance education, meet the needs of administrators, faculty and students, and to incorporate sound pedagogical techniques into distance education courses and programmes, structured guidelines on what high-quality distance education should look like, is needed.
4. Students should be provided with hands-on training and information to aid them in securing material through electronic databases, interlibrary loans, government archives, news services, and other sources.
5. Quality control measures that could help reduce wastage in the teacher education system, such as thorough internal and external institutional supervision are inevitable and the required enabling environment must be created.
6. It may be expedient at this point that, although profit maximization is the focus of provider of distance education, there should be an urgent conference to address this issue that teacher education is more of a public service and it is incumbent on the part of institutions providing

such programme that their profit making zeal does not erode the selective mechanism of engaging qualitative measures during programme implementation.

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ENSURING QUALITY ASSURANCE OF THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS IN AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract
Higher education is at the crossroads in most African countries. At one end there is high demand for access to higher education and at the other the quality of the skills acquired is questioned. In other to survive in the competitive world of globalization, all higher education institutions should therefore pay special attention to the teaching-learning process. This paper therefore engaged in extensive review of literature on diverse views of quality assurance, quality control and total quality management of university education. It compared quality assurance practices in some advanced and African countries. It answered the question of how quality of the teaching-learning process can be assessed and how to enhance the appropriate skills in our university graduates. The paper recommended that greater emphasis should be placed on the supervision and monitoring of the teaching-learning process, so that university graduates will acquire the appropriate skills required by the society.

Introduction

In a society full of diversity, ideologies and opinions, higher education means different things to different people. Higher education includes College and University teaching-learning towards which students' progress to attain higher educational qualification. Higher education imparts in-depth knowledge and understanding so as to advance the student to new frontiers of knowledge in different works of life (subject domains). It develops the student's ability to question and seek truth and makes him/her competent to critique on contemporary issues. It broadens the intellectual powers of the individual within a narrow specialization but also gives him/her a wider perspective of the world around.

According to Ronald Barnett (1992), cited in NAAC (2006), there are four predominant concepts of higher education:

(i) Higher education as the production of qualified human resources. In this view, higher education is seen as a process in which the students are counted as "products" absorbed in the labour market. Thus, higher education becomes input to the growth and development of business and industry.

(ii) Higher education as training for a research career. In this view, higher education is preparation for qualified scientists and researchers who would continuously develop the frontiers of knowledge. Quality within this viewpoint is more about research publications and transmission of the academic rigour to do quality research.

(iii) Higher education as the efficient management of teaching provision. In this view, higher education institutions focus on efficient management of teaching-learning provisions by improving the quality of teaching, enabling a higher completion rate among the students.

(iv) Higher education as a matter of extending life chances. In this view, higher education is seen as an opportunity to participate in the development process of the individual through a flexible, continuing education mode. Interestingly, all these four concepts of higher education are not exclusive; rather they are integrated and give an overall picture of what is higher in higher education. If we look at the activities of colleges and universities, we will realize that teaching, research and extension form the three main functions of higher education.

Higher education could therefore be seen as the backbone of any society. It is the quality of higher education that decides the quality of human resources in a country. Higher education, as we see today is a complex system facilitating teaching, research, extension and international cooperation and understanding. This is why the NAAC (2006) (National Assessment and Accreditation Council (2006) for higher education system in India envisage; national development, fostering global competitiveness, including ethical values, promote use of technology and create an atmosphere and quest for excellence.

In the same vein, university education in African universities have been structured to provide needed manpower for the development of the society. For instance, the goal of higher education in Nigeria as specified in section 6 of the National Policy of Education (NPE 2004) includes: "the development of individuals through high level relevant manpower training, inculcation of proper values for the survival of individuals, development of intellectual capacity of individuals to understand their environments, acquisition of physical and intellectual skills for self reliance, to promote national and international understanding and interaction.

The extent to which tertiary institutions in Nigeria have been able to achieve these lofty goals is a thing of concern to all stakeholders as a lot of research findings have revealed that there are different challenges on the relevance and quality of higher education in Nigeria (Ajayi, 1999; Oni, 2000).

Specifically, there is the public outcry that most university graduates in Nigeria are unemployable or that most of them did not have the relevant skills needed by the fact that most of them have to be retrained to acquire some skills before they could be useful to the society. This therefore calls to question the quality of skills acquired in the universities in Nigeria and other African countries. We therefore need to look inward into the quality assurance of the process variable (teaching-learning process) of the delivery of university education.

Defining Quality

The British Standard institution (BSI) defines quality as the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs (BSI 1991).

Dhanarajah (1999) cited in Junaid (2010) opines that quality is a difficult and elusive term to define within the context of the provision of education. He further explains that performance/quality indicators are often the means of measuring the extent to which quality is achieved. For instance, the University of Nairobi performance indicators are:

- High completion rate
- Appreciable rate of admission
- Hyperactive Population of Distance Learning (DL) study materials

- High employment of its graduates

Aworh (2005) also opines that quality is the standard of excellence that is in conformity to a given level of excellence which represents particular standard or specifications. He also states that quality can be defined in terms of teaching, learning and research environments well as with regards to quality of students, staff and the curricula. In a nutshell, quality of a programme can be seen from the perspectives of inputs, processes and outputs of the programme. Quality can only be achieved if those trusted with various functions perform them well.

Why Worry about Quality?

Quality, as we know was originally developed in the manufacturing industry. In the area of higher education, the adoption of quality control has been superficial and diluted by the exercise of academic freedom (Largosen et al, 2004). Further, the prevailing culture of universities is often based on individual autonomy, which is zealously guarded (Colling and of Harvey, 1995). Thus, it is usually difficult to apply the features of quality to higher education considering the fact that quality requires team work (Boaden and Dale, 1999). However, the quality of higher education is very important for its stakeholders. Notably, providers (funding bodies and the community at large), students, staff and employers of graduates are important (Srikanthan and Dalrymple, 2003).

As teachers, principals, heads of departments, planners and policy makers in education, we should therefore be conscious of why we should worry about the quality of our teaching programmes and institutions. Some of the reasons are:

(1) Competition

This is significant because of globalization and the GATS (Global Agreement on Trade in Services), the educational environment will be seized by increased competition. In order to survive in such a situation, educational institutions need to worry about their quality.

(2) Customer Satisfaction

Students, parents or sponsoring agencies as customers of the educational institution are now highly conscious of their rights or getting value for their money and time spent. They are now demanding

good quality teaching and receiving employable skill sets, and thus, we should constantly worry about the relevance of our courses and programmes to the needs of the labour market.

(3) Maintaining Standards

As educational institutions, we are always concerned about setting our own standard and maintaining it continuously year after year. In other to maintain the standard, we should consciously make effort to improve quality of the educational transactions as well as the educational provision and facilities.

(4) Accountability

Every institution is accountable to its stakeholders in terms of the funds (public and private) used on it. Concern for quality will ensure accountability of the funds utilized and inform the stakeholders about taking appropriate decisions. Thus, quality can be considered as a monitoring mechanism.

(5) Improved Employee Morale and Motivation

Your concern for quality as an institution will improve the morale and motivation of the staff in performing their duties and responsibilities. If a quality system is in place, the internal processes would be systematic, making every department complementing each other's service domain and helping in developing internal customer satisfaction leading to high morale and motivation.

(6) Credibility, Prestige and Status

If you are concerned about quality, continuously and not once in a while, it will bring in credibility to individuals and your institution because of consistency leading to practice, status and brand value.

(7) Image and Visibility

Quality institutions have the capacity to attract better stakeholder support, like getting merited students from far and near, increased donation grants from philanthropists/funding agencies and higher employer interest for easy placement of graduates.

In summary, quality in higher education means the education process is such that it ensures students achieve their goals and thereby satisfies the needs of the society and helping national development.

How then do we ensure that the quality of our programme in the universities is maintained or assured? This then brings us to the issue of quality assurance in major developed countries and some African countries.

Quality Assurance in Developed Countries

In the U.S, quality assurance in higher education institution is done through the accreditation process, which ensured that education providers meet and maintain minimum standards of quality and integrity regarding academics, administration and related services. There is no federal agency or ministry to control or oversee the post-secondary educational institutions in the USA. The accreditation is carried out by private, non-profit organizations designed and recognized for this specific purpose. Thus, external quality monitoring is the method of quality assurance in the USA.

In the UK, the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) for higher education is the centralised independent body funded by subscription from universities and colleges of higher education in the UK. Through its assessment of teaching in subject reviews, it has been instrumental in defining standards for teaching and enabling poor provision to be identified and eliminated (UKDES, 2003).

In the UK, the quality assurance is done primarily through institutional audit and subject reviews. The process of institutional audit is a detailed and comprehensive scrutiny of the internal quality assurance systems of the institution, study of the self-evaluation documents prepared by the institution and audit visits. The whole exercise is based on the code of practice for the assurance of academic quality and standards in higher education (QAAHE, 2003).

Universities and higher education institutions in Australia are self-accrediting bodies. They typically have in place a system of formal, cyclical review involving external assessors, for evaluation of programmes and organizational units. In March 2000, the ministerial council on Education, Training and Youth Affairs (MCETYA) formally established the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) as an independent, not-for-profit national agency to promote, audit and report on quality assurance in Australia higher education.

So far, we have seen that the USA, the UK and Australia follow different systems of quality assurance in higher education but all are essentially doing external quality monitoring.

Developing Quality Assurance Culture in African Universities

Quality has been part of the university culture since the establishment of modern universities, even though quality assurance has only recently

assumed greater importance worldwide. Universities had for long been distinguished by the quality of their products. With the establishment of quality assurance agencies in many countries, universities began to feel that quality assurance was a kind of imposition from the government, even though the institutions had inherent systems of maintaining quality.

In the effort to deepen and achieve the objectives of quality assurance, there is a need for the synchronization of the internal and external quality assurance activities in the universities. This therefore calls for the evolution and institutionalization of the quality assurance culture in the universities. Quality culture is more than a mere set of rules and procedures which can be mechanically negotiated, agreed upon and implemented. Quality culture encompasses a more implicit consensus on what quality is and how it should be maintained and promoted (Hunger and Skalbergs, 2007).

The development of a quality assurance culture requires that students are placed at the centre of the quality assurance activities. This requires partnership and cooperation, sharing of experiences and team work with the aim to support the individual student as an autonomous scholar (Rizk and Al-Alusi, 2009). Hence, since quality has historically been part of the university culture, members of the university community need to change their perception of quality assurance as an externally imposed process.

Quality Assurance in African Countries

Quality assurance activities in Nigeria are multi-dimensional. It includes formal recognition of state universities; the approval of individual university programmes; development of minimum academic standards for programmes taught in Nigerian universities and the accreditation of same; ensuring that private universities are established following laid down guidelines, resource verification; and the enforcement of carrying capacity for individual university programmes.

The National Universities Commission (NUC) conducts accreditation exercise to ensure that the universities meet the provisions of minimum academic standards (MAS). The exercise involves three distinct steps:

(a) Self-study
(b) Site visit and peer review

(c) Reporting of outcome

The accreditation criteria is made up of six broad areas of academic content: staffing, physical facilities, library facilities, funding of the programme and employers' rating of the graduates.

Ghana has two agencies responsible for higher education; the National Council for Tertiary Education and the National Accreditation Board. The latter has the vision "ensuring high standards in higher education" and was established following the enactment of National Accreditation Board Law, 1993 (PNDL 317), as a Public Service Institution with the responsibility for the accreditation of programmes and institutions in the country. It was established 'to contribute to the furtherance of the better management of tertiary education as the Quality Assurance Body'.

The Board defines accreditation as a system of according recognition to an educational institution for meeting satisfactory standards in performance, integrity and quality. The institution among other things must have well-qualified staff in adequate numbers, a well-equipped and well-stocked library, adequate number of classrooms, lecture theatres, laboratories, workshops, with the requisite equipment and adequate and reliable sources of funding.

The Board is empowered to set up committee and sub-committees with respect to;

(a) Institutional accreditation
(b) Programme accreditation
(c) Monitoring and supervisory roles to ensure the maintenance of acceptable standards and available facilities

Another responsibility of the Board is the evaluation of certificates and qualifications awarded by institutions in Ghana or any other country to establish comparability. It also determines the authenticity and comparability of both local and foreign educational certificates.

In Tanzania, the Higher Education Accreditation Council (HEAC) was established under the Education Act of 1995 as a government agency responsible for the promotion and quality assurance of higher education institutions, programmes, staff, students and awards. Ten

years later, the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TUC) was established under the Universities Act of 2005, substituting HEAC.

The commission (TUC) is mandated to recognize and accredit the country's university institutions and their programmes to approve relevant examinations' regulations and determine equivalence and recognize awards given by higher education institutions inside and outside Tanzania. The TUC is a government agency responsible to the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology.

In Africa, three countries with quality assurance agencies have been examined. The three models examined revealed that the quality assurance agencies were statutorily set up by their respective governments. They coordinate quality assurance activities in the country and such activities involve both the public and private higher education institutions.

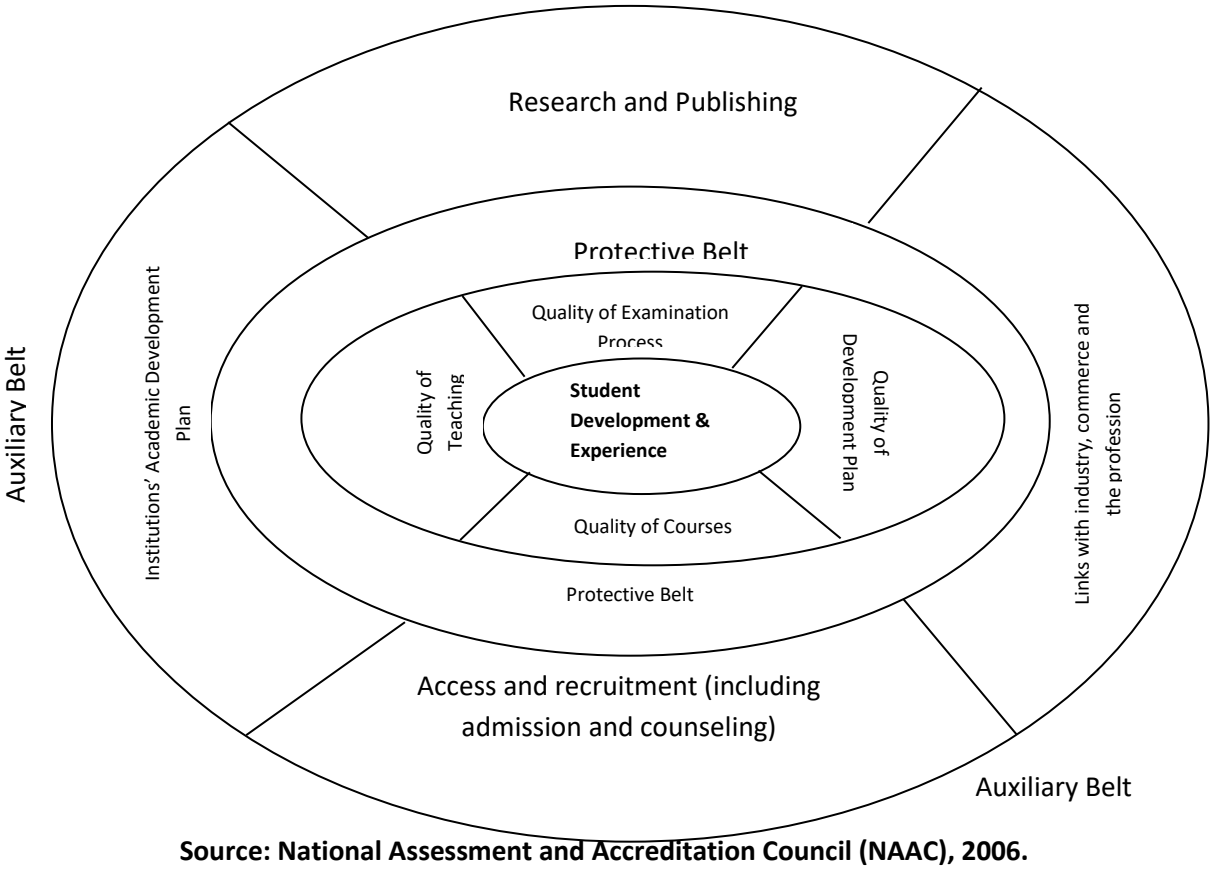
How to ensure Total Quality Care of Teaching-Learning Process in African Universities

One of the contemporary thinkers of higher education and total quality management, Ronald Barnett (1992) says "Quality in higher education demands the establishment of an institutional culture, not so much a matter of total quality management but rather one of total quality care, in which each professional is seized of his or her responsibilities and takes care over all his or her own professional efforts (p. 133). According to him, quality should be seen as a process of critical dialogue within an institution where course teams accept ownership and facilitate student engagement towards learning and development and there is a self-critical culture of continuous care for the students' quality course experience. Barnett suggested that there are four core activities that take care of quality in higher education and these are:

(1) teaching and learning;
(2) student assessment;
(3) staff development and;
(4) curricular courses.

This paper is however interested in the teaching-learning process as it is central to all the other core activities that take place in higher education globally. The Barnett's quality framework will be used to illustrate this.

FIG 1: BARNETT'S QUALITY FRAMEWORK



Source: National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), 2006.

The Barnett's Quality Framework is a display of how the focus of university education is the student development and experience. The protective belt includes the quality of teaching, quality of examination process, quality of staff development and the quality of courses run. All the above can be realized through effective teaching-learning, so that students will develop the necessary skills and attitude through experience. Though the activities within 'auxiliary belt' are important, they have less direct bearing on the quality of students' experiences. Within the Barnett's framework, quality in higher education can be seen in qualitative and quantitative terms.

Conclusion and Recommendation

In conclusion, in order to ensure quality in higher education, there should be a bit of shift towards teaching-learning process, so that students will develop the appropriate skills and attitudes required by African society. The focus of total quality care should therefore be an emphasis on supervision and monitoring of the teaching-learning process, so that graduates of our universities will acquire the necessary skills for the development of their society.

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LEADERSHIP AND POLITICAL PARTIES RE-BRANDING IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
This paper among other things examines the concept of leadership in relation to political re-branding in Nigeria. This paper also focuses on the characteristics of a good leader in Nigeria. It is hopeful that the paper will serve as eye openers to the Nigerian populace inrespective of their socio-political, socio-economic and educational background. The paper has taken a simplified step in discussing the concept of leadership and political parties re-branding in our democratic society. The paper recommended among other things that political leaders should try as much as possible to deligate authorities to their subordinates.

Introduction
Leadership is an important concept in the field of Management because it is a key process in any organization. It is very important that every other thing in the organization revolves round it. No wonder people say the success or failure of any organization will depend upon the ability, capability and intelligence of the leader. It is the leader that moulds the behaviour of the surbordinate in the organization. If leadership is right, subordinates will be right, if the leadership is disciplined, the followers will be disciplined. Leadership is paramount importance in political and public administration because it is the focus of activity through which the political goal and objectives are accomplished. It is the ability to influence individual or groups towards the achievement of goals. Leadership as a process shapes the goals of a group, organisation or state, motivates behaviour towards the achievement of these goals, and helps to define group and organizational culture. It is primarily a process of influence. Leadership is a dynamic or changing process.

- Leadership has been defined in different ways by various authors: - Szilagyi and Wallace (1980) define leadership as the relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other towards the accomplishment of some goals.
- Leadership is the process of providing direction and influencing individuals or groups to achieve goals (Middlemist and Hitt, 1981).
- Leadership is a development of a clear and complete system of expectations in other to identify, evoke and use the strength of all resources in the organization, the most important of it is people (Batten, 1989).
- Leadership is the act of influencing other to their maximum performance to accomplish any task, objectives or projects (Cohen, 1990).
- Leadership requires using power to influence the thought and action of other people (Zalunip, 1992).
- Leadership is that process in which one person sets the purpose or direction for one or more other persons and get them to move along together with him or her and with each other in that direction with competent and full commitment.
- Leadership is the act of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations (Kouzes and Posner, 1995).

Having stated various definitions given by scholars and despite the fact that there is no universally accepted definition of leadership, the general consensus among the writers in the field of management and our influence from the above stated definitions is that, leadership involves process by which people are influenced to direct their efforts toward the accomplishment of goals.

Leadership is a complex process by which a person influences others to accomplish a mission, task, or objective and direct the organizations in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. A person carries out this process by applying his leadership attributes (beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge, and skills) although one's position as a manager or supervisor gives him or her authority to accomplish certain task and objectives in the organization. The power does not make him or her leader, it simply makes him or her the boss.

Leadership makes people to achieve high goal and objectives while on the other hand bosses make people to accomplish a task or objectives. Leadership in the local government sector does not differ from leadership in the state or the nation as a whole.

Characteristics of a Leadership

A good leader in any sector or organization should possess some leadership qualities enumerated below:

1. Authority: - A leader must have authority. This is the legal, legitimate or formal right of a leader to issue instructions and directives and disseminate them. It is obvious that without authority, the leader will not be able to direct and control his surbordinates to the extent of achieving set goals.
2. Power: - A leader must have power for smooth and effective running of the organization. This is the leadership ability that makes subordinates take instructions from the leader or superior and obey it instantly. In other words, leadership ability influences the surbordinate.
3. Expertise or Competence: - This is the leadership ability, skill, capability and intelligence. The wisdom, knowledge and qualification of the leader must exceed those of his surbordinates in the organization. The leader requires competence and expert knowledge in other to gain the cooperation of his surbordinates and to solve problems.
4. Decisiveness: - This implies that the leader must be able to make wise decisions and act without hesitation in respect to them. He must be able to choose the best out of alternatives before him.
5. Initiative: - A leader must be able to use his initiative at all times. He must recognize when an action is required and implement it without delay. This is because the surbordinate depends on the leader's directives for actions.
6. Responsibility: - A leader must be committed in discharging his duties. He must be conscious of his responsibility. The glory in the success of the organization is usually shared with the members of the organizations why the blame as a result of failure will be on him.
7. Delegation of Authority: - A good leader must be able to delegate authority for optimum achievement of the organisational goals.

8. Humour: - This implies that the leader must be friendly and cheerful He must be sympathetic and understand every member of the organization.
9. Discipline: - A leader must be disciplined because an indisciplined person is not fit for leadership. This is because it will be difficult for such a person to maintain discipline in the organization.
10. Integrity: - A good leader must have integrity, he does call himself what he is not. He must not be a pretender.

The Dynamics of Political Re-branding.

Political parties re-branding simply means the process of changing the image of the existing political parties. It is a process of restructuring, re-orientation, re-information, re-engineering and absolute reformation of our political parties. The parties' members must be well educated in the areas of political culture and political education. Parties' members and their leaders should embrace the societal values, they must have the interest of the parties and that of the nation in mind.

Among political communication analysts in Britain, a lot of recent interest has been generated in "political re-branding." This phrase indicates a project that, using some of the methods developed in commercial marketing, attempts to reposition a political party within political space (to a large degree a matter of cultural space and media space).

The idea of "branding" carries further the notion that political party and leader identities have become even closer to brand identities, built by a combination of close attention to existing market profiles and customer preferences (to some, this latter factor gives a democratic dimension which older forms of political "hard sell" lacked) together with abilities in promotional strategy. One has to be careful about collapsing the real differences between commercial and political practice but nevertheless the comparison is useful. In a number of countries, a variety of factors have combined to make it so, albeit with strong national differences. Among these factors we can note a weakening of traditional party loyalties, a reduction of key ideological differences (notably, a convergence on basic economic policy), intensified conditions of media visibility and an electorate increasingly used to behaving as a "consumer" as well as (if not rather than) a "citizen."

Commercial brand theory sees "brand personality" as a key integrating factor in building brand value. In politics, such "brand personality" is inevitably personified by political party leaders, a group with a long history of iconic public projection.

Why "*re*-branding" is so interesting and significant is because it replaces the relatively stable, or at least slow-moving, character of traditional political identity which a much more aggressively and strategically mobile version, alert to the conditions of the "political market" and the changing profile of media relations. This version appears to give added emphasis to "managerialist" concerns, the ability not simply to inspire but "to deliver."

In Britain, David Cameron, elected as leader of the Conservative Party is the obvious focus. Since taking office, he has gone about the re-branding of his Party in a way that is unprecedented in its scale and styling. In fact, it raises questions about whether re-branding is really the right word for what might appear to be a major shift in the essential nature of the product itself. Reference by commentators is frequently made back to the emergence of "New Labour" as a restyling of the Labour Party in the early 1990s, although this was accomplished across a period of years and several leaders, however decisive Tony Blair was to its success. Interestingly, this was also a change that, cosmetic or semiotic as it might appear at one level, was actually about key values and policy commitments. One of Cameron's first moves was to adopt a softer version of Labour's re-labelling tactic. Although a change to the actual name of the Party was considered and rejected, Cameron began to use "compassionate" in front of "Conservative" and "Conservativism" on all possible occasions, a direct semantic counter to the idea of "hardheartedness" that had become strongly attached to the Party, even by those who applauded it for being so. Then followed his first policy emphasis, which was to project deep environmental concern. Again, this had a novel semiotic dimension in the "Vote Blue, Go Green" slogan for the Spring 2006 local elections (Blue is the traditional colour of the party). Other, equally bold, shifts in political space were undertaken, with speeches emphasizing the need for happiness to be seen as a greater value than money, for gender equality and for a greater recognition of the value of the public services. Rather than opening up clear space to the conventional "Right" of the Labour Party, which is what his predecessors had usually

been forced to attempt, Cameron's tactics seem to have been to go radically “central” by actually placing some of his policy lines to the “Left” of Labour!

Cameron's media visibility has been marked by a calculated emphasis on the informal, taking this further than level of “casual politics” (home with the family, taking the children to school, relaxing at weekends) already established as a brand requirement for most leading politicians. The most defining image to appear in the press in the first few months were photographs of him cycling to Parliament, with full cycling gear and helmet. BBC television helped establish this, choosing to cover his journey to the House of Commons to hear the result of the leadership election in 2005 by tracing his cycle journey from a helicopter! Even the recent news that a chauffer-driven car follows him carrying his suit and his papers has not entirely subverted the strength of this projection. A few months ago, it was reinforced by press agency shots of him driving a dog sled on a Norwegian glacier as part of a fact-finding trip about global warming. This June, in a rather different framing, pitched more at smart, cooler aspects of professional culture, he appeared on the cover of the men's magazine GQ with the headline “Mr. Ambition.”

It seems clear that Cameron's key tasks as a re-brander are not only those of getting the public to accept the new brand values he is promoting but of getting existing party members to “switch” from the old values which many of them continue to find attractive. If he achieves some success here, then this “turn” in mediated politics will almost certainly require the Labour party to undertake some “re-re-branding,” meeting Cameron's challenge and distancing itself from what is now seen as the negative part of Labour's ten year period of office under the once unbeatable brand-leadership of Tony Blair. British politics is about to enter a new and volatile phase of promotionalism, one in which television will, as ever, be key strategic ground.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Base on the above discussions, the followings were recommended:

1. The political leaders should be focused and have the determination to achieve the stipulated goals of the present administration in the state.

2. They should try as much as possible to delegate authority to their subordinates.
3. They must embrace the principles of democratic culture which they meet on ground in the present administration.
4. They must be responsible to the state government and their community
5. They must be disciplined and use their initiative to develop their immediate community and the state as a whole.
6. They must also be loyal to the state government in particular and to their party in general.

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