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Article

NGO-state interaction and the politics of development in Cameroon in the context of liberalisation

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The economic downturn and consequent impoverishment in Cameroon have led to a large increase in non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that are being heralded by some as the development panacea. This has triggered some readjustment in the dynamics of interaction between the Cameroonian state and NGOs with the promulgation of the 1999 law to control NGOs. This paper critically explores the emerging trends and the roles played by international and local NGOs in the face of the burgeoning interests of civil society. The analysis points to some benchmarks and challenges faced by these actors in capacity building and socio-economic empowerment of local communities in Cameroon. Findings indicate that international NGOs are more organised, more focused, decentralized, technically proficient, and financially viable and have deeper penetration into communities than local NGOs that are plagued by lack of expertise, poor management and funding difficulties. The paper concludes that in spite of attempts by the Cameroonian state to regulate the activities of the NGO sector; there are still inadequacies.

Key words: Cameroon, liberalisation, NGOs, local development, gender mainstreaming, civil society.

INTRODUCTION

Neoliberal social and economic policies, state downsizing and the changing political terrain has significantly altered and restructured civil society in Cameroon, with international and local (national) NGOs in the forefront of the fight against worsening poverty. The struggle for social justice and liberalisation has led to several activities with the potential for state building. This paper focuses on international and local NGOs against the backdrop of economic restructuring and the declining role of the state. As states downsize, NGOs in general “have come to be regarded as the vehicle of choice- the magic bullet for fostering (these) currently fashionable development strategies” (Gruhn, 1997) quoted in Alvarez (1998:123). Green and Mathias (1997) note that the last decade has seen a dramatic surge of interest in the activities of NGOs, which they refer to, as the emerging third sector. According to the rhetoric that surrounds NGOs, they are able to deliver higher quality services to the very poorest sectors of the

society while remaining cost-effective and efficient (Cernea, 1988; Clark, 1991; Fowler, 1988).

For the last 13 years, Cameroon has been undergoing economic restructuring. The introduction of economic reforms and the implementation of structural adjustment programmes meant that the state could not fulfil its responsibility of providing social amenities. The states inability to enhance the welfare of the population and in service provision in general led to the burgeoning of NGOs in Cameroon and particularly in the North-west Province. Yenshu (1998) notes that NGOs have come to increasingly occupy the space of development discourse and practice with government’s disengagement from local development. The growth in the NGO sector is inherently associated with the rise of an influential consensus spearheaded by international financial institutions (World Bank and the IMF) over the need for political democracy and good governance on one hand, and on the other, economic liberalization, the rolling back of the state and the encouragement of the private sector to step into the gap (Mercer, 1999).

NGOs as agents of change and channels for development assistance are providing the impetus within civil

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society. How they succeed in this task depends on the partnership with the state and relations with local communities. NGOs are simultaneously regarded as important constituents and boosters of civil society. It is also argued that the empowering and participatory nature of NGOs, as well as their ability to encourage the poor to articulate their political and social needs, can ultimately facilitate the emergence of a stronger civil society (Healey and Robinson, 1993; Hyden, 1995). Elsewhere, NGOs are considered as a fundamental linchpin in civil society responding to the development concerns of local communities. The study looks at the role of NGOs in the liberalized development arena of the North-western Province of Cameroon, particularly in the context of poverty and improvement of livelihoods. There is little data to indicate the extent to which indigenous NGOs work specifically with the poorest since in common with the Cameroonian development community in general, NGOs have used working in rural areas as a proxy for working with the poor (Fox, 1993). According to Fowler (1995), assessing the performance of NGOs has become increasingly necessary with the growing number of NGOs receiving funding and demand of accountability to beneficiaries or partners and donors/trustees. It becomes fundamental to evaluate the performance and transformational potential of these development actors.

RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGICAL CONTEXTS

The liberalisation of the economic and political climate in Cameroon following the 1990 liberty laws generated many groups, associations and organizations within the framework of civil society for example, political parties, churches, labour and trade unions, urban community organisations, common initiative groups, cooperatives and civil society activists. The steady growth in civil society led to the proliferation of NGOs and common initiative groups. This paper seeks to appraise the activities of NGOs as development organisations vis-à-vis the regulatory role of the state. The paper examines the efforts of some international and local (national) NGOs in transforming urban and rural communities in north-western Cameroon. This was done through an examination of their major activities and some realized projects in the province. The emergence of NGOs as a stronger force within civil society may be viewed as a positive development but a closer and critical look at their activities show that their reach is still limited. This is not the case with international NGOs that execute elaborate, widespread and sustainable programmes and projects with a high trickle down effect than local NGOs that are also attempting amidst difficulties, to gain grounds in welfare programmes geared at alleviating poverty.

To better situate the problem, the objectives of the paper are:

(i) To determine the scope of activities of some interna-

tional and local NGOs.

(ii) To elicit the viewpoints of local communities on the development efforts of NGOs.

(iii) To appraise law No. 90/053 of 19/12/90 relating to the formation and functioning of associations with emphasis on the 1999 law to govern the activities of NGOs in Cameroon.

The data used for the analysis was drawn from primary surveys of some international and national NGOs operating in the North-west Province of Cameroon. In-depth interviews were carried out in the short-listed organizations. These included Plan International, Inades Formation, Association of Women's Information and Coordination Offices (AWICO), Society for Initiatives in Rural Development and Environmental Protection (SIRDEP), Integrated Development Foundation (IDF), African Community Development and Environmental Protection (ACDEP), Human Rights and Counselling and Education Centre (HURLLRD), Swiss Association for Development and Cooperation (Helvetas), Hieffer Project International (HPI), African Development Foundation and Support Service to Grassroots Development Initiatives (SALID). This permitted a critical appraisal of the degree of partnership with the state, grassroots institutions and communities. To assess the successes or failures of NGOs, field visits were affected to some recipient communities and project beneficiaries. The level of participation and the effective involvement of these organisations in the localities were assessed through the conduct of interviews and discussions that enabled groups and community members to assess the efforts of the organisations they were opportune to work with. Respondent's viewpoints were also elicited on the outreach efforts of NGOs in poverty alleviation, credit provision, fostering local participation, attempts at addressing the practical and strategic gender needs of the population through a questionnaire.

GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LANDSCAPE OF NORTH WEST PROVINCE (NWP)

Despite economic growth rates averaging 7% per year between 1965 and 1985, Cameroon experienced both a high degree of poverty in rural areas, marked inequality in the distribution of incomes and significant regional disparities in poverty levels according to the World Bank (1995, 1999). The period since the mid-1980s has been one of rapid impoverishment in Cameroon with per capita consumption declining by about 50% between 1986 and 1993 and a marked increase in urban poverty (Republic of Cameroon, 2000). A 1996 household survey by the World Bank indicated that nearly 40% of households, representing about half the population are below the poverty line (about US\$ 240 per year). Poverty remains predominantly rural, with 86% of the poor living in rural areas and nearly two in three rural residents as regarded as poor according to World Bank survey.

Table 1. Geographical distribution of NGOs in Cameroon.

Province	Number of NGOs
Centre	112
Littoral	35
North west	32
South west	27
West	18
Far north	5
South	4
North	3
East	2
Adamawa	0

Source: Derived from UNDP survey of NGOs in Cameroon, 1997.

The North West Province (NWP) is ranked third out of the ten provinces in the country with an estimation of 365,352 poor. The World Bank's report further notes that women constitute 52% of the three million people who cannot afford even the food components of a 'consumption basket' which indicates a situation of extreme poverty. In Cameroon, women make up the majority of the poor living below the poverty line. Poverty is particularly acute for women living in rural areas and heading households (UNDP, 1998). In spite of their tremendous contribution to the growth and development of their communities, they still live in abject poverty. In terms of absolute numbers, the North-west and Western Provinces host the highest numbers of poor.

A recent survey of households in the province by the Provincial Service of Statistics (2004) shows that the trend has not changed. The case of the North-west Province is remarkable due to its high population density and a rural economy that thrives on subsistence agriculture that yields little income and which can barely sustain livelihoods. The region is witnessing a scanty presence of government in terms of development and is considered one of the most deprived in the country and is suffering from political marginalisation because of its widespread support for the main opposition party- the Social Democratic Front. This situation can be discerned from the fact that for the past 12 years, its state investment budget has been one of the lowest despite its large population. Erstwhile Secretary of State, No.1 in the Ministry of National Education, Joseph Yunga Teghen (2002) indicated over Cameroon Radio and Television (CRTV) (2002) that "any person who looks at the investment budget in Cameroon will see that the distribution of the budget is done following the voting pattern in the country". To buttress this point, the 2001-2002 state budget shows that the large and populated North-west Province had an investment budget of barely FCFA 5 billion. The south-west which is comparatively smaller had about FCFA 16 billion. This trend has continued till date (2009). This is because the

south west is seen by the government to be predominantly behind the ruling party, the Cameroon Peoples Democratic Movement (The Post, 2002). The North-west Province is made up of seven administrative divisions: Mezam, Momo, Boyo, Bui, Donga /Mantung, Menchum and Ngokentunjia. Its population is estimated at 1.7 million (Ministere de l'Economie et des Finances (1998) making it the fifth most populated province in Cameroon. Population mobility is high, partly as a result of the harsh socio-economic environment, the absence of industries and poor basic infrastructure.

Agriculture is the backbone of the province's economy employing more than 70% of the active working population. The main agricultural activities are traditional food crop cultivation and livestock production on small land holdings. Women and men constitute approximately 54% and 46% respectively of the economically active rural population.

REPRESENTATION OF NGOS IN CAMEROON AND NGOS STUDIED

The catastrophic effects of the economic crisis in the late 1980s and the harsh adjustment measures that later followed in the early 1990s, among other factors, encouraged the emergence of many NGOs in Cameroon. Government influence has waned and community groups, village development associations and NGOs have been closing ranks to reduce the development gap thus created (Fonjong, 2001; Fonchingong and Fonjong, 2002).

UNDP identified approximately 150 NGOs in Cameroon in the late 1990s (Table 1). More NGOs have been created since this survey. Not all local and international NGOs are featured in this survey, and with respect to the North-west Province, there are approximately ten International NGOs operating there. The survey showed that the development activities of the NGOs included health, education and training, environment, women's development, democracy and human rights, rural and urban development, capacity building and research, HIV/AIDS sensitization and community development in partnership with community based organizations.

NGOs in the North-west Province are aided in their outreach activities by the receptive nature of the people. Their existing sustainable self-help and self-reliance development efforts (Fonchingong and Fonjong, 2002) are important factors in attracting NGOs. Acho-chi (1998) identifies four critical factors: a) diffusion of decision-making power; b) dynamic, vigorous organised societies with effective leadership; c) a culture of mutual assistance and; d) relevant local democratic organisations.

From the survey undertaken by the UNDP (1997), there are some discrepancies in the statistics on the registration of NGOs at the Provincial level. The numbers of NGOs have been swelling in the Province (Table 2). Some of the NGOs did not feature in the UNDP survey.

The data (Table 2) shows the cumulative registration of

Table 2. Registration of local NGOs in the North-west Province.

Year	Number of NGOs
1995 -1998	123
1999 -2002	137

Source: Bamenda divisional office (July, 2001).

local NGOs in the North-west Province. It should be noted that international NGOs are registered at the central level, having decentralized operational units covering a huge geographical area of the country. The major international NGOs operating in the Province are: Plan International, Swiss Association for Development (Helvetas), Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV), Inades Formation, Heifer Project International, Bird Life International, Bamenda Highlands Project, Support Service to Grassroots Initiatives of Development (SAILD) among others. Since the number of international and local NGOs is growing almost annually, a simple random selection of five major international and local NGOs (Tables 2 and 3) was undertaken based on their field activities and target population. NGOs operate close to the grassroots as catalysts of community development (Zih, 2001) and are in a position to play a valuable role as partners in project planning and implementation.

NGOS AND LOCAL RESOURCE MOBILISATION

Most activities of both international and local NGOs are relief orientated and work in liaison with the local communities. The willingness of the local communities to liaise with NGOs can either create a conducive environment or a barrier to the efforts of NGOs. Acho-chi (1998) observes that the rural communities of the region are characterised by primary relations and the belief that collective work is superior to individual labour. This has created a smooth terrain for NGOs to mobilise the activities of local interest groups.

The NGOs operating in the province are involved in mobilizing women and men in local development efforts. Evidence from the study indicates that women's farming groups and other grassroots structures are used by NGOs to access the communities. SAILD and Plan both try to promote an atmosphere of self-reliance. SAILD undertakes training with farmer unions on production services, savings, credit and transfer of agricultural technology. Their newspaper "The Farmer's Voice" disseminates information on group organisation and management, practical farm techniques and lessons on good agricultural practices. (The Farmers' Voice, 2000). Plan contributed 43 million francs CFA to Bamali (Ngoketunjia) water project which is ongoing, with the community contributing the equivalent of 5 million francs CFA in terms of sand, nes and labour to dig the pipeline.

Women's farming groups are the most vital structures

since they constitute the lifeline of income generating activities that maintain household stability and ensure food security. The support group, Service to Grassroots Initiatives of Development (SAILD) is concerned with the problems of small farmers for example, training, finance, technical expertise, access to land and agricultural inputs (Table 4). Despite the attempts at tackling poverty through credit mobilization and microfinance, the women still remain outside decision-making circles, a condition determined by their limited access to and control over vital resources like land and credit. SAILD's policy of self-help development employs the participatory approach of interaction with farmer's groups to better understand their constraints. SAILD works with its main partner, the North West Farmer's Organisation (NOWEFOR) in organising education and training courses on group management, book keeping, credit and savings. This has improved the management skill and human capital of women and men's groups. More than 90% of the groups indicated that the training they had acquired had improved their style of group management which had had a direct influence on group livelihoods.

Plan International's interventions are set against a backdrop of improving conditions for children and this can only materialise if women are empowered. Currently, women are mostly sidelined in development-oriented activities. In the province 82% of the members of development committees are male (Plan International, 1999). This fact led to increased attention in addressing women's needs in the province through intensified mobilisation. Plan International focuses on underprivileged children and their families, with the primary objectives of improving the quality of life of deprived children. It also assists communities to be organised themselves in order to maximize their own resources for self-reliant development with the involvement of women and children as active and valued members. Plan's technical training courses encourage the training of women farmers in land preparation, planting, weeding, harvesting and food storage. Demonstration plots on organic farming and use of improved crop varieties have been introduced to boost agricultural production and reduce post harvest losses. Farming groups are also provided with implements and inputs like cutlasses, hoes and fertilizers.

The policies and actions of most NGOs are directed towards the problems of access to training and information, credit, and production inputs. They also target the eradication of cultural barriers in communities that are blocking women from taking an active part in development matters. While the Heifer Project International (HPI), SAILD and the Association for Women's Information and Coordination Offices (AWICO) are tackling some of these problems, Plan International tries to dismantle cultural barriers confronting women and girls. Despite these attempts, most women in the province are still lagging. The majority of women who bear the sole responsibility of the welfare of children live in extreme poverty in most rural communities in the province. Thus, if

Table 3. Activities and some realized projects of some local NGOs in the North-west Province.

NGO	Major activities	Some projects executed
Association of Women's Information and Coordination Offices (AWICO)	Sensitisation and awareness creation, Project planning, monitoring, and evaluation. Provision of credit and small loans. Financing small-scale projects e.g. animal husbandry, poultry keeping, and formation of cooperatives.	Financed 167 small scale projects in trading, farming and machine supply. Training in business management and book keeping, numerical skills. About 6000 women have benefited from the above activities.
Society for Initiatives in Rural Development and Environmental Protection (SIRDEP)	Training programmes (NGO focus) in soil conservation/agro-forestry, tree nursery techniques, oil palm production, storage techniques, natural crop protection, gardening, piggery farming. Protection of water catchments Promoting women's micro projects, water drainage and urban development, creation of cooperative unions and entrepreneurship, productive credit schemes.	7 types of training at the grassroots level with 20 groups totalling 842 participants. Adult literacy programme for the Mbororo-Fulani communities in Donga-Mantung Division. Training realised at the level of development workers with many organisations
Integrated Development Foundation (IDF)	Training of group members and local animators; Construction of schools; Provision of pipe-borne water, etc; Gender programmes for communities; General construction e.g. roads bridges, community halls; Promote income generation; consultancy services, environmental protection, hygiene and sanitation through tree planting and rubbish collection; Training programmes for group members.	Trained 200 rural animators; trained 23 people in manual typing and computing; 15 Bridges constructed; 4 water supplies established; 3 water networks created; renovation of a hospital ward; loans to 6 groups ranging from 500,000 to 1.5 million FCFA; trained 39 groups in marketing, and women's groups on textile transformation.
African Community Development and Environmental Protection (ACDEP)	Training of elected representatives at local, regional and national levels; Non-partisan democratic observation system; Capacity building for women's self-development.	Group training sessions; provision of agricultural inputs (corn mills, cassava graters, palm oil processing machines) to groups especially in Momo Division; construction of Wumneburg bridge in Momo Division; feasibility studies carried out on 20 projects.
Human Rights Counselling And Education Centre (HURCLED Centre)	Legal aid services and education	Civic education to many communities in the province; legal aid and counselling to women's groups; emphasis on children's rights and procedures of the law; human rights activities in many divisions of the province.

Source: Authors' fieldwork (2008).

rural communities have to be taken out of squalor, disease and poverty, they have to enjoy basic amenities.

Swiss Association for Development and Cooperation (Helvetas) has a permanent programme of building feeder roads (farm to market roads) linking production areas to consumption centres. Their expertise in the development of catchments areas, watershed conservation, water supply and construction of bridges and culverts is impressive in Cameroon (Table 4). Their efforts at building rural infrastructure have led to the disenclavement of most rural communities. The construction of water points as

testified by 80% of the respondents has led to a reduction in waterborne and water related diseases in their communities. Women's drudgery and long treks to fetch water are checked (Helvetas 1989). Helvetas' executed water schemes in collaboration with communities have an estimated coverage rate of 80% of the villages in the Province reaching out to all the seven divisions. Community participation is also fostered through the creation of village water management committees to manage and maintain water facilities.

Clearly, women in such communities have been spared

Table 4. The major activities of some international NGOs in the North-west Province.

NGO	Major activities	Some realized projects
Swiss Association for Development and Cooperation (Helvetas)	General constructions e.g. water, roads, community halls; Training programmes; Assistance to local NGOs, CIGs, and women's groups through networking with AWICO; Bee farming; Maintenance of completed projects	More than 40 water supply projects in the province with the participation of the communities; many farm-to-market roads constructed e.g. Kurku, Njikwa-Menka, Oshie-Konda, Mmea-Eseh, and Widikum-Befang; construction of bridges e.g. Kurku, Kai, Chup, Ekoh- Menka; many training programmes organised for village development committees, water management committees and group leaders; assistance to many women's groups.
Inades Formation	Provide agricultural apprenticeships, small project management and rural self-help training. Broadcast radio programmes (e.g. Calling the Women, Rural rendezvous) on community mobilization, care and breeding of domesticated animals, and environmental issues like bush fires and tree planting. Sustainable development through short-term training of local NGO and group leaders in project management for community development, resource mobilisation, book keeping and project maintenance.	Hundreds of short-term training programmes organised for local leaders; Provision of booklets, technical leaflets and other educational materials to groups and communities.
Heifer Project International (HPI)	Distribution of goats, piglets, rabbits, cows, fowls, etc to individual farmers through organised groups; training farmers in animal husbandry; credit provision to groups; assistance in construction of roads and bridges; Identify, assist and set up priority development needs of villages Build with local and imported materials.	More than 200 farmers groups have benefited from animal distribution schemes; many farmers trained in animal husbandry and ethno-vet practices; credit provided to groups
Plan International Cameroon	Construct water supply, roads, schools and community halls; training of villages for project sustainability; promoting leadership and capacity building for NGOs; execution of projects in several sectors (e.g. road construction, water schemes, bridges and livestock production); sensitisation of groups to cash and food crop farming; livestock production for groups; resource mobilisation and agricultural techniques for groups; credit schemes to groups.	Construction of primary schools, community halls, extension to water supply systems, bridge building in some divisions of the province; educational fora and school saving schemes; educating girls through the provision of essential books; nutrition programmes and school garden projects; sustainable primary health care (vaccination and sensitization); financed 21 water supply projects; other projects under consideration.
African Development Foundation		Supported more than 100 micro-projects. Monthly news to farmers in the Farmers' Voice Newspaper; mobilised more than 2.5 million FCFA (credits) and more than 2 million FCFA (as savings).
Support Service to Grassroots Development Initiatives (SAILD)		Working with more than 191 women's and 179 men's groups; set up a multi-shop to market farmers' products and sales to farmers at moderate prices.

Source: Authors' fieldwork (2006).

from the strenuous and time-consuming task of trekking over long distances to fetch water. Helvetas recently commissioned two large water projects in Guzang-Batibo and Kishong-Bui divisions with the communities contributing their share in cash as well as local materials and labour. The Guzang local community contributed about 6 million FCFA to defray the costs of rehabilitation of the water project (The Post, 2002). Recipient communities of Helvetas' water projects participated in the excavation of the pipes and the provision of sand, stones and gravel. World Bank (1990, 1999) has noted the representativeness of NGOs. They often have close links with poor communities by rekindling community participation. This is the case with international organisations like Plan and Helvetas who have demonstrated a strong posture against poverty since their activities touch on the livelihood of the needy and vulnerable populations.

NGOS AND GENDER MAINSTREAMING

In the past fifteen years, poverty has remained a household curse in Cameroon and women constitute the most vulnerable group. According to UNDP (1998), about 51% of the Cameroonian population live in households whose incomes are below the poverty line of US\$ 1 (one dollar) per day. International NGOs are more responsive to integrating gender within their development agenda than national NGOs, given the pervading poverty situation amongst rural women. From the study, it was noticed that SAILD, Plan, HELVETAS and HPI were the most conscious of gender targeting in their outreach activities. They address practical gender needs (PGNs) and attempt to handle strategic gender needs (SGNs) of women and men. By reducing women's workloads at home through the provision of basic needs like food, health care and water, women have more time to try and meet their long-term SGNs. SAILD facilitates access to credit through the NOWEFOR credit house. Women are trained in the manufacture of soap, detergents and skin lotions. They also buy at subsidised prices (bulk buying discounts) from NOWEFOR's one shop that provide women with essential commodities like soap, rice, flour, palm oil and detergents (Table 4). Women's immediate needs are addressed and they are also assisted to generate income through the opening of savings accounts from a share of the seed money granted groups as credit. By meeting the PGNs of women, SAILD and HPI emphasize the integration of more women in farmer groups thereby indirectly redressing the concerns of men since PGNs are shared by all household members but only identified as being in the women's domain because they assume full responsibility for them. SAILD insists on women owning land. Women are trained on how to acquire land and SAILD negotiates purchases on their behalf. Obtaining landed property is a major step towards meeting SGNs. Through NOWEFOR, approximately 5,234 farmers are members of the organization, which comprises of 15 unions, 283

groups, 3,808 women and 1,426 men. As of July 1998, the NOWEFOR credit house had mobilised 2.106.600 FCFA for credit and 1.292.600 FCFA as savings. (SAILD Annual reports, 1996; 1988-89). The World Bank report (1996) notes; 'getting small amounts of money quickly into the hands of poor people can make the critical difference in their capacity to start and sustain productive and much needed businesses'.

The socio-cultural integration of women is highly encouraged by Plan. Communities are encouraged to vote more women into village development committees that identify the development needs of entire communities that have been done previously. They are also encouraged to participate in the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of completed and ongoing projects. Until 2000, Plan International was working with 30 communities and 7,817 foster children in the Momo, Boyo and Ngoketunjia divisions respectively of the NWP (Country Growth Plan FY 99; FY2000). Plan tackles deepening poverty through efforts to minimize subordination, marginalisation and cultural barriers that affect the development of women and girls. Plan is committed through its principle of gender equity to promote equal opportunities by positively discriminating for girls and eradicating gender-based inequities and ensuring access to and control over community resources. It prioritizes women's livelihoods, capacity building, and child and maternal survival, and addresses women's PGNs by promoting health and educating mothers. Their food security and poverty alleviation programmes ensure that female beneficiary groups have a minimum of 60% female membership. Plan's basic education programme ensures that special emphasis is placed on the education of girls through the school savings scheme and provision of essential books. This helps in countering the imbalances and biases in female education.

NGOS AND WOMEN'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC UPLIFT

HPI, AWICO AND SAILD have been instrumental in efforts to uplift the urban poor and rural women in the NWP. HPI and AWICO, with their bottom up approach have been at the forefront of integrating women in livestock development and socio-economic improvement through financial independence. According to the World Bank (1996), many NGOs in Africa have demonstrated a comparative advantage over conventional government institutions in delivering services to the urban and rural poor and other disadvantaged groups especially women. This is done through technical support for agriculture, livestock production, home craft and training in simple farm and financial management techniques.

The Association of Women's Information and Coordination Offices (AWICO) has as motto- 'make we join hand, one hand no fit tie bundle'- that is, let us put our resources together for unity is strength. It has Women's Information and Coordination Offices (WICOs) in Ndop,

Batibo and Bamenda which coordinate the activities of women's groups in the divisions. AWICO enjoys the support of HELVETAS in their outreach programmes on awareness rising for the active participation of underprivileged rural women in village structures and associations. The overall goal of this organisation is to promote and support women in groups, improve their living standards and livelihood strategies through training, sensitisation meetings and income generating activities. Women's groups are supported through training in group management and information exchanges to overcome obstacles in the prerequisites for obtaining loans from formal financial institutions. The socio-economic status of women is improved through instruction in soap making, food and nutrition, record keeping, group management techniques and leadership and capacity building for group leaders. Training courses are also organised on a regular basis on special topics such as home management, soil conservation and improvement, crop protection and food preservation. AWICO implements specific women's projects in the domain of agriculture, small business, food processing and marketing. Major group activities including pig farming, mixed cultivation focusing on yellow yam, sweet potato, maize, beans, soyabeans and the cultivation of vegetables and condiments in gardens. It also assists groups by providing machines for example to process garri. They run corn mills and are involved in cooperative businesses like wholesale and retail buying of palm oil and basic necessities like soap. AWICO is also involved in bee keeping and trading through the North West Bee Farmers Association (NOWEBA) (AWICO Annual reports, 1999/2000). All of these activities have a direct effect on women's socio-economic upliftment as they can obtain basic income from their entrepreneurial activities. Women have taken up activities like food vendors, buying of food stuffs from rural markets to resell in peri-urban and urban markets. In spite of these strides, the organisation has inadequate funds and too few vehicles, which make it impossible to reach certain groups during the wet season.

HPI's expertise in involving women in the management of livestock is marvellous in the province. A study conducted by Akob et al. (1998) show that the participation of women in HPI Cameroon projects in North-west Province had increased from 144 in 1990 to 1,380 in 1996. Prior to HPI assistance, the study showed that 70% of the women were only involved in crop production, 27% in mixed farming and 3% exclusively in livestock production. After six years of HPI assistance with livestock management, 98% of women attest that their overall welfare had improved significantly (Akob et al., 1998; HPI Annual report, 2000-2001). HPI adopts 'Women in Livestock Development' (WILD) as its principal approach to its rural development livestock programmes worldwide. HPI mitigates high female farmer illiteracy barrier through village based training courses, the use of farmer leaders and contact farmers in training programmes and the use of pidgin

English as the medium of instruction to bridge the communication gap. 75% of women farmers interviewed indicated that rabbits, chickens, guinea pigs, pigs and goats rearing near their homes were providing them with protein. They noted that these domestic animals entailed low rearing costs and serve as household food. 65% of the respondents indicated that their families were sustained on the additional income accruing from the sale of small animals while waste from animals provided manure for soil enrichment which increases yields of food crops such as maize, beans and cocoyam. A notable activity is the practice of vegetable gardening in the dry season mainly done with the use of animal dung. Such gardens are common in swampy areas and near streams to permit easy watering.

Most women in the study areas (65%) indicated that in spite of economic hardship, they manage their families by satisfying their nutritional needs, paying school fees, participating in community development projects, buying improved seeds, farm implements and tackling health problems. Some women farmers even reported that they had purchased land. As noted by the World Bank (1990), improving women's productivity through livestock projects can contribute to overall socio-economic growth and poverty reduction since the benefits are felt directly. In HPI's 'Passing on the Gift' programme which focuses on pigs and goats, pigsties and enclosures are visited and training sessions organised on proper husbandry management. A contract is then signed with HPI and the farmer passes on that same breed of the animal after delivery to another group through HPI. Although these approaches are diverse, they have economically empowered rural women in the fight against poverty.

STATE LEGISLATION AND POLICY FRAMEWORKS OF NGOS IN A LIBERALISED CONTEXT

An efficient state administration gives rise to civil associations but this is not the case in Cameroon. Instead, the state is grappling with the emergence of civil society with many actors that collaborate in development. African political systems seldom whole-heartedly welcome the growth of civil society since it implies an inadequate state and reduces opportunities for patronage on which Cameroonian politics is based and contested (Nyamnjoh, 2002; Sandberg, 1994). Whaites (1998:201) remarks, "it is the weakness of the state, its failure to provide services or to engage in local development process that has stimulated a thriving voluntary sector, and with it a strong and vocal civil society". In the context of this study, NGOs are social development actors outside the realm of the state, political society and are involved in activities and practices to improve on the welfare of the population. Among the diverse organisations that make up civil society, NGOs are now often regarded as key intermediaries in development. A discourse of state and civil society's co-responsibility for social welfare pervades neo-liberalism's

recent quest to establish partnership with NGOs. Alvarez's (1998) study of Latin American feminist NGOs reveals that the 1990s witnessed a boom in NGOs specialising in gender policy assessment, project execution and social services delivery; propelling them into public prominence while increasingly diverting them from earlier, more movement-oriented activities. It can be argued that the strengthening of civil society and especially financial support to local NGOs will make them more pro-actively transparent, efficient and accountable to citizens. The state should provide the environment to permit civil society actors and the voluntary sector to flourish. This will lead to greater sustainability in the development work of civil society.

Due to weaknesses in civil society, NGOs are increasingly carving a niche for themselves. Civil society in general and NGOs in particular, take on "the responsibilities now eschewed by neo-liberalism as shrinking state" (Alvarez, 1998). According to Hulme and Edwards (1997), NGOs have a long history of providing welfare services to poor people in countries where governments have lacked the resources to ensure universal provision in health and education; the difference is that now they are seen as the preferred channel for service provision, a deliberate substitute for the state. From our study, this is true of international NGOs like Plan, Helvetas and HPI who have adequate resources, have a professional cadre of personnel and have focused on service provision. Their task is facilitated by the spirit of community participation which is an important ingredient for development in NWP as previously outlined.

With the enactment of the 1990 'liberty' laws on freedom of association, the state put in place the machinery to regulate the activities of the growing NGO sector in Cameroon. Bernstein et al. (1992) note that NGOs are influenced by some of the same social forces and subject to state regulation through laws and financing arrangements. In the interim poverty reduction strategy paper for Cameroon (2000), it was observed that the fight against poverty should involve all social agents including the poor themselves. This can only be effectively managed in the context of a well-conceived partnership involving the state, NGOs, civil society, other development partners and the private sector. Based on our study, it is evident that this partnership is being forged with the legislation to govern NGOs. Law No. 99/014 containing 36 sections and promulgated in December 1999 sets the stage for the policy framework of NGOs. The potential of the law is its recognition of NGOs as partners in development by the state. There is a legal framework for the organisation and functioning of NGOs and the delineation of their scope in terms of actions. The law refers to NGOs as "any duly declared association or any foreign association authorised in accordance with the laws in force and approved by the administration to participate in the execution of missions of general interest especially in the economic, social, cultural, sports, educational or humanitarian sectors".

Credible NGOs are differentiated from other associations by at least three years of contribution in the execution of missions of general interest. Other important points about the law include the registration and approval of NGOs, the monitoring of NGOs by a Technical Commission at the Ministry of Territorial Administration, financing of NGOs which may come from donations and legacies as well as subsidies from corporate bodies governed by public law. State support for NGOs is in the form of tax relief and other exoneration in accordance with the law in force as concerns exemptions. To counter mismanagement and corruption, the law states that, "any manager or member of an NGO found guilty of embezzling funds belonging to or destined for the said NGO shall be punished as provided for by the penal code".

In spite of some good provisions in the law, state responsibility vis-à-vis development partners are not well defined. There is no effective platform for sound collaboration and direct state support to these development partners. Bernstein et al. (1992) are of the view that the state may come to depend on the work of NGOs to extend its reach into the countryside. A critical look at Law No. 99/014 shows that the regulatory and facilitating role of the state is mentioned ambiguously in section 7(1), which states that "a commission hereinafter referred to as the commission responsible for the technical study of approval of application and for monitoring the activities of NGOs is hereby set up". Though the section streamlines the monitoring role of the technical commission, the *modus operandi* has not yet been affected. Due to the centralization of the technical commission, NGO activities still lack scrutiny since the provincial commissions are still to be created. The coordinating role of the state is emphasized in the interim poverty reduction strategy paper. The report notes that the state, civil society and NGO relations are gradually being strengthened to help develop synergies that are indispensable to the struggle against poverty. However, the mechanism of coordination and the responsibility of the state in strengthening these development actors are not clearly stated. There is no commitment to the financing of NGOs by the state; which is why most local NGOs suffer from funding problems. Other shortcomings of the law include the over-centralisation of control by the Ministry of Territorial Administration, which leads to unnecessary bureaucracy and delays. Based on field experience, it would be appropriate to decentralise the Technical Commission charged with the monitoring and control of the activities of NGOs. Such devolution would permit the creation of 'commissions' at the provincial level enabling more regular monitoring of the activities of NGOs. The absence of a code of conduct for NGOs, a prerequisite for building democratic governance and accountability is also fundamental. Such a code would seek to establish precedents that protect the credibility of NGOs and encourage donor support. Forje (1999) noted that civil society in Cameroon has been confronted with problems of political apathy, a lack

of organization, little sense of direction and weak leadership. He adds that, civil society should play a role in balancing state monopoly over resource mobilisation and allocation and in decentralising developmental responsibilities to local institutions.

NGOs and the state are battling to minimize the effect of the economic downturn in Cameroon. Carroll (1992) affirms that NGOs are seen as legally sanctioned civil organisations providing services and support to local grass-root groups in disadvantaged communities and/or engaging in research and advocacy. Against the backdrop of liberalisation, many local and international NGOs are prompting state action by initiating development-oriented activities. However, the relationship between these development agents and the state is still in an embryonic state. The flexible approach adopted by NGOs is often in marked contrast with the bureaucratic and top-down management approach of the state. Lebon (1996) in her study of Brazilian feminist activists noted that they earn their living through 'movement work' within more formal organisations including NGOs; thus combining activism and a professional career. She argues that the challenges presented by the creation of NGOs with regard to issues of representation and participation will ultimately influence the potential of the movement for social change. In the context of Cameroon, the relationship between the state and NGOs is not vibrant considering some of the lapses in the 1999 law. The lack of commitment, funding and institutional support to local NGOs that are adept in service provision is worrying.

There is need for proper regulation and cooperation between the state and NGOs so that local NGOs with viable projects can be supported in their outreach activities. Some local NGOs like SIRDEP and AWICO lack the resources to penetrate deep into NWP. By way of contrast, the state has a good working relationship with some international NGOs like Plan International and Helvetas. This is noticed through the signing of protocol agreements and development accords which makes NGOs more effective and permits the execution of some projects with government's support and contribution. Such agreements give the NGOs greater leverage and a strong institutional backup. This is concretized through high media coverage of their activities.

CHALLENGES FOR NGOS

International and local NGOs are struggling to harness resources at the grassroots to reduce poverty. Yenshu (1998) contend that in comparison to international NGOs, indigenous NGOs often lack competent, well-trained human resources, though the few qualified persons tend to be dedicated and committed to the goals of their respective organisations. However, indigenous NGOs have much to emulate from their international counterparts in areas of technical expertise, project management and utilization of funds. Nonetheless, the quality of local NGOs

stems from their resourcefulness and determination to promote equitable rural development in Cameroon. Yenshu (1998) also note that financing remains a major constraint for most local NGOs to enable them to strengthen their capacity and to secure additional funding for specific development activities. Most heads of local NGOs indicated that they were negatively affected by either a lack of funds or the long time that donors took to disburse funds. This stifles both the implementation of new projects, and the sustainability of ongoing projects such as water projects and community schools.

This scenario was found in Alvarez's (1998) study of feminist NGOs in Latin America. She observes that while many feminist NGOs continue to struggle to provide advice, to promote consciousness-raising and promote gender policies, the material resources and political rewards are scantily available. In these circumstances, most NGOs can only offer technical advisory services. Unlike many international NGOs that benefit from constant funding, local NGOs are often not involved in certain projects after their life span due to a lack of funds. In extreme situations, the staffing levels are cut and NGOs may fold up when funds do not cover running costs. Unsurprisingly, Green and Mathias (1997) argue that a disadvantage that NGOs face in comparison with the public sector is the high degree of fragility of their sources of revenue.

Evidence from the study indicates that some international NGOs are paternalistic and follow the dictates of donors and will not implement projects that are not within the ambit of the donor policies. This has led to projects of low priority to communities being executed. In Ngoketunjia division, some localities expressed reservations with Plan International where a school project was considered ideal but was not the priority project of the community which wanted roads and pipe-borne water. The insistence on specific projects by donors hampers the bridge-building potential of NGOs as it is perceived as ignoring the needs of communities. A survey by the British government in 1995 revealed that 80% of British NGOs surveyed opposed aid being channelled directly to Southern NGOs because that they felt they lacked the experience to manage, monitor and evaluate projects, would be more vulnerable to donor influence, would respond to the availability of money rather than need, would fill a void created by a retrenching state and would be susceptible to manipulation by donor agencies or political groups (Wheat, 2000). Some local NGOs that are not firmly rooted were observed for executing spontaneous projects in a similar community, usually the community or village of origin of the coordinator. Such sporadic projects executed along tribal lines are most often face-saving and meant to garner support for a local elite who has vested interest. The potential of NGOs as agencies in development is still to be tested. These organisations (especially local ones) have been discredited as they are "often used by the elite as a means of either duping or defrauding credulous and naive rural peoples or form an

easy strategy for the embourgeoisement of a modernist *côterie*" (Yenshu, 1998).

The findings of the study reveal that some international and local NGOs display collaboration in the province and they combine resources together in the implementation of certain projects. For example, Helvetas provides funds for the Cameroon Association for Rural Development (CARD) to carry out feasibility studies, cost estimates for the construction and maintenance of water points in collaboration with village water committees. Helvetas has also sponsored some projects for their local counterparts like AWICO, SIRDEP and HURCLED CENTRE. The international aid system and NGOs like Plan and Helvetas are placing increasing emphasis on forming partnerships with and building the capacity of local NGOs so that they can take on an operational role and serve as valuable elements of civil society required to improve governance (Balogun, 1998; Nyang'oro, 1999). For example, USAID has recently announced its intention to direct its funds away from US NGOs towards local NGOs. Though there is some interaction, the relations between NGOs are strained because they compete over development space. In the Mbengwi locality of Momo division, farmers were reported to be at crossroads over whose agricultural method and techniques to follow since the approaches of NGOs diverge on aspects of animal husbandry, crop cultivation and other farming techniques. There is the case of where in some localities, SIRDEP promoted the use of organic material and SAILD promoted the use of fertilizers in the cultivation of food crops. This confusion can be likened to the NGO sector in South Africa where during the apartheid era, the sector was divided, disorganized and characterised by rivalries, personal and organisational jealousies and poor vision of political transition (Mamphiswana, 1999).

It was realized that some local NGOs are plagued by corruption, inefficiency, tribalistic tendencies and no clear-cut development mission or strategy. For the sake of anonymity, it was noticed that these NGOs without any identity and operating clandestinely, employ staff along family and tribal lines, regardless of their skills and expertise. This type of patronage appears to be responsible for the poor development record of some local NGOs as they indulge in shady deals for personal aggrandizement. The consequences are inefficiency, poor management, lack of accountability and incompetence. Some local NGOs have disappeared and some are at the brink of collapse. Most new NGOs have a weak implementation capacity and lack adequate management systems at all levels from financial management to planning, monitoring and evaluation systems (Fox, 1993). Many of these NGOs have no full-time staff or permanent offices. They operate on a voluntary basis and are funded largely by member contributions. These mushroom NGOs run make-shift/mobile offices with undemocratic structures. They could not volunteer any information but it was observed that it is a 'one man show' and management restricted to individual diktat. Some have duped individuals and communities with fake claims of canvassing for development funds and processing of dossiers for those

seeking to travel abroad. Some NGOs operate from hide-outs and others from residential abodes with no basic equipment, the *sine qua non* for effective functioning.

Many of these problems mentioned above may be explained partly due to the lack of a self-regulatory code of ethics for NGOs and a weak monitoring mechanism for the activities of NGOs. The liberal law of association, the lack of standards within the NGO community and the shift of donors away from government toward voluntary sector activities have led many to suspect "NGOs" as in fact small businesses or consulting firms rather than genuine NGOs working on a not-for-profit-basis to assist community groups or raise public consciousness on development issues. Donors report that other new NGOs have become oriented to the "international conference and per diem culture" (World Bank 1994). Due to the credibility problem for the NGO community, some donors are moving from supporting NGOs to directly supporting community-based organisations (CBOs), alleging that NGOs "eat" too much money in administrative expenses, including well-paid staff and modern equipments (ironically, often required by donors who want more professional administration of programmes they support) (World Bank, 1994). Mwansa (1995) states that the lack of a clear definition of the relationship between NGOs and states in social development in Africa, has led to uncontrolled, uncoordinated and ineffective participation of NGOs in social development. A more detailed look at *a priori* projects executed in the province (Table 4) shows that international NGOs have the potential for greater efficiency in service provision. Some of the reasons for successful execution of projects include the fact that they are focused, have adequate funds with appropriate management structures, and increased provincial representation. In addition, they are flexible, sustainable and have disposition for staff motivation. These ingredients are either rare or virtually absent with local NGOs. International NGOs have become conduits of development assistance from donors and their ability to reach the poor especially in inaccessible and landlocked areas of the province.

However, these NGOs can increase their outreach activities by cutting down on huge staff salaries in order to recruit extra hands. It was realized that the topography of the province renders most of the rural areas impenetrable; local NGOs should request for four-wheel drive vehicles that will enable them get to remote areas especially during the wet season. Local NGOs like AWICO, ACDEP indicated as handicap, the inability of meeting with groups and farmers, especially during the wet season due to the bad roads.

Conclusion

It is evident from the study that some international and human and local resource mobilisation, delivering technical expertise, financial support and attempts at capacity building. Results indicate that international NGOs are better placed at fostering capacity building needed to

guarantee the sustainability of projects. They are also involved in small and large-scale projects geared at poverty alleviation, socio-economic empowerment of women and efforts at gender mainstreaming tailored to improving the welfare and livelihood of the population.

Within the state-civil society framework, the efforts of NGOs are uncoordinated. Some international NGOs that have a good rapprochement with the state could shortlist local NGOs that are committed to grassroots development as partners. This will foster a climate of collaboration and partnership in the short and long runs.

Against the backdrop of an economic downturn and the declining role of the state as a major development agent, NGOs can fill gaps by reinforcing and strengthening the capacities of communities to fully participate in their own development.

Increased reliance on handouts from international agencies and donors would be reduced by a greater involvement and increased reliance of communities on their own resources. This is in line with the rights-based approach now promulgated as the foundation for development that shifts the conceptualization of communities and poor people from 'beneficiaries' to legitimate 'claimants'. In other words, there is already a mainstream movement from 'needs to rights'. (de Gay Fortman and Goldweijk, 1998; UNDP, 1998). The state has to play its role as an arbiter ensuring that groups and their representation within civil society are adequately regulated, monitored and supported. Such a move would enable government to take actions consequent on the performance of NGOs. It would also strengthen state-NGOs relations making it more dynamic and collaborative.

The prospects for development cooperation are immense if NGOs take into cognizance the interests of the poor. Therefore, communities should be considered as stakeholders in the development process and not mere beneficiaries. This will render both international and local NGOs more accountable, open and proactive in service provision. As NGOs fight over the development space in north-western Cameroon, there is need for international and local NGOs to foster a strong partnership with local government organizations like municipal councils and village development associations. This will give greater impetus for community actions and stimulate citizen participation and the involvement of target groups as well as beneficiaries in programme design and implementation which now points to be the most promising way of ensuring sustainable development.

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Article

Comparative analysis of stressors on job performance of public and private health workers in Calabar, Nigeria

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This study investigated and compared the influence of stressor on the job performance of the health workers in the public and private sectors. The stressors investigated include interpersonal conflict, job security, poor remuneration, non-participation in decision-making, and inadequate skill acquisition. Five hypotheses were generated to serve as a guide to this study. A validated structured questionnaire was used to collect data from 400 subjects drawn from public and private health sectors. The data collected were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) and Fisher Z Statistics. The result of the study showed that interpersonal conflict, job insecurity and poor remuneration, did significantly influence the job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors, while non-participation in decision-making, and inadequate skill acquisition, were found not to have significant influence on the job performance of public and private sectors health workers. However, the degree of influence of job insecurity on the job performance of public health workers appeared much more pronounced than the private ones, while interpersonal conflicts affected the private health workers than the public ones. The following recommendations among others were proffered: Public awareness campaign on the deadly affect of stress on individuals health be carried out throughout the length and breadth of the state; Conflict management should become a part of training programme for people rising to managerial position; while employees should be taught stress coping techniques.

Key words: Comparative analysis, stressors, job, performance, public and private, health, workers, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

Studies by Selye (1974) and Luthans (1988), among other scholars revealed that stress weakens the human immune system. It thus paves the way for all sorts of diseases to invade the body of her victim with little or no resistance, depending on the severity of the stress. It is important to state that early identification of stress is important for employees at all level, especially in both the public and private health sectors work force. The Encyclopedia of Occupational Health and Safety reported the following as early warning sign of job stress viz: Head-ache, sleep disturbances, difficulty in concentrating, short temper, upset stomach, job dissatisfaction, and low morale (Geetzel et al., 1998). They further observed that stress can have the following impact on an employees' health: cardiovascular diseases, physiological disorder,

depression and burnout, work place injury, suicide, cancer, ulcer, and impaired immune function.

With stress lending her bid in the wreck of the human immune system, among others, it becomes extremely important for work organizations to seek way of effective management of human resources for maximum turn over, under the barest minimum stress. According to Denga and Ekpo (1994), when stress exceeds normal, job performance begins to decline and when it reaches a breaking point, performance may become zero. A person experiencing immense stress breaks down, and may become too sick to work further. Since stress inflicts a great deal of low productivity both quantitatively and qualitatively on organizations, it ought to be given a serious attention in contemporary work organizations.

As rightly observed by Luthans (1988), both public and private work organizations are increasingly becoming profit oriented now than ever. In the same vein, the costly impact of stress is increasingly becoming discernable to

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modern and contemporary societies. Most work organizations in both the public and private sectors are characterized by deplorable conditions, hostile environments, as well as poor working conditions. This has led to severe economic downturns and undue strain on the average employee. Mitchel (1985), Luthans (1988) and Stoner and Freeman (1989) noted that conditions that force employees to deviate from their normal functioning among others include the following: poor economic and financial condition, organizational policies, non-participation in decision making, conflict, poor working condition, job insecurity, changes within an organization, inadequate or lack of motivation, and poor skill acquisition. Job stress according to Siegrist (1996), can be regarded as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or need of the work, and can also lead to poor health and injury

Health caregivers are not exempted from this condition. The health organization is supposed to be the only haven for the ailing patient. It is expected to be a place where pains are assuaged and sufferings ameliorated. It should be a place where those whose souls and emotions have been battered by illness can get succor. It ought to be a place of reassurance for ailing patients whose hope of survival is sinking. The expectation of those who seek the attention of health caregivers (patients) is such that after they must have been taken care of by the hospital staff, they would definitely return home feeling better and fully recovered. This indicates that these health workers are expected to be at their best, exhibiting very high level of concentration, with minimal or no distractions and treating patients with careful attention. But on the contrary, findings from surveys carried out by the researchers such as Cole (1998) revealed that instead of getting better some patients have had their conditions aggravated or complicated. Some have suffered irreparable loss of limbs, eyes, and untimely death. Some had piece of dangerous items such as surgical blade left in their bodies after operation. Often times as a result of this unwholesome development, some private medical institutions according to Robbins (1999) have been closed down, many health care-givers have had their licenses withdrawn, and a lot of court cases instituted for redress on damages on patients' health. These unwholesome developments have often times been perceived to result from carelessness of health care givers, or an act of gross irresponsibility as it concerns the tenets of medical profession.

Stoner and Freeman (1989), as well as Mitchel (1985) did observe that stress could have serious consequence for both employees' health and job performance. Stress can cause depression, irritation, anxiety, fatigue, lowered self-esteem, and reduced job satisfaction, among others. It is obvious that these aforementioned conditions can never allow any employee to put up his best in terms of job performance; be expected to exhibit any meaningful level of concentration at work. However, there seems to be relatively better incentive for workers in private

establishments, even though some of them may appear to be too profit-making inclined. Does this tendency to make profit at all cost without recourse to the feelings of employees constitute a stress factor? This study is therefore conducted to investigate and compare the influence of the following stressors: interpersonal conflict, job insecurity, poor remuneration, non-participation in decision making, and poor skill acquisition on job performance of health workers in both public and private sectors.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The research design adopted for this study is the ex-post facto design. In this study, the causes of poor job performance among health workers in the public and private sectors will be determined by examining the responses of health workers on identified stressors on their performance.

The subjects of the study were drawn from among public and private sectors health workers. Health workers used for this study are those who have had formal training in any aspect of health care delivery, such as medical doctors, pharmacists, nurses, and laboratory scientists. Four hundred subjects drawn from 37 health institutions were studied. Since subjects involved health workers from public and private health sectors, stratified random sampling was utilized. The researchers also ensured that the different levels of health care institution (primary, secondary and tertiary) were adequately represented. A structured and validated questionnaire was used for data collection. The instrument contained two sections - A and B. Section A consisted of 7 items designed to gather the demographic data of the respondents. Section B contained 30 items designed to measure the influence of identified job related stressors on job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors. The reliability of the instrument was ascertained using the test-retest procedure. A reliability coefficient (r) of 0.88 was obtained. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used in the data analysis. Fishers z statistics was further employed to compare the coefficient value (r_s) of both sectors, to measure the level of significant difference between the groups of workers.

RESULT

The data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers z statistics. The statistical tools used stemmed from the fact that they were most appropriate statistics for such comparative study. Each hypothesis was tested and either accepted or rejected at 0.05 level of significance. The findings were discussed in relation to the hypotheses set for the study Table 1.

Interpersonal conflict and job performance

The figures obtained for r are 0.03 for public health workers and -0.18 for private health workers. This shows that interpersonal conflict as a stressor impacts much more on the job performance of private health workers than on the public health workers. The relationship is stronger for the private sector. Further computation using the Fishers Z statistics gave a t -value of 2.12. At this

Table 1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers Z statistics of Interpersonal Conflict and job performance of public and private health workers (N = 400).

	Variables	$\Sigma X/\Sigma Y$	$\Sigma X^2/\Sigma Y^2$	ΣXY	r	Zr	SE	Z
Public	Interpersonal conflict (x)	2714	38236	39524	0.03	.030	0.1	2.12*
	Job performance (y)	2906	47804					
Private	Interpersonal conflict (x)	3054	47162	45964	-0.18	.182	0.1	
	Job performance (y)	3020	46962					

*p < .05 df, 398; critical t-value, 1.96.

Table 2. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers Z statistics of job insecurity and performance of health workers in the public and private sectors (N = 400).

	Variables	$\Sigma X/\Sigma Y$	$\Sigma X^2/\Sigma Y^2$	ΣXY	r	Zr	SE	Z
Public	Job insecurity (x)	2808	40528	41434	0.27	.28	0.1	2.10*
	Job performance (y)	2906	47804					
Private	Job insecurity (x)	2858	42342	43252	0.07	.070	0.1	
	Job performance (y)	3020	46962					

* p < .05 df, 398; critical t-value, 1.96.

Table 3. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers Z statistics of remuneration and job performance of public and private health workers (N = 400).

	Variables	$\Sigma X/\Sigma Y$	$\Sigma X^2/\Sigma Y^2$	ΣXY	r	Zr	SE	Z
Public	Remuneration (x)	2400	29344	35866	0.56	.65	0.1	2.10*
	Job performance (y)	2906	47804					
Private	Remuneration (x)	2720	37908	41520	0.40	.42	0.1	
	Job performance (y)	3020	46962					

*p < .05 df, 398; critical t-value, 1.96.

point the significance level was tested against the critical t-value of 1.96 at .05 level of significance. Since the calculated t-value (2.12) is greater than the critical t-value (1.96), the null hypothesis was rejected. Thus, the relationship between interpersonal conflict and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors does significantly differ.

Insecurity and job performance

Based on the r figures obtained for public sectors (0.27) and private sector (0.07) as shown in Table 2, one can infer that Job insecurity affects the job performance of the public sector health workers more than the private sector. Thus the relationship is stronger for the public sector. For

the Fisher's Z statistics, since the calculated t-value (2.1) is greater than the critical t-value (1.96) at .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This therefore means that there is a significant difference in the relationship between job insecurity and job performance of public and private health workers.

Remuneration and job performance

The correlation coefficient result presented in Table 3 shows that r for public health workers was 0.57 while private health workers had 0.40. Based on this, one can conclude that the relationship between poor remuneration and job performance is stronger for public health workers than private health workers. To compare the two rs, the

Table 4. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers Z statistics of Non-participation and job performance of health workers in public and private sectors (N = 400).

	Variables	$\Sigma X/\Sigma Y$	$\Sigma X^2/\Sigma Y^2$	ΣXY	r	Zr	SE	Z
Public	Nonparticipation in decision (x)	2278	27474	33556	0.16	.161	0.1	1.01*
	Job performance (y)	2906	47804					
Private	Non participation in decision (x)	2598	50152	39504	0.06	.060	0.1	
	Job performance (y)	3020	46962					

* p > .05 df, 398; critical t-value, 1.96.

Table 5. Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Fishers Z statistics of poor skill acquisition and job performance of public and private sector health workers (N = 400).

	Variables	$\Sigma X/\Sigma Y$	$\Sigma X^2/\Sigma Y^2$	ΣXY	r	Zr	SE	Z
Public	Poor skill acquisition (x)	2922	44322	42654	0.07	.70	0.1	-0.81*
	Job performance (y)	2906	47804					
Private	Poor skill acquisition (x)	2858	41720	43274	0.15	.151	0.1	
	Job performance (y)	3020	46962					

*p > .05 df, 398; critical t-value, 1.96.

were subjected to further treatments using Fishers Z statistics, and the calculated t-value of 2.1 was obtained. The calculated t-value (2.1) was compared with the critical value of 1.96, at .05 significance level. The calculated t-value being greater than critical t-value led to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Based on this result, it was concluded that there is a significant difference in the relationship between remuneration and job performance of public and private sectors health workers.

Participation in decision making and job performance

As shown in Table 4, the figures obtained for the coefficient correlation (r) are 0.16 and 0.06 for public and private sector health workers, respectively. The figure reveals that non-participation in decision-making affects the job performance of public health workers more than the private health workers. Thus, the relationship is more for public health workers. Further comparison of the two rs using Fishers Z statistics gave a t-value of 1.01. To test for the level of significance, the calculated t-value (1.01) was compared with the critical t-value (1.96) at .05 significant level. It was observed that the critical t-value is greater than the calculated t-value. Based on the result, the null hypothesis was retained. It therefore implies that the relationship between non-participation in decision-making and job performance of public and private health workers does not significantly differ.

Skill acquisition and job performance

As shown in Table 5, public sector health workers had 0.07 while private sector health workers had 0.15 on the correlation coefficient (r). On the basis of the result, poor skill acquisition is said to be loosely related to job performance of health workers in the public sector than their counterparts in the private sector. The Fishers Z distribution result was -0.81. This is far less than the critical value of 1.96 at .05 significant level. From this, we can uphold that the relationship between poor skill acquisition and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors does not significantly differ.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Findings from the study based on the hypothesis one testing showed that there is a significant difference between interpersonal conflict and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors. Findings from the study prove that the relationship between interpersonal conflict and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors does significantly differ. This implies that interpersonal conflict affects significantly the job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors. The above assertion is in consonance with the submission of Hodge and Anthony (1991) among other scholars, that conflict which involves strain between

two or more people, especially when it is not properly managed, is capable of impeding any organization's attempt at effective goal accomplishment. According to Robbins (1999), it retards communication, reduces group cohesiveness, and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between and among members. Conflict is said to be unproductive at least, and possibly even destructive (Cole, 1999). Since conflict cannot be avoided, means of managing conflict effectively should be the concern of management.

Furthermore, a close perusal showed that conflict impacts more on the job performance of private health workers than that of public health workers. According to the researchers, this implies that there may be effective management of public sector health organizations compared to the private sector. The private sector being profit oriented institution, would seek to maximize all available material and human resources for the advancement of the organization, often times to the detriment of her employee. This invariably would also affect conflict management. The researchers reasoned that, there may be well structured and laid down conditions of service and means of seeking redress by employees on any area of their dissatisfactions in the public sector, while these may not be found in the private sector. There is also hierarchical structure, well laid out in the public sector that help to define job scope and working conditions which is known to be sources of major conflict in most work organizations. The situation in the private sector may be a far cry from this. This the researchers suggested may also be the reason why interpersonal conflict influence the job performance of health workers in the private sector more than those of the public sector.

With reference to hypothesis two testing, the result of the study in Table 2 established that there is a significant difference in the relationship between job insecurity and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors. This means that job insecurity is a factor which negatively influences job performance of health workers generally. From reviewed literatures, it is acknowledged that job insecurity is a serious social issue that causes a lot of unrest in work organizations since in the 1990s. Cascio (1992) observed that this has led to the formation of employees union, which is primarily concerned, with opposing such acts that threatens job security. Cumming (1993) opined that job insecurity might take the form of termination of an employee's appointment, or lay-off. Lay-off has been observed to have negative impact on other employee's morale (Denga and Ekpo, 1994). The resulting effect of layoff as observed by the researchers is that clients who believe in an employee who is laid off could be lost; morale of other employees may be lowered, among other resultant effects. These will in no small measure affect the job performance of the entire workforce and output of the organization as confirmed in this study. Comparing the *r* figures, it is observed that job insecurity threatens the public

sector more than the private sector. According to the researchers, this may imply that there is more subordination to organization goals in the private sector than in the public sector. Furthermore, the private health workers may in the nature of the setting/or administrative structure of the private sector not be able to oppose management's directives and decisions in a situation where their counterparts in the public sector would. This could owe to the fact that most private health organizations do not have a well-defined condition of service that those in the public sector can fall back to, when they perceive a breach in condition of service. Cascio (1992) posited that lay-offs are often intended to reduce cost of running an organization. It is the opinion of the researchers that the private sector may not have much to grapple with in this regard, since it directly plans and spends her resources. It may not hire labor that is not essentially needed. Since it is also profit oriented, there may not be redundancy resulting from over staffing, as is often the case in most public organization in the public sector. Furthermore, such private ventures may not want to lose staff due to the experience gained over years, since this will also boost the effectiveness and performance of the organization. In this case, staff is likely to quit voluntarily for pursuance of other personal interests, than being lay-off.

There was also found a significant difference in the relationship between remuneration and job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors. This assertion is confirmed by out-come of the test of hypothesis three. The implication is that poor remuneration is a stressor in both the public and private sectors. As observed by Cascio (1992), formation of employees union has become a serious social issue that is causing a lot of unrest in our work place and among workforce. In resent times health workers unions seem to be on the lead in industrial actions for wage increment or improved remuneration. Such strike actions have led to untold complications on the health condition of patients, and loss of lives. Another dimension as observed by Hodge and Anthony (1991) is that when an employee perceives that the possibility of releasing or dispensing benefits that accrue to him or her is low, the fact will lessen the potency of the employers reward, regardless of the size of the reward. They further stated that this situation to a great extent lowers workers morale, kills initiative, and causes a lot of unrest in the workplace. This as observed by the researchers may be the reason why poor remuneration appears to be affecting the job performance of public health workers more than that of their counterparts in the private sector (as the *r* figures in Tables indicates), despite the fact that the former earns a better pay. Thus it may be important to state here that, good understanding of conditions of service and timely implementation of such, as it accrues to employees is very important in the use of improved pay or promotion as a tool for employee's motivation.

Further findings of this study showed that, the relationship between non-participation in decision-making and

Job performance of health workers in the public and private sectors did not differ significantly. It means that non-participation in decision-making was not a factor that could have serious influence on job performance of health workers in both private and public sectors. The health sector is to a great extent specialized. This may be an important factor according to the researchers influencing consultations in decision-making in health institutions. Clemen (1991) opined that a good decision is one that gives the best outcome. He further stated that if the best outcome is desired, it must only come after careful consultation with those who have a role to play in execution of such decisions. In the light of this, it is the opinion of the researchers that, in decision making for decision-making in-stance, the nurse may have little or no meaningful contribution to make in a matter affecting the job of the laboratory scientists. The same may be the case between a physician and pharmacist whose duty is to dose and dispense drugs while the former diagnoses and prescribes. The researchers suggested that consultation might be among health workers on the same level and specialty. This is often noticed in cases where a specialist needs to make consultation on matters bordering the task at hand. This may be the reason why participation in decision-making may not be a factor seriously influencing the job performance of health workers generally. That notwithstanding, the public sector seems to be affected more (though insignificantly) compared to the private health sector workers. The researchers suggest that this may be due to the difference in the administrative structure of public sector, compared to that of the private sector. The administrative structure of the public work organization is more complex.

The result of the test of hypothesis five affirmed that the relationship between inadequate skill acquisition and job performance of health workers in the public and private sector does not differ significantly. This in other words may imply that health workers in both the public and private sectors are not poorly skilled. It could also mean that poor skill acquisition is not a stress factor, which affects seriously/significantly the job performance of health workers in both public and private sectors. Mitchel (1985) noted that most workers receive salary or some sort of time based pay. And since the amount they earn is mostly dependent on the amount of time they work, money was not tied to performance. The pay structure of most work organizations in Nigeria including the health sector uses the time based pay system. This time based system the researchers reasoned might not lay serious emphasis on skill acquisition, which may be the reason behind the insignificant relationship between skill acquisition and job performance of health workers generally. Secondly, due to the unreliable nature of present day work organizations as observed by Burnes (1993), employees seems to be focused on developing themselves in a particular skill to enhance their chances of survival. Thus, pursuing their chosen course even at the expense of organizations

goals. Comparing the two r figures, it was observed that inadequate skill acquisition affects the job performance of private sector health workers more than the public sector, since the r figures compared, showed the tendency of poor skill acquisition to affect job performance of private sector health workers. The researchers suggest that the private sector in terms of facilities and equipment used do not have much that could help her employees develop skills already acquired.

Recommendations

Based on the research findings the following recommendations are proffered:

- i. Awareness on the deadly impact of stress on individual's health and job performance should be carried out through public lecture campaigns.
- ii. Conflict management should become a part of training programme especially for people using to managerial positions, especially in the public sector.
- iii. The government should enact policies that can protect workers generally, and health workers in particular from the menace of job insecurity, which seems to characterize modern day work organizations.
- iv. Employees in both public and private sectors should be taught stress coping techniques.
- v. Management of both public and private sector work organizations, especially those saddles with health care delivery services, should consciously seek out ways to reduce stress to the barest minimum within their work organizations. This will boost their job performance and minimize the risk patients are exposed to under a tensed atmosphere.
- vi. Generally, employers should also seek out the kind of needs employees bring into work organizations. This will help employers in understanding the needs of employees, thus promoting mutual relationship. Employees can also decipher whether the need of such employees is in consonance with the organizations goals. This may help reduce conflict that causes tension in work organizations.

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Article

Sustenance of education sector reforms in Nigeria through adequate participation by all stake holders

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This study assessed the views of stakeholders on sustenance of education sector reforms in Nigeria. A structured and validated questionnaire was used to collect data from 160 subjects randomly drawn from primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions, including education inspectorate divisions. Population t-test was used to analyze the data collected. Results of the study revealed that community participation in administration of schools, teacher's development and retraining, improved funding by government and strengthening of the education inspectorate services, shall significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria. The study recommends the provision for retraining of teachers at all levels of education, regular inspection /supervision of schools and provision of adequate funds to ensure sustainability.

Key words: Sustenance, education, sector, reforms, adequate participation, stakeholders, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

The honorable minister of education (Mrs Oby Ezekwesili) on the 23rd of Nov.2006 during her media tour to the Rutam House (home of The Guardian news paper) organized by her ministry, cited the various spheres of education that any serious Government must spend sufficient time and resources as:

- i) Early child education.
- ii) Basic education.
- iii) Secondary education.
- iv) Tertiary education.
- v) Adult – non formal education.
- vi) Special needs education.

The Minister further revealed that there is gross deterioration at the various levels of education. At the level of early child education, she pointed out that the policy, structure and governance, physical infrastructure available for delivery, deployment of technology within it, academic achievements, monitoring and inspection, quality of curriculum, teacher quality and supply, funding, and equity issues among others were found to be poor and grossly inadequate. On basic education, the minister re-

vealed that out of the 42.1 million children within the age bracket of 1 - 14 years, only 25.8 million were in school. At the secondary education level, only 30% of the population that should be in secondary school is in school in Nigeria. The global standard recommended for developing countries, in respect of tertiary education that in any population, at least 20% of the youth should be in tertiary institutions. The situation in Nigeria according to the minister shows that only 3% of her youths are in school. On the adult/non-formal education and special needs education, she revealed that no serious attention has been given to these important aspects (Daily Sun, 2006). The situation, which gave rise to the all-embracing reforms in the education sector among others, include the followings:

- i) Early childhood education in Nigeria lacked a defined national policy, it is largely private sector driven with no government regulation, there is no standardized curriculum, monitoring and inspection are inadequate, there is very low number of qualified teachers, and funding is non-existent.
- ii) At the basic education level, governance is largely public sector driven, physical infrastructure is below standard and grossly insufficient. Basic amenities such as water and light were seriously lacking. Though curriculum was rated high, but teachers' quality and number remains

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very low.

iii) Physical infrastructures were found to be inadequate at the secondary education level. Academic achievement at this level was also found to be very low, as only 23.37% of students across the federation made five credits pass in subjects, which include mathematics and English Language. The curriculum was rated low while an academic standard has declined.

iv) The carrying capacities of tertiary institutions were found to be very low, even though there were 75 universities in the country (26 Federal, 28 state and 24 privately owned).

Their overall carrying capacity was found to be 148,323 as against 1.2 million demands annually. Infrastructures were found to be inadequate and crumbling. Academic achievement as evident in underemployment, unemployment and issues of poor relevance to the market demand was rated medium: The quality of curriculum was low and irrelevant to modern imperatives of our nation state, especially on entrepreneurship and career development (The Guardian, 2006).

The reforms

Ezekwesili (2006) observed that the current structure of the Federal Ministry of education seriously limits its capacity to provide a strong policy articulation, delivery, and regulation of the education sector. This, according to her, has implication for the development of human capital needed to generate progress. In this vein a new organization has been proposed for the Federal ministry of education. In the proposed organogram, 21 parastatals have been grouped into six, thus:

- i) Capacity/economic development group: This group shall be made up of the national university commission (NUC), the national commission for college of education (NCCE), and the national board for technical education (NBTE). This group as proposed will take charge of tertiary education matters.
- ii) Basic and secondary education commission: This houses the universal basic education commission (UBEC) and the Federal inspectorate services (FIS). The commission will oversee basic and secondary education matters.
- iii) The examination group: This Includes joint admission matriculation board (JAMB), West African examination council (WAEC), national examination commission (NECO), and the national business and technical examination board (NBTEB).
- iv) The education resource commission: This shall be made up of the national teacher institute (NTI), the Nigerian educational research and development council (NERDC), national institute of educational planning and administration (NIEPA).
- vi) Education finance group: This is made up of education

trust fund (ETF) and Federal scholarship board.

vii) Social democratization group: This group has the largest membership proposed. These include national commission for nomadic education (NCNE), the national mass education commission (NMEC), the national institute for Nigerian language (NINLAN), the Nigerian French language village (NFLV), and the Nigerian Arabic language village (NALV).

The teachers' registration council (TRC), national library of Nigeria (NLN), and the national mathematics center shall retain their full autonomy.

Other reforms proposed by the government according to Ezekwesili as contained in the Guardian newspaper of November 23, 2006 include:

- (a) Putting in place a housing scheme for all teachers.
- (b) Annual presidential teachers' excellence award, which will be instituted with effect from 2007.
- (c) To cater for those who did not make it into universities and polytechnics, the ministry has proposed Innovation enterprise Institutions (IEI) such as:
 - i) The information and communication technology institute.
 - ii) The school of oil and gas technology.
 - iii) The adire institute of technology.
 - iv) The Fashion Institute of Technology it has been estimated that 50 of such schools across the country should enroll 300,000 students yearly.

At the 53rd session of national council on education held in Calabar Cross River State tagged, 'Promoting access to quality education', the delegates exhibited enthusiasm and agreed that there should be no further delay in dealing with the problems so far identified. About 18 items were approved for implementation at the summit. These among others include:

- i) Approval of guidelines for establishment and operation of production units in technical colleges.
- ii) The infusion of elements of drug abuse and preventive education into the adult and non-formal education sector
- iii) An Edo language curriculum for senior secondary school level.
- iv) Early child-hood development policy.
- v) Frame work/guidelines for the gender policy in basic education.
- vi) The inclusion of vocational education into special education.
- vii) National school health policy as a legal framework for promoting learning.
- viii) Retraining of French teachers.
- ix) Setting up of school based management committees (SBMCs) by March 2007.
- x. States repositioning of their inspectorate departments and to adopt the instrument used for the operation reach all secondary school (ORASS) for effective sustenance of

regular inspection and supervision of schools.

- xi) Implementation of the national education sector HIV/AIDS strategic plan.
- xii) Upgrading of grade two teachers in the system to NCE.
- xiii) Mobilization of support for girls education project (GEP).
- xiv) Both Federal and state governments to make adequate financial allocation for literacy initiative for empowerment (LIFE) and mobilize support, to reduce youth restiveness.
- xv) Strengthening of Federal and state inspectorate services, so as to ensure that proprietors do not exploit teachers (The Guardian, 2006).

Further reforms as reported by The Guardian (2006) noted that the proposal to consolidate tertiary institutions across the nation is to convert all Federal Polytechnics to "Campuses of proximate contiguous Federal Universities". According to the source, the consolidation is aimed at achieving 5 objectives:

- i) Maintain the integrity of the course content and specialized focus of the programmes of polytechnics and colleges of education.
- ii) Elevate the affiliate institutions to degree awarding establishments.
- iii.) Eliminate the HND/Bachelor degree dichotomy in labour market.
- iv) Increase the volume of academic space for admission into tertiary level of education by over 500,000 extra candidates per annum.
- v) Strengthen the commitment of the Federal government to quality tertiary education.

These reforms from all indication are bold, pragmatic, and scientific and result-oriented. But the big question remains, how will these reforms be sustained? This question becomes very relevant in view of policy somersault and absence of stability and continuity in government decision-making and implementation in Nigeria.

In an attempt to find an unbiased answer to the question raised, the researchers decided to examine the views of stake holders who are directly involved in the implementation of government policies on education, these are teachers at the various levels of educational ladder as well as staff of inspectorate divisions.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The Ex-post facto design was used for this study. The design is appropriate for studies, which are intended to assess existing characteristics (Gay, 1992). It involves describing conditions that already exist, and determining reasons or causes for their existence or occurrence. Therefore, in this study, the sustainability of the ongoing education reforms in Nigeria shall be determined by examining the responses of stakeholders to the items raised in the hypotheses generated to guide the study.

The variables that were considered very important in this study

are community involvement in school administration, teachers' development and retraining, funding by government, and strengthening of inspectorate services.

The four hypotheses raised to guide the conduct of the study are:

- i) Community Involvement in the administration of schools would not have significant influence on the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.
- ii) Teachers development and retraining would not significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.
- iii) Sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria would not be significantly influenced by improved funding by the government.
- iv) Strengthening of the education Inspectorate Services would not significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.

A sample size of 160 randomly selected respondents drawn from among primary and secondary schools teachers (including the school administrators), lecturers in tertiary institutions, and staff of education inspectorate services, were used for the study. The structured questionnaire used for data collection was divided into two:

Sections – A and B. Section A contained 3 items designed to seek demographic information about the respondents while section B (made up of 12 items) sought information about the variables raised in the hypotheses. The questionnaire was pre-tested in a trial study involving lecturers and administrators in the faculty of education, University of Calabar. The Split-half-techniques was used to estimate the relative reliability of the instrument. Reliability co-efficient of 0.78 was obtained. Population t-test statistics was used for the data analysis.

RESULTS

The results are presented hypothesis by hypothesis. The testing of the hypotheses was carried out at 0.05 level of significance. A population t-test analysis was adopted to test all the hypotheses because of the nature of the questionnaire items. This involves comparing the mean obtained from the study sample with the hypothesized mean. The hypothesized mean was obtained by multiplying the average of the scores attached to the four response categories (strongly agree - 4 point, agree – 3 point, disagree – 2 point, strongly disagree – 1 point) by the number of items measuring the variable (Hypothesized mean = $\frac{4 + 3 + 2 + 1}{4} \times 3 = 7.50$).

The summary of population t-test analysis of the variables investigated is presented in [Table 1](#).

The result of the analysis presented in table 1 reveals the sample mean and standard deviation of the community participation variable.

Standard deviation of the community participation variable. A comparison of the sample mean with the hypothesized mean value of 7.50 gave a calculated t-value of 14.42 at 0.05 level of significance with 159 degree of freedom. With result of this analysis the null hypothesis was rejected. This result therefore implies that community involvement in the administration of schools will significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.

On teachers' development and retraining, the result

Table 1. Summary of population t-test of the influence of independent variables on sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.

Variables	X	SD	t-value
Community participation	9.23	1.54	14.42
Teachers development and retraining	8.97	1.80	10.5
Improved funding	10.02	1.91	16.8
Inspectorate services	9.10	2.11	9.76

* $p < 0.05$; $t = 1.96$; $df = 159$ (significant at 0.05 level).

shows that the calculated t-value of 10.5 is greater than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with 159 degree of freedom. With this result, the null hypothesis was rejected. This therefore implies that teachers' development and retraining would significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.

The result as presented in Table 1 indicates that the calculated t-value of 16.8 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with 159 degree of freedom. With the result of this analysis the null hypothesis was rejected. This shows that improved funding by the government would significantly influence sustenance of education reforms.

Further more the result presented in Table 1 reveals that the calculated t-value of 9.76 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with 159 degree of freedom. With the result the null hypothesis was rejected. This therefore means that the strengthening of the education inspectorate services would significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Findings from the study was that community participation in administration of schools, teachers' development and retraining, improved funding by government, and strengthening of the education inspectorate services will significantly influence the sustenance of education reforms.

A critical analysis of the responses of the stakeholders showed that community participation in the running of public, primary and secondary schools situated in their locality is a welcomed idea, and that this will promote sustenance of education reforms in Nigeria. Over 92% of the respondents strongly affirmed this. The researchers however suggest that care should be taken to avoid heightening the bureaucratic administrative process. As this according to the researchers may become counterproductive in handling of issues requiring urgent attention. In the same vein, Hodge and Anthony (1991) observed that role conflict between two or more persons might impede any organizations attempt at effective goal accomplishment. The structure thus, needs to be properly defined and laid out to avoid role conflict and lapses in administrative process.

On the development and retraining of teachers at all levels of education in the direction of the reforms, stakeholders are of the view that this is vital for the sustenance of the ongoing reforms in the education sector. It was also the views of over 89% of the stakeholders that the proposed housing scheme for all teachers is an appropriate motivation for teachers to striving for excellence, as well as the annual presidential teachers excellence award proposed to take effect from 2007. 90% of stakeholders used as subjects for the study strongly affirmed that conversion of Polytechnics and Colleges of Education to Universities or degree awarding Institutions would create difficulties in the production of middle level manpower needed at the lower cadre of educational institutions. In an open letter to president Olusegun Obasanjo, the national president and secretary of college of education academic staff Union (COEASU) reiterated this view of stakeholders, and further observed that the merger is capable of placing the children of the less privilege at a disadvantage, especially in terms of affordability of education, among others (Sunday Punch, 2006). It is important to state here that there is need for the Federal government to make a wider consultation on this issue and take into consideration the view of stakeholders and the entire public.

Improve funding by the Federal government as expressed by stakeholders will serve as a potent motivational gesture towards the sustenance of educational reforms in Nigeria. The upgrading and provision of adequate infrastructure including maintenance of same, and improved wage package for teachers at all levels of education were identified to include areas that need improved funding by the Federal Government, as well as provision of service vehicles for the coverage of all schools to ensure adequate supervision and inspection by the education inspectorate service division. This may assist in curbing the fraud identified in the education sector, as most of such has been linked to poor working conditions identified among employees (Mitchel, 1985). This may also help in raising the dignity of the teaching profession, which is important for improved performance and sustenance of the reforms.

Finally, stakeholders (91%) strongly affirmed that revitalization of the education inspectorate service department would have positive impact on the sustenance of the ongoing education reforms. In the same vein, Oby Ezekwesili observed that the governments failure in the education sector, working through the federal ministry of education was as a result of not being conversant with what was going on in the various levels of education through the inspectorate services (Daily Sun, 2006). Equipping of the inspectorate services, as expressed by stakeholders is thus very necessary in the sustenance of the ongoing reforms. Beside the provision of adequate service vehicles for the department, regular inspection and school supervision is vital for the sustenance of the reforms. In addition 83% of the respondents were of the

view that the inspectorate should be given more powers to recommend removal of staff that have been identified to be very low in performance. The researchers are also of the opinion that this in no small measure will keep all stakeholders in check and possibly lead to improved commitment and performance on the part of uncommitted staff.

Conclusively, Community participation in the administration of schools located in their locality is a welcome innovation. But care need to be taken in the structuring of the public participatory process to avoid creation of conflicts and bureaucratic bottleneck in schools administration. Teachers retraining and development need to be ensured. Teachers at all level of education need to be properly educated on what is required of them for the success of the education reforms, while improved wage package be considered, and the proposed housing scheme and annual presidential award be vigorously pursued. A lot need to be done on improving and providing of adequate infrastructure in all educational institutions while also equipping the inspectorate adequately.

Recommendations

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

1. Public participation in the running of schools within their locality should be properly streamlined and structured to avoid administrative bottleneck.
2. Adequate provision should be made for the retraining of teachers at the various levels of education in the direction of the reforms.
3. Workshops and seminars should be organized to properly educate all stakeholders on the direction of the reforms.
4. Upgrading of physical infrastructures and provision of additional facilities, which are seriously lacking in most institutions should be vigorously pursued by the Federal Government.
5. Regular inspection and supervision of all primary and secondary schools should be ensured.
6. The inspectorate services need to be adequately equipped for improved performance.
7. Provision of adequate funds to ensure proper implementations and sustenance of the reforms should be ensured.

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Article

School attendance of child labor: A pilot survey in Gaibandha district of Bangladesh

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The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of some selected determinants on school attendance of child laborers in Bangladesh. For this, the data were collected from 1157 child laborers of Gaibandha district, using purposive sampling technique based on the scheduled questionnaire. To analyze the collected data, univariate analysis, χ^2 - test statistic and logistic regression technique are used respectively. The results have been revealed that 63.80% child laborers have completed their primary level education and 70.80% child laborers have left school at age (5 - 17) years. Also, it is found that 80.80% child aged from 5 to 17 years were not going to school but 79.80% child laborers have interest to go to school. The effect of respondents' age, working hour per day and working place on school attendance was found to be negative while educational qualification of father and father alive has positive significant effect on school attendance. The interesting point is that mother's education has strong impact than father's education. Poverty was found to be the major cause of child labor to leave their school. Long-time work of the child labor revealed fewer attendants to the school. It is evident from the study that children of large families are more vulnerable to less schooling. Finally, this paper provides some suggestive policy measures which may be very effective to increase school attendance of the child laborers.

Key words: Child labor, school attendance, χ^2 - test, logistic regression.

INTRODUCTION

Child labor refers to any type of intensity of work that hampers children's access to education, damages their physical or psychological health, hinders their development within their families or deprives them of their childhood or self-respect. Child labor is most concentrated in Asia and Africa. There are at least 250 million working children worldwide under the age of 15 years. One half of the working children are in Asia, while in Africa, the working children are one third and in the Latin America, they are one fifth. Asia is led by India, which has 44 million child laborers giving the largest child workforce in the world. Nearly 70.00% of these children work in hazardous condition in mines, with chemicals and

pesticides in agriculture or with dangerous machinery (Sikder, 2003). Bangladesh, with a population of over 149 million (PRB, 2007), is one of the densely populated and low-income countries in Asia and is characterized by extreme income inequality, rapid population growth, frequent occurring natural disasters and a poverty stricken rural based economy inhabited by 74.40% of total population (World Bank, 2006). A report reveals that in Bangladesh, there are 7.00% child labor of both sexes of total population in the age group of 5 - 14 years and the boys and girls are 10.00% and 4.00% respectively (UNICEF, 2007). According to National Child Labor Survey (NCLS) (2003), there are 14.20% child laborers of the total 35.06 million children in the age group of 5 - 14 years in Bangladesh. The total working child population between 5 and 17 years old is estimated at 7.90 million where the boys and girls are 73.50 and 26.50% respectively. This report

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also reveals that the child labor aged 5 - 17 years in rural and urban areas are 6.40 and 1.50 million respectively (BBS, 2003). The prevalence of child labor may lead to a large proportion of illiterate population of the country and which is the major barricade of development. Khanam (2008) showed that the education of parents significantly increases the probability that a school-age child will specialize in study. Mamun et al. (2008) found the impact of some key factors on health condition of the child laborers during working. The significant and positive gender coefficient suggests that girls are more likely than boys to combine schooling with work. Khanam (2006) showed that work has a substantial negative effect on child's school attendance and schooling progress. She also found that parental education has much significant effect on schooling progress than current school enrollment. Gunnarsson et al. (2004) argued that an employed child may be enrolled at the same time and even could attend school by sacrificing his/her leisure. But still child work has considered the potential to harm child's school outcomes by limiting time spent on study or leaving the child too tired to make efficient use of time in school.

Though different study has been done on child labor in Bangladesh, the factors of low school attendance have not been actively investigated and properly analyzed. So, the aim and objective of this article is to identify the risk factors and impact of these risk factors on the school attendance of child laborers as well as to provide some recommendations. Undoubtedly, the findings of this study will help to identify the risk factors of low school attendance among child laborers that will also be very helpful to policy makers to take necessary steps in this regard and for which it is believed that the overall school enrollment rate will increase.

DATA AND METHODS

The data of size 1157 child laborers through purposive sampling technique by a structured questionnaire were collected from the Gaibandha district of Bangladesh. In order to show the association among the selected variables, the chi-square test has been performed. An interesting method that does not require any distributional assumptions concerning explanatory variables is Cox's linear logistic regression model (1970). Logistic regression model can be used not only to identify risk factors but also to predict the probability of success, which considered as a dichotomous dependent variable *Y*. It takes the value 1 when the child laborers still going to school and when the child laborers are not going to schools. In this model, the following explanatory variables are being used.

Demographic variables: Age of the respondents, father and mother alive, and family size.

Socio-economic variables: Salary of the respondents, working hour per day, place of work, occupation of household head, educational attainment of fathers and mothers, and working since (years).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Univariate analysis

From Table 1, it is seen that out of total child workers, 81.80% are males and 18.20% are females. The study proclaims greatest shares (90.90%) of Muslim and only 9.10% are non-Muslims child laborers. Age is measured by the number of completed years at last birthday. In the same Table, it is seen that the vulnerable age structure of child labor with 30.50% between 5 and 11 years, 54.70% between 12 - 14 years and the rest of them between 15 - 17 years. Among the respondents 80.00% were enrolled in school. But they have been asked about current attendance at schools, only 19.20% reported that they were still going to school and 80.80% have already dropped out. Among the respondents who have left school, 81.50% reported 'poverty' as the main cause behind leaving school. In this collected sample, 63.80% have obtained primary education. While only 11.80% have completed class VI or more. Though the working children have very little time to go to school, 79.80% expressed their willingness to go to school. It is observed that most of child labor enforced by poverty (64.00%) and one fourth (25.10%) of the respondents mentioned 'family pressure' as the main cause for becoming a child labor. Working children are the objects of extreme exploitation in terms of toiling for long hours with minimal pay. The results show that about 36.00% of the respondents work 10 - 14 h per day, which is obviously hazardous to them. It is a matter of regrets that 8.00% of the respondents work 15 or more hours per day. Though they have to work for a long time without any rest, they get a very small payment. Some of them work only for food. More than one fourth (27.70%) of the respondents get no salary for their work. While 40.20% reported their salary within 1000 Tk. per month. As the earning of child labor is very little, they can hardly save any money. More than four fifth (83.10%) child labor reported that they can not save any money. Drug addiction is one of the serious social problems in Bangladesh. It is also seen in the study area. If a child becomes drug addicted, he can't continue his normal life and must be out of work. The study found a considerable number (35.00%) of respondents' addiction in cigarette. Recreation is an important thing for the physical and mental development of a child. But the working children get very little opportunity for this. The study depicts that 97.40% of the respondents get the opportunity to play regularly. About three fourth (73.90%) of the respondents reported television as the main media of entertainment. It is found very low awareness level among the child labor and the results reveal that one fourth (23.80%) of the respondents do not know that government provides free primary education in our country. About 43.90% do not know about the allowance provided by government for girls at high school level education. About 80% of the respondent have no idea about

Table 1. Percentage Distribution of Child Laborers According to Some Selected Socio-economic, Demographic and Schooling Characteristics.

Background characteristics	No. of respondents	Percentage	Background characteristics	No. of respondents	Percentage
Educational qualification			Kind of addiction		
No education	283	24.40	Cigarette	405	35.0
Primary	738	63.80	Ganja	15	1.3
Secondary+	136	11.80	Injecting drug	1	0.1
Causes of child labor			None	736	63.6
Willingly	113	9.80	Ownership of work place		
For family	290	25.10	Family	139	12.0
Poverty	741	64.0	Others	1018	88.0
Step mother/father	8	0.70	Known about free primary school		
Place of work			Yes	882	76.2
Shop	207	17.90	No	275	23.8
Home	97	8.40	Known about prohibited child labor		
Workshop	94	8.10	Yes	232	20.1
Hotel	163	14.10	No	925	79.9
Agriculture	124	10.70	Causes behind leaving school		
Chatal	26	2.20	Poverty	769	81.5
Mill/Factory	403	34.80	Lack of time	29	3.1
Others	43	3.8	Lack of interest	43	4.6
Religion			Parent's lack of interest	87	9.2
Muslim	1052	90.9	Others	15	1.6
Non-Muslim	105	9.10	Educational attainment of mothers		
Sex			No education	965	83.4
Male	947	81.80	Primary	167	14.4
Female	210	18.20	Secondary+	25	2.2
Age			Occupation of household head		
5-11 years	353	30.50	Agriculture	242	20.9
12-14 years	633	54.70	Business	185	16.0
15-17 years	171	14.80	Day labor	521	45.0
Working since (years)			Others	209	18.1
≤ 1	496	42.90	Salary of respondents (TK.)		
2-4	559	48.30	No salary	321	27.7
5-7	83	7.20	1-1000	465	40.2
8+	19	1.60	1001-2000	286	24.8
Enjoy the work			2001-3000	78	6.7
Yes	110	9.50	3001+	7	0.6
No	1047	90.50	Play of regularity		
Mother alive			Yes	30	2.6
Yes	1118	96.60	No	1127	97.4
No	39	3.40	Willingness to go to school		
Household head			Yes	923	79.8
Father	1035	89.5	No	234	20.2
Mother	89	7.7	Types of family		
Brother	26	2.2	Single	1053	91.0
Others	7	0.6			

Table 1. Continued....

Fathers education			Combine	104	9.0
No education	814	70.3	Media of entertainment		
Primary	276	23.9	TV	855	73.9
Secondary+	67	5.8	Radio	149	12.9
Monthly saving (TK.)			Cinema	118	10.2
No saving	961	83.1	Others	35	3.0
≤ 250	121	10.5	Working hour per day		
251-500	70	6.1	<5 hours	208	18.0
501-750	3	0.2	5-9 hours	439	37.9
Household monthly income (TK.)			10-14 hours	417	36.1
Up to 1000	91	7.9	15+ hours	93	8.00
1001-2000	494	42.7	Enrolled in school		
2001-3000	501	43.3	Yes	926	80.0
3001-4000	55	4.8	No	231	20.0
4001-5000	11	1.0	Family size		
5001-6000	3	0.2	1-4	239	20.7
6000+	2	0.1	5-7	767	66.3
Left school since			8-10	142	12.2
6 Months	74	10.3	10+	9	0.8
1 Year	136	18.9			
More	509	70.8			
Fathers alive			Still going to school		
Yes	1036	89.5	Yes	222	19.2
No	121	10.5	No	935	80.8
Total	1157	100.00	Total	1157	100.00

the prohibited child labor. While working with child labor, it is very important to have sufficient information on household characteristics of working children. Table 1 also reveals that 89.50% of the child laborers reported their father as household head. The combined family system is decreasing and most of the respondents (91.00%) are from the single family as well as 66.30% child laborers come from large family size as 5 - 7. The occupation of the head of household is an important element to carry the family. Day labor seems to be dominant (45.00%) among the various occupational categories of the head household. About 43.30% of the child laborers reported that the per month income of their household head is between Tk. 2001 and 3000 and 42.70% reported between Tk. 1001 and 2000. At the same time, 7.90% reported that their head of household do not earn more than Tk. 1000 per month. In Table 1, it has also been discussed about some parental characteristics. The results indicate that 89.50% of the respondents were reported that their fathers are alive and in case of mothers, this number is 96.60%. Table 1 also represents some important figures about the educational attainment of parents, which is a remarkable determinant of child labor. About 70.40% of the respondents reported that their fathers are illiterate while 83.40% of the respondents reported that their

mothers are illiterate.

Bivariate analysis

To see the association between school attendance of the child laborers and various selected background characteristics, a well-known statistical tool namely- Pearson chi-square test procedure is used and the results are presented in Table 2. The results reveal that there are significant variations in school attendance among the respondents with different socio-economic and demographic characteristics. Among the selected background characteristics – age of the respondents, working hour per day, family size, working place belongs to, salary of the respondents (TK.), occupation of household head, father alive, educational attainment of fathers, and mothers are significantly associated with the school attendance of the child laborers.

Logistic regression analysis

Table 3 represents the results of logistic regression analysis in terms of regression coefficients, standard error of coefficients, significant level and odds ratio.

Table 2. Results of association between school attendance and some selected attributes.

Background Characteristics	Still going to school		Values of χ^2 , df and α
	No (%)	Yes (%)	
Age of the respondents			$\chi^2 = 30.670$
5 – 11 years	71.4	28.6	df = 2
12 – 14 years	84.0	16.0	$\alpha = 0.000$
15 – 17 years	88.3	11.7	
Working hour per day			$\chi^2 = 500.307$
<5 h	27.4	72.6	df = 3
5 - 9 h	84.5	15.5	$\alpha = 0.000$
10 – 14 h	99.5	0.5	
15+ h	98.9	1.1	
Family size			$\chi^2 = 25.544$
1 – 4	70.7	29.3	df = 3
5 – 7	82.1	17.9	$\alpha = 0.000$
8 – 10	89.4	10.6	
10+	100	0.0	
Working place belongs to			$\chi^2 = 10.827$
Family	70.5	29.5	df = 1
Others	82.2	17.8	$\alpha = 0.001$
Salary (Tk.)			$\chi^2 = 54.035$
No salary	69.2	30.8	df = 4
1 – 1000	71.4	28.6	$\alpha = 0.000$
1001 – 2000	80.7	19.3	
2001 – 3000	84.6	15.4	
3001+	88.2	11.8	
Working since (years)			$\chi^2 = 3.438$
≤ 1	81.7	18.3	df = 3
2 – 4	79.1	20.9	$\alpha = 0.329$
5 – 7	85.5	14.5	
8+	89.5	10.5	
Occupation of household Head			$\chi^2 = 20.780$
Agriculture	87.2	12.8	df = 3
Business	75.1	24.9	$\alpha = 0.000$
Day labor	83.1	16.9	
Others	72.7	27.3	
Fathers alive			$\chi^2 = 21.980$
No	96.7	3.3	df = 1
Yes	79.0	21.0	$\alpha = 0.000$
Mothers alive			$\chi^2 = 1.055$
No	87.2	12.8	df = 1
Yes	80.6	19.4	$\alpha = 0.304$
Educational attainment of fathers			
No education	89.6	10.4	$\chi^2 = 137.57$
Primary	61.6	38.4	df = 2
Secondary+	53.7	46.3	$\alpha = 0.000$
Educational attainment of Mothers			$\chi^2 = 89.709$
No education	84.8	15.2	df = 2
Primary	67.1	32.9	$\alpha = 0.000$
Secondary+	20.0	80.0	

Note: df means degrees of freedom.

Table 3. Logistic regression estimates for the effect of some selected variables on school attendance of the child laborers

Variables	Coefficients (β)	S. E. of Coefficients	Significance	Odds ratio
Age of the respondents				
5 – 11years (r)	-	-	-	1.000
12 - 14 years	-0.804	0.260	0.002	0.448
15 - 17 years	-1.473	0.482	0.002	0.229
Salary (Tk.)				
No Salary (r)	-	-	-	1.000
1 - 1000	-0.560	0.413	0.176	0.571
1001 - 2000	-0.356	0.444	0.423	0.701
2001-3000	-0.535	0.572	0.349	0.586
3000+	-0.611	0.304	0.271	0.542
Working hour per day				
<5 h(r)	-	-	-	1.000
5 – 9 h	-3.182	0.291	0.000	0.041
10 - 14 h	-5.686	0.075	0.000	0.003
15+ h	-6.519	0.763	0.000	0.001
Working since (years)				
\leq 1(r)	-	-	-	1.000
2 – 4	-0.100	0.146	0.154	0.904
5 – 7	-0.152	0.070	0.072	0.859
8+	-0.437	0.281	0.143	0.024
Family size				
1 - 4(r)	-	-	-	1.000
5 - 7	-0.699	0.449	0.120	0.497
8 – 10	-0.735	0.286	0.010	0.480
10+	-0.812	0.217	0.099	0.443
Occupation of house Hold				
Agriculture (r)	-	-	-	1.000
Business	0.336	0.418	0.421	1.400
Day Labors	-0.597	0.416	0.151	0.550
Others	0.408	0.420	0.331	1.504
Working place belongs to				
Family (r)	-	-	-	1.00
Others	-1.389	0.405	0.001	0.025
Fathers alive				
No(r)	-	-	-	1.000
Yes	0.889	0.119	0.002	2.433
Mothers alive				
No(r)	-	-	-	1.000
Yes	-0.499	0.756	0.509	0.607
Educational attainment of fathers				
No education(r)	-	-	-	1.000
Primary	0.802	0.474	0.091	2.229
Secondary+	0.898	0.323	0.005	2.456
Educational attainment of mothers				
No education (r)	-	-	-	1.000
Primary	0.538	0.379	0.124	1.791
Secondary+	1.259	0.741	0.089	3.523

Note: (r) represents reference category.

By using the logistic regression, it has been examined that age of the respondents has a significant and negative impact on the school attendance of the child labor. It is obvious from Table 3 that child labors in the age group 12 - 14 years are 55% less likely and in age group 15 - 17 years is 77% less likely to attending school than those child labors in the age group 5 - 11 years. School attendance of a working child is strongly dependent on how many hours a child works per day. The study results indicate that working hour per day has highly significant and negative influence on school attendance of working children. Those who work 5 - 9 h per day are about 96% less likely to attend school than those who work less than 5 h per day. Again those who work more than 10 h per day are about 99% less likely to attend school than the reference category. This is due to the fact that a child spending more time at work has very little time to go to school. Another significant determinant of school attendance of working children is the ownership of the farm/business institution in which they work. Children working in such workplaces, which do not belong to their families, are 75% less likely to attend school than those who work in family owned workplaces. Orphan hood is an important predictor of schooling of working children. Children with their father alive are 2.43 times more likely to attend school than those with their father dead (reference category). Family size plays a vital role to determine school attendance of working children. Children from the families having 5 - 7 members are about 50% less likely to attend school than those having less than 5 members in their families. Education of parents has shown a large positive effect on school attendance of working children. Fathers having secondary or more education are 2.45 times more likely to send their children to school than illiterate fathers. The greater impact of mother's education on school attendance of working children is to be found than the father's education. The results indicate that mother having secondary or more education are 3.52 times more likely to send their children to school than illiterate mothers.

Conclusion

It is observed that the socio-demographic conditions of the child laborers and their families' lie at a very lower stage and most of them are very poor. The results of this study clearly indicate that poverty is the main reason for low schooling of working children in the study area. The contingency analysis (χ^2 test) shows that the factors age of the respondents, their salary, working hour per day, family size, place of work, belong to relatives, occupation of household head, father alive, educational attainment of father and mother are the most significant predictors of the school attendance. The logistic regression model indicates that out of all the selected variables that are included in the analysis age of the respondents, working hour per day, family size, working place, belong to

relatives, father alive and educational attainment of father appeared to be the most important and significant predictors in determining the likelihood of school attendance. It is suggested that with the increase of the working hour level of the respondents, the likelihood of school attendance decreases. Furthermore, the place of work of the child laborers is also closely related to their school attendance, which indicates that the children who are older face more problems to attend school.

Policy recommendations

It is difficult to improve the schooling condition of working children. For achieving the educational goals, there is no alternative to make the children stay away from labor and let them to spend more time on other activities, especially, schooling. Surprising enough, there is no one simple policy measure to eradicate child labor. It's persistence through two centuries is testimony that there is no easy solution. Yet today, it is understand that much better the causes of child labor and have the opportunity to craft policy that can sharply reduce and ultimately eradicate it. So, the following policy should have taken.

- i.) Policy makers should target the older children who can't continue school for various reasons to influence them to go to school regularly.
- ii.) Long-term strategies that will mostly be related to the parents of the children are needed to alleviate poverty from the society.
- iii.) Children from large families are more vulnerable to less schooling; the FP programs, already in place in some parts of Bangladesh, should be extended and strengthened to doorsteps of the couples.
- iv.) The orphan children who are working many hours per day, food for education program should be extended for them.

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Article

Transformation of the South African health care system with regard to African traditional healers: The social effects of inclusion and regulation

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The paper will examine the recent incorporation of African traditional healers into the larger government-regulated health system. The new legislation passed by government is an attempt to legally recognise the fact that African traditional healers in South Africa play a significant role as part of the health system in the country. The health system has gone through dramatic changes since 1994, including the shifting of portfolio committee member from Nkosazana Zuma in 1994 to the present minister of health Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang and the endless complexities of policy implementation since the dawn of the new democracy. This paper argues that there is a conflict of interests between traditional healers and the government concerning the new legislation that aims to guard the South African public against medical malpractice among traditional healers and enable members of the public to freely consult with traditional healers as they please. The Traditional Health Practitioners Act, No 22 of 2007 provides a clear description of the various types of traditional healers operating in South Africa and how we should differentiate between them. But, while the Act sets out a number of objectives for government, it talks little about the practical regulation of spiritual healing.

Key words: African traditional healers, traditional health practitioners act, No. 22 of 2007.

INTRODUCTION

By definition a traditional healer in the South African context is someone who possesses the gifts of receiving spiritual guidance from the ancestral world. In many cases we find that the individual who has these powers is someone selected by the ancestors from a historical family background that has a powerful ancestral lineage. Historically, various laws existed in the different provinces of South Africa outlawing African traditional healing practices. In Natal for instance, the Natal Code of native Law of 1891, stipulated in section 268 that: "who so ever shall practice as an inyanga yokubula (male or female diviner), or a rain doctor, or as a lightening doctor, shall be deemed guilty of an offence." Section 269 stated: "whoever by himself, or any other agent or messenger, consult or employs a male or female diviner, shall be deemed guilty of an offence" (Kale, 1995).

This system of ancestral calling has been carried on for centuries and it has not changed over the years, which in

South Africa is known as amatwasa or ukutwasa (www.ngk.nl/wormer/szz/scripte_veenstra.html). The research takes place in a well-situated area of Grahamstown. Grahamstown is situated in the Eastern Cape in South Africa between the ocean and the surrounding mountain landscape. The place has a historical context of rich South African history, made up of African culture and western colonial rule. Though rich in both African and western culture, it is also one of the most poverty-stricken regions in South Africa at present. There is indeed a high prevalence of economic strength but it is slowly being ignored because of the high poverty rate, the scourge of HIV/AIDS, unemployment and several social ills that have lowered living standards in the region. As a case study it has deep-rooted African traditional practices that have been upheld even into the new democracy. Although it seems to be changing with the globalised system, the people of Grahamstown do not discourage their tradi-

tional rituals. After their arrival from several months in the bush they are welcomed home with the slaughtering of an animal and the community welcoming them to embrace their new status as men. The other most popular gathering is of the Standard Bank National Arts Festival that takes place in the autumn season. It draws around a thousand actors and entertainers from across South Africa to a place that is full of traditional and cultural significances.

The concern by the South African government since the democratic transition in 1994 has been to provide for the interests of its entire people. The first draft of the constitution provides that "South Africa belongs to those who live in it" (The Republic of South Africa Constitution, 1996).

The prime policy interest of government officials was to remove social inequalities based on race and to create a social environment that secured equal benefits for all South African citizens. This paper considers one aspect of this new policy framework, which attempts to regulate and improve health care facilities for all South Africans.

The democratic transition has been a sensitive issue. At present, fourteen years into this system, the South African government has indeed reached some of its transformation targets but still there in, a lot of restitution and reformation of social policy programmes that have to be focused on. This paper looks at the health system in South Africa and the steps taken by government in formulating and implementing the Traditional Health Practitioners Act, No 22 of 2007 (THPA), which aims at including legally marginalised healing processes that have been part of healing rituals in Africa and especially in South Africa for many generations.

The THPA claims that it will be able to regulate and transform the practices of African traditional healers in South Africa. The South African government had already begun altering previous discriminatory policies, especially those pertaining to equal access to health care system. This concern with equality was at the root of government attempts to start reintroducing traditional practices that had been dismantled by the Apartheid system and labelled as 'witchcraft' or 'wizardry' and as an inefficient tool for curing the ill (Richter, 2003). The apartheid government had even drafted policies designed to neglect the health care of the African population, which came along with a more general disrespect for African culture and tradition. The apartheid government discouraged the African population from consulting with traditional healers and created discriminatory health provision measures. The effect of this was to insulate traditional practices for many years, preventing traditional healers from obtaining professional recognition among the South African people who consult with traditional health practitioners (www.doh.co.za).

After briefly setting out what traditional healers are and how their practices function, this paper considers the perceptions of those who are affected by the new

legislation: the government, traditional healers and the patients who consult with these healers. It also considers the resistance that NGOs operating as mediators between traditional healers and government have levelled at the new law. Likewise, it briefly considers private medical aid companies that mediate the access those patients have to traditional healers by considering whether these companies allow their clients to consult traditional healers.

AFRICAN TRADITIONAL HEALING

The government's concern is the poor health status of the South African people. With the spread of many diseases that have diminished the health status of the people, it is up to government to find solutions to curb the spread of diseases that are threatening the lives of the people, especially those who cannot afford private health care. The focus in this regard will be on African traditional healers and diviners in South Africa. This category includes diviners (Sangoma), herbalists (inyanga), traditional birth attendants and traditional surgeons (Wreford, 2007). The law defines traditional health practice as;

The performance of a function, activity, process or service based on a traditional philosophy that includes the utilisation of traditional medicine or traditional practice and which has its object-

- i.) The maintenance or restoration of physical or mental health or function or
- ii.) The diagnosis, treatment or prevention of a physical or mental illness or
- iii.) The rehabilitation of a person to enable that person to resume normal functioning within the family or community or
- iv.) The physical or mental preparation of an individual for puberty, adulthood, pregnancy, childbirth and death.
- v.) But it excludes the professional activities of a person practicing any of the professions contemplated in the Pharmacy, the Health Professions, the Nursing, the Dental Technicians Acts, and any other activity not based on traditional philosophy (The Republic of South Africa, THPA Act, 2007).

An African traditional medical practitioner or healer is defined as someone who is recognized by the community in which she/he lives as competent to provide health care by using animal or mineral substances and other certain methods based on the social, cultural and religious backgrounds as well as prevailing knowledge, attitudes and beliefs regarding physical mental and social well being and the causation of disease in the community (<http://www.worldhealthorganisation.org>).

The traditional healer is called through a dream by his/her ancestors. They show him/her a place where they must go in order to be trained. The training can take

twenty years or more in some cases; according to exceptional cases it can be less, during which trainees acquire a broad training in the use of traditional medicines. In African history, it is a widespread custom that the ancestors choose someone within the family, which depends on the powers the previous ancestor had. That person becomes a mediator between the ancestors and the community and also takes up the position as a leader. The people would gather around in a hut or to slaughter an animal to give thanks to the ancestors. The powers of the ancestors are difficult to articulate (Kale, 1995) and it is difficult for the chosen person to illustrate the extent to which they would go in order to realise their calling as a sangoma. Diviners believe that if one fails to adhere to the calling the person is doomed with bad luck and with illnesses that is incurable. Traditional healing aims to include all aspect of psychological healing and go to the root of the sickness or the cause by consulting with the bones to show the client what has gone wrong and what the cause of the illness is. African medicine or practice has been rooted on searching for a holistic approach. Traditional health practitioners basically follow three principles when treating patients:

- i.) Patients must be completely satisfied that they and their symptoms are taken seriously, and that they are given enough time to express their fears.
- ii.) The healer studies the patient as a whole and does not split the body and mind into two separate entities.
- iii.) The healer never considers the patient as an isolated individual but as an integral component of a family and a community (Kale, 1995).

The training of a healer is first of all through what is named a "calling". The ancestors call on selected people (most commonly women) and these people regard themselves as servants of the ancestors. They concentrate on diagnosing the unexplained. African traditional healers or mostly diviners (sangomas) analyse the cause of a specific events through communicating with the spirits from reading cards or throwing bones and interpret messages of the ancestors. There are those who are called 'medical intuitive' in western terms. What they do is that they can see or glance at the subject to see what is happening in their bodies and minds. For others, healing is not a voluntary practice for sangoma. Certain individuals receive what they refer to as "the calling", where by the spirit of the ancestors instructs them in a vision at night to become a diviner.

If they continue to decline the calling they will continue to be ill for some time until they finally accept. The most mystical point about the resistance of the calling is that they will have chronic illnesses that western medicine is unable to diagnose (Zanemvula, 2008).

The traditional healing process follows different stages:

- i.) Identification of the cause or discovery of violation of

the established order through supernatural divination.

- ii.) The removal of the hostile source by neutralisation of the sorcerer or seeking of the ancestors' forgiveness with sacrifices and rituals to appease their anger or by prescription of certain medication (Truter, 2007).

The traditional healers (see interviews) were quite clear that their practice will not be regulated in the same fashion as western medical doctors. The government realised that it is dealing with a special kind of healing system. In relation to western customs the practices are complementary. However, where education and training are concerned, the practices are distinctly different. To become a doctor in western medical practice one needs a degree in that field of study after a minimum of six years at university to qualify as a medical practitioner. By contrast, to become a traditional healer requires an individual to go through calling and training by a qualified sangoma.

INCORPORATION

Mrs. Penny Bernard (a western woman who has trained as a sangoma; traditional healer in Grahamstown) does not dispute the fact that traditional medicines may complement western medicine. Drawing on her practical experience, she said that traditional healing processes offer insights into an individual's world and future beyond western "rationality" which rational western approaches to medicine has not as yet been able to engage with. As an anthropologist, Mrs. Bernard accepts the existence and relevance of the spiritual world for the healing of an individual. She said that, she supports this whole process by the government of recognition of traditional practitioners and that by inclusion of their practices, the government is trying to engage with "unresolved social aspects of manifestation of the destruction by the apartheid system that broke-up their cultural beliefs". On that matter she stated: "Allowing our practice into a western, bureaucratic, institutional system means to regulate them and control them, which is something that could not be achieved at present and it may be impossible even in the long term". Her standpoint is that, in criminalising a traditional healer who wrongfully diagnosed a patient or those who practice witchcraft, it will be very difficult to determine what the correct form of punishment should be. She asked: "How is government going to punish such behaviour?" There have been incidents where employees threaten other employees with witchcraft. Now how will a public workplace or an institution be able to protect their employees from such threats? She believes that a political body cannot have control over traditional healers. The challenge resides in standardising the training of traditional healers. It is a system that is unique because of the way in which the healers can enter into the healing process of the ancestors to reveal the diagnosis of their clients. For this reason, however, the system could be open to abuse of power. There could be too many

worries, such as the opportunism of a few powerful individuals and the exploitation of traditional remedies, and it is doomed to be a “social crisis”. Being able to monitor African traditional healers is also going to be an increasingly difficult problem as it appears that there is a constant rise in the number of practicing traditional healers in the country. This creates difficulties for monitoring the training they receive and the way in which government will give professional qualification of recognition. She stated that, unlike western doctors, there is no set curriculum for the training of traditional healers. Qualifying as an African traditional healer is a very vague system of practice and even if government wants to license it, it could be open to abuse. The question she posed to me was, how can you standardise the practice of a healing system whose healing methods or remedies reside in rituals such as dancing (so that the spirits can take over the body), hearing voices and dreams?

THE GOVERNMENT

The Traditional Health Practitioners Act (THPA) was passed in 2004 and was later amended in 2007. The stated aim of the Act is to transform and regulate African traditional healing practices in South Africa. The bill was first debated in early 1998 by the portfolio minister of the National Department of Health to try to regulate what has been described as a health practice which was unhealthy. The law aims to establish a regular’s body that shall regulate some 200,000 or more African Traditional healers in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2008). They practice round the country and up to 70% of South African people consult with them on a regular basis. The THPA aims to give government recognition to traditional health practices. It symbolises the respect that the government has for the practice and the medicine that it uses, and wishes for these to be standardised. The Act declares that it aims to create a statutory body of traditional healers comprising of twenty-two members who will develop mechanisms and initiatives that would register the healers and record their practices, with the full support of the government.

These doctors receive their calling through dreams and their diagnosis of illnesses from dead ancestors and the throwing of bones for divine revelation. Because of the metaphysical nature of these claims, a tricky political and social issue arises concerning the manner in which government will seek to bureaucratise a system that demands of its practitioners special “powers” in order to successfully practice as a doctor. This is one of several contentious issues that have arisen.

The conclusion reached by government concerning the inclusion and regulation of traditional practitioners was that government must aim to preserve and protect the traditional knowledge that has been neglected by the previous regime. Its standpoint is to respect and uphold the tradition that had been in existence for centuries in

South Africa. During the official debate in parliament in 2004, government officials advocating the law found it to be a necessity in order to preserve traditional knowledge, protect the public and channel the skills of traditional healers. African medicine or practice has been rooted on searching for a holistic approach to curing diseases.

The Portfolio Committee submitted the Traditional Health Practitioners bill in 2003. The parliamentary debate concerning the inclusion and regulation of traditional health practices formally started in 2004 at parliament during the National Assembly (Hansard, 2004). All political parties were present to present their views regarding the issue. The Democratic Alliance (DA) supported the regulation process, as they stipulated and argued that the Act proposed confirms and formally recognises the central role that traditional healers play in seeing to the health needs of our people. The DA presented three reasons for its support of the Act: the Act, firstly, sets out a formal legal regulation process/procedure such as registration of healers by the South African government. Secondly, the law will seek to provide the patients of traditional health practitioners with protection from mistreatment and malpractice. Thirdly, the Act will reaffirm constitutional commitments to the promotion of cultural diversity and tolerance of difference (Hansard, 2004).

The discussion in parliamentary sittings also involved traditional organisations from across the country. There was no clear formulation of an implementation date for the government’s plans to come into effect. Between 1998 and 2008 little progress has been made with implementation.

The government’s position in the debate surrounding the new law has been informed by the need to professionalize the practice of traditional healing, to standardise the knowledge base and to place traditional healers under the control of the government through the formation of an official statutory council, promulgated by legislation and enforced by law. The Interim Traditional Health Practitioners council (ITHPC) will be responsible for issuing licences to practice, the approval of training, disciplining and suspending offending members of the profession. The council will also constitute legal proceedings against members accused of malpractice. The document further states that the council will institute legal proceedings against anyone not registered or licensed with her who practices illegally. This professional association exists to further the interests of the profession and its members by paying salaries, ensuring conditions of employment, holding annual conferences and organising meetings for members. Their mandate will include providing legal council for individual members who are brought before a disciplinary hearing. Members are expected to pay fees for both the council and the association, which will go towards paying the salaries of the officials and to cover administrative costs involved. These bodies tend by their nature to be bureaucratic.

The Act now makes it illegal for anyone who is not

officially registered by the council (fee renewable annually) to practice as a traditional healer. The council will aim to make recommendations about the composition and the constitution of the permanent council, its scope of practice and the education and training required to be a traditional healer, as well as setting norms and standards for the practice. The aim is to increase the value of traditional medicine, enforce regulations and investigate into complaints and allegations concerning the conduct of registered practitioners. Like western medical doctors, who have to go through disciplinary hearings and be condemned for their mistaken diagnosis when there has been an incorrect diagnosis of a patient, traditional healers will have to go through a similar punitive process.

The regulation of the traditional healers is part of a broader government initiative to transform South Africa into a more inclusive and culturally tolerant society. It appears through the analysis of the debate in parliament over the new law that the political parties involved accepted the whole regulation to preserve the African culture and to protect the interests of the people in South Africa. However, an important issue that still needs to be properly addressed in parliament is the time-span that the government will adhere to in debating and implementing its policies. The following are questions that I feel the parliamentary debate failed to address.

1.) Who is to benefit from the creation of the council? This question is concerning which group is to benefit from the legal framework created by the Act. A regulated traditional health profession ensures that South Africans can now make use of health care services with confidence. The Act will provide certain benefits for traditional healers, as with legal regulation also comes financial security to be placed. A member of the Independent Democrats (ID) Ms. M. N. S. Manana, addressing the parliament of the Republic of South Africa on 9 September 2004, stated that indeed the Act does set out minimum standards for the qualification of traditional healers, though the issue of experience still needs to be addressed. Many traditional healers have years of experience, but no formal training.

2.) But what is formal training in the eyes of a traditional healer? There is an unclear description of this in the Act, which suggests that there was not enough attention paid to the training procedures that traditional healers undergo during the decision-making process that led to the formation of the final Act to be proclaimed as a legal document.

During the national debate of September 2004, parliamentarians stressed the effort to let the interim council punish those who are found guilty of malpractice. That duty, to find a remedy will be placed under the ITHPC. This could create havoc as the punishment of any traditional healer is unknown. The issue of punishment for malpractice is still unclear and it has been left to the ITHPC to look at. Some parties fear that leaving tradition-

al healers to determine the punishments for their peers could be seen as unconstitutional or harsh (Hansard, 2004). Moreover the assumption that offenders will be sent to the same prison cells as other criminals is regarded as problematic. There is a widespread fear of bad spirits or witchcraft, which is an issue that has thrown great light in the use of body parts for muti-rituals.

Witchcraft has increasingly become a weapon of political power over the years. As a result few would be willing to report negative experiences with traditional healers.

One of the most important democratic values that exist is toleration of different cultural beliefs and ways of life within a single state. This means creating institutions that will protect the interests of as many citizens as possible. Inclusion of traditional healing practices into a larger institutional health network requires recognition of institutions for their training and licensing. This means there should be a specified budget allocation to the Department of Health in order to implement the new policies but none as yet exists.

The argument is that traditional healing is a very complex system of health care and entails collaboration with ancestral spirits. Thus being able to include these healing methods into a bureaucratic system is going to bring conflict amongst the groups involved that is, traditional healers and the government and also the patients who use these services. The South African government needs to be clear about the measure it will undertake on how they are going to recognise traditional healers' practices without undermining their spiritual healing methods. Furthermore, there are visible and practical structures in order and the enthusiasm shown by the South African government to recognise this practice that has been part of the culture for years. Although the government does not deny fact that the process of regulation and incorporation will be challenging, it will leave the identification of healers to the ITHPC and also to see through the regulation of their practices.

BETWEEN GOVERNMENT AND THE HEALERS

The regulation of South African traditional healers has not gone unchallenged as there are several non-governmental organisations which are totally opposed to the Act and the creation of the ITHPC that will issue licenses to healers. The most important of these bodies is the South African branch of Doctors for Life International (DFL). Attempts at regulation have implications for medical aid schemes which require a client to consult with a medical practitioner who must be registered by the Council for Medical Aid Schemes and have a relevant registration number. Traditional healers have not yet succeeded in having their practices recognised as legitimate in this system of regulation.

Doctors for Life have gone to great lengths to oppose the ITHPA. Doctors for Life (DFL) is a non-governmental

organisation established in 1991 that totally opposes the incorporation of traditional practices into a bureaucratised health system. Doctors for Life consist of members that are medical doctors, specialist, veterinary surgeons dentist and professors of medicine from various medical faculties across South Africa and abroad in private practice and government institutions (www.doctorsforlifeinternational.com). This organisation successfully took the government of South Africa to court in 2007 in order to challenge the validity of the THPA. In their written response to this project, they claim that the South African government did not fully consult with the public in passing the bill. Doctors for Life took government to court on the grounds that government failed to follow constitutional procedures in implementing the law, which includes the provision that the public must have a say in the decision-making process that informs the policies that govern them. Doctors for Life claimed that;

- i.) The THPA permits any individual who claims to be a traditional healer to register and practice as a health practitioner without any credible or objective assessment of their "qualification"
- ii.) Registration which provides a significant measure of government endorsement precedes any attempt to institute any training or standards supposedly a main objective of the THPA
- iii.) According to the THPA the main governing body for traditional healers will be the Interim Traditional Health Practitioners Council. However the council consists of mostly traditional healers who themselves do not appear to have been subjected to any credible or subjective assessment of their qualifications
- iv.) Practitioners Council. However the council consists of mostly traditional healers who themselves do not appear to have been subjected to any credible or subjective assessment of their qualifications
- v.) Registration grants supposed traditional healers an open license to legally attempt to prevent, diagnose and treat any physical or mental illness using "methods" and "medicine" that have never been identified nor tested. In effect, the government would be legalising an unregulated and non standardised practice. A good example is the publicised use of *ubhejane*, which is widely promoted for the treatment of HIV/AIDS and sold at exorbitant prices without any meaningful test demonstrating its effectiveness (www.iolhiv aids.index.com).

Doctors for Life claims that the healing methods being promoted by the THPA and that are in common use are inherently non-transparent. Their report states that a portion of the healing methods used by traditional healers are derived from "consultation of ancestral spirits" (DFL: Question and Answer, 2006). Ancestral spirits cannot be monitored, controlled or regulated and neither can they be held accountable for malpractice.

In August 2006, the organisation managed to take the government of South Africa to court on the basis that the THPA was unconstitutional because there was no public participation in passing the bill by the National Council of Provinces (NCOP). The South African constitution

obliges parliament to facilitate public participation in the legislative process, both in the national assembly and the NCOP. When a bill affects the provinces, the NCOP must send such a bill to the provincial legislature where public participation must take place. The constitution lists various kinds of bills that are deemed to affect the provinces and this includes health bills. The passing of the THPA required public participation at both national and provincial levels of legislation and the government failed to institute the procedures required to achieve this end.

Doctors for Life also argue that the government is promoting malpractice and is giving traditional healers a free ride if it equates sangoma methods, whose efficacy has not been empirically proven, with the scientifically proven practices of western doctors (DFL, 2004).

The governmental debate simply addresses the functions that the ITHPC has to perform. It seems as though the government is per say not necessarily focusing on the proper planning and implementation of a solid structure of institutionalising traditional practices, but just dumping the THPA in the hands of an unskilled and mostly uneducated traditional council.

The Interim Traditional Health Practitioners Council (ITHPC) of South Africa will ensure that it issues guidelines concerning the practice of traditional health, make further inquiries and conduct investigations into complaints and allegations concerning the conduct of registered practitioners. The council is deemed to serve the interests of the patients that consult traditional healers and also as a communication bearer between traditional organised bodies and the government. The government does not deny the fact that it will be difficult for them to recognise traditional healers (Hansard, 2004) rather; they will let the traditional healers identify themselves through various organisations that represent them in regional locations.

There has recently been a call by a group of traditional healers in Kwazulu-Natal for the government to speed up the process of legalisation and registration of traditional healers. This desperate appeal comes after the recent horrific story of a thirteen-member family that died from the consumption of a traditional herb in Dingleton Township, Port Shepstone, in Kwazulu-Natal. According to the report by the SAPS, the family members had been carrying out a ritual that involved taking herbal medicine when they began collapsing. The medicine was administered by a 17-year old trainee traditional healer, who also died from the concoction. However, the formal makeup of ITHPC has not yet been finalised by the South African government; neither are there permanent members on the council as election of members has not yet taken place.

After a critical analysis of the debate surrounding the regulation of traditional healers in South Africa, I managed to speak to Phillip Kubukeli (telephone interview, 11 September, 2008) in order to gain clarity on the issue. He has been practicing as a traditional healer for the past

thirty-five years and has been acclaimed a professor by his peers for his dedication to his healing. He is also part of the Council of Traditional Healers Association in the Western Cape and a sitting member of the ITHPC that is identified by the THPA. My concern and the question that I asked him was: How would government be able to regulate traditional healers? He replied confidently by saying that it is indeed going to be possible for the government to regulate them and that he agrees with the DFL on the notion that only traditional healers will be able to identify one another, "spiritually" off course. He further said that, being a part of the ITHPC, he is part of a team that is working with the Minister of Health to come up with proper initiatives that will have an effect on the transitional process of the registration and licensing of traditional healers. He added that he is happy that the government came up with the THPA because it will unite the people of South Africa. Kubukeli argues that the legislation will enable those who are spiritually gifted to benefit from legal protections and participate in decision-making processes that effect their rights and obligations in the health care of the people of the country.

The THPA will further benefit traditional healing practices and dispel any misconceptions about the practice to those who have doubts about the knowledge embedded within these practices. Kubukeli is very enthusiastic when expressing his belief that there is a possibility of freely giving or exchanging knowledge with western practices and communicating with them with regards to finding cures or preventive measures for diseases that can be treated by traditional medicines. It is clear that throughout South African history, most traditional doctors have been taught through dreams and have not necessarily possessed the skills of reading or writing without their illiteracy negatively affecting their practices. Illiteracy will, however, plainly be a drawback for going through the formalities of registration and one of the roles envisaged for the council is the education and development of its members.

The THPA provides for the establishment of a council that will: Provide for a regulatory framework to ensure the efficiency, safety and quality of traditional health care services, provide for the management and control over the registration, training and conduct of practitioners, students and specified categories in the traditional health practitioner's profession (The Republic of South Africa, the Traditional Health Practitioners Act, 2007).

There are a number of practical problems that government-appointed officials might face in enforcing the standards of the act. The registration process will ensure that to become a traditional healer registered with the council and for your practice to be recognised, there must be an annual fee that the person must pay to the council. This will be used to keep the council functioning and for financing meetings that will be held and conferences to be conducted on a yearly basis. Mr. Mgxoteni (interviewed 12th September, 2008), a trained herbalist and sangoma at the same time stressed to me that he looks

for herbs himself and sells them in his shop. To him the legislation is just a piece of paper that he cannot even read or analyse or understand; surprisingly, he had a copy of the THPA in his herbalist shop. He said that he has been healing people since he was young. Although he refused to disclose his age, it appeared that people in the locality trusted in his divination and his remedies. I asked him how people know that he is a real sangoma. He stated that "they know because, as a sangoma, one should be wearing beads with colours (though he wasn't wearing any himself at the time) that show the knowledge of medicines you know and which you want given to you by the ancestors." He stated that he did not have to recruit patients but that patients knew of him and visited him of their own accord. When asked how his practice was succeeding he said that he was wondering if the government will give him a monthly grant to keep his business going as he can struggle sometimes when people don't come because of bad luck. But he stated that the legislation is just a "joke" to humiliate traditional healing practices. He does have sick notes although he stated that they are useless as his patients come back to him to say that their formal working environment does not recognise his sick notes. Mr Mgxoteni, expressing a position that is common among his professional colleagues, said that he just gets confused by the new regulations and that the government should just let them be the way they are. Pointing to the Act, he said that if they are going to write a law like this "they must give us grants and respect our practice." Around the shop there were prominently displayed traditional healing certificates stating his name. He said that he is not registered because he feels that this council is out to eat his money and that, in any case, he fears that there might be corruption amongst the traditional healers themselves. He stated that "most members of the practice are unaware of the new law. This is because many healers are illiterate." The other issue that he mentioned was that in his practice, he can and has issued medical sick notes to his patients but they are not recognised by several public and private institutions, which creates a problem for him and his clients. This suggests that the Act will only work on paper but practically it is not protecting those it needs to protect. This could have a negative effect on the economy of the country as traditional healers cannot prescribe an exact time frame within which the healing process will be complete. Even if the traditional doctor, consulting with his/her ancestor, gives out a sick-note stating that a patient must be away from the workplace for months because of an illness, who would accept such recommendation?

In the recent literature review leading to the discussion of this topic, Paul Stoller (1995) addresses the physical and spiritual dimensions of traditional healing. He notes that spiritual possession by an individual is important in the healing process. Stoller explores the phenomena of how the body is taken over by a spirit in the diagnosis of

the patient. This involves dance and the performance of rituals and that the possessed individual is not aware of his/her surroundings but the spirit takes over the personality.

The analysis of the literature written on this topic stretches back to the beginning of the debate in 1994, as part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme initiative by the ANC in preparation for the functioning of the new government (Department of National Health and Population Development, 1994; Department of National Health and Population Development, 1994; Protasia, 2000). A statutory regulation of traditional medicine to ensure that it is practised in as safe and competent manner is now a reality in South Africa.

The struggle with South Africa was to draw closer together with Western medicine and traditional healing based on African health knowledge. Under apartheid, the later was officially banned from the national health. The legislation had legitimised antipathy towards African healing. The key to transformation of traditional health practitioners should be seen to reside in the primary health care approach. It places emphasis on the integration of preventative, curative and rehabilitation services in a climate which promotes community participation and empowerment in order to provide efficient and cost effective health care.

Van Rensburg (1992) notes that the integration of traditional healers in the official medical sector is an inexpensive way in increasing the availability of efficacious medical services. It also entails the recruiting of traditional practitioners in a newly institutionalised framework of community health workers, after which they are trained in a new repertoire of tasks. In any linking action – be it by means of cooperation or integration – the aim is to improve the collaboration of specific groups in South Africa.

Health care in South Africa has to meet the needs of all the people living in South Africa. In terms of the definition given for African traditional medicines, “they are the sum total of all knowledge and practices, whether explicable or not, used in the diagnosis, prevention and elimination of physical, mental or societal imbalances and relying exclusively on practical experiences and observation handed down from generation to generation verbally or in writing” (www.who.org). In order to ensure that traditional health practice continues to have currency and value and that it can make a meaningful contribution to the national health system, it is necessary to systematise and regularise it. Government regulation of health practitioners will ensure that standards are laid down for each of the different kinds of traditional health practitioners governed by the Act. The council will formulate rules and assist the minister in drawing up regulations to ensure the health and well being of those members of the public who make use of the services of traditional health practitioners.

The regulation of healers and herbalists is indeed going to be a challenging process. One thing that has to be looked at is the differences between a western and a

traditional pharmacy by considering the way in which clients are treated and the way in which medicines are placed on shelves and the regard that traditional healers have for hygiene. Some traditional healers in South Africa pretend to be real healers and cause further harm by claiming that they can cure HIV/AIDS. There are several claims made by traditional healers that contradict all biochemical interpretations of HIV/AIDS and those making these claims are determined that they can cure the disease without western medicine (Wreford, 2008). These are issues that government needs to take a firm stand on and formulate a clear definition of permissible treatment and prevention of diseases that do not include HIV. At present, it is not clear if the traditional healers will be able to receive credit cards from their clients as it is considered a private practice and instead of petty cash, money is given to the “doctor” after consultation as has been done for centuries.

Many South African citizens believe that they will still visit traditional healers as it is something that has been done in their families for generations. Some people, mostly women, actually do not believe in the healing process of African customs as they frequently possess Christian or other religious beliefs. Ma Khumalo (interviewed, 11th September, 2008), a working woman with four kids said that “in my view, the inclusion of traditional healers and their regulation is just a disgrace to humiliate them from their practice”. She felt that what makes traditional and acupunctural healing different from the “traditional method” is that the method of African healing is treated unfairly. Several independent people do not go or even think of consulting with traditional healers as they believe that worshipping ancestors is a sin. They solemnly define themselves as Christians who follow the healing faith of their religion.

THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

Medical Aid Schemes form part of the national health policy of South Africa. Most allow their clients to consult with traditional healers. However, they subsidise these consultations only on the basis that the healer is registered, has a registration number claimed from the council and is fully aware of the procedures that they have to follow with the medical aid, which demands that they are able to read and analyse contracts. Several medical aid companies expressed regret that traditional healers are not covered in their policies, which include professional doctors, dentists, general practitioners, surgeons, optometrists and other such professional groups operating within the western system of medicinal practice.

I wanted to find out the position of the medical aid companies on whether or not they would allow their clients to consult with African traditional doctors. So far, a number of the companies that I have interviewed (Fed Health Medical Scheme and Brokers Medical Aid Company), thought that the process of inclusion will not

be happening soon as they had not been approached with such a suggestion from their clients. The transformation of medical aid policies to include traditional healers because of the law will not be taking place at preset, as they feel that traditional healers are not recognised as professional doctors.

The medical fraternity in South Africa has expressed concerns that legitimising traditional healing practices in the eyes of the lay public could serve to legitimate harsh practices. For instance, many South African families consult with a traditional healer before turning to a Western doctor and this might lead to delay in receiving effective medical treatment. As a result, patients may die of curable disease. Dr. Zietsman (practices as a professional western medical doctor in Grahamstown; interviewed 12th September, 2008), from his account appears to be speaking from an informed perspective and that he had also tested certain remedies himself and found them to be effective. He did, however, argue that treatment through traditional healing takes far more time and patience because the healers need to find the spiritual aspect of the illness. Because of the extended time frame, patients sometimes get impatient and unfortunately they are not allowed to mix or take western and traditional herbs simultaneously. Traditional medicine cannot be tested scientifically to confirm its findings; rather, it is bound up with belief and it is holistic. "Unlike dealing with western doctors, it will be impossible, or unusual, to even punish a traditional healer who has wrongfully diagnosed a patient" says Dr. Zietsman. In western practice, there are statutory bodies that try doctors if the quality of their service fails to meet professional standards set by other professional doctors. In traditional practice, however, it is still unclear how regulators will be able to conclude that a healer fails to meet an authoritative set of standards and how regulators will determine fitting punishments for offenders. In the case of traditional healers, it is imperative to acknowledge and observe both their consultation environments and the methods that they use to attract people who are sick to their practices, as well as considering the qualifications that they possess.

The people who were interviewed were randomly selected individuals who chose to consult with a traditional healer. They were asked to express their opinions concerning the regulation and inclusion by the government towards traditional health practitioners. Their questions were based partially on open-ended questions and clear questions; closed questions to get descriptive answers as possible to their encounters with both western and traditional practitioners. Regarding medical aid companies, their questions were constructed to get clear answers about their attitudes on the law passed by parliament and how it will affect their registration procedures and client services. A key feature of in-depth interviews is the depth of focus on the individual. "They provide an opportunity for detailed investigation of personal

context, for in-depth understanding of the personal context in which the research phenomenon is located, and for very detailed subject coverage...they are the only way to collect data where it is important to set the perspectives heard within the context of personal history or experience; where it is important to relate different issues to individual personal circumstances".

The interviews with the herbalists and western doctors were conducted face to face in order to capture descriptive information from all parties involved. Although it was difficult to get hold of Doctors for Life International (DFL) because of geographical distance, the interview was conducted over the telephone with Mr. Philipp Kubukeli. The interview was an intense experience for all parties involved and a physical encounter is an essential context for an interview which is flexible, interactive and generative, and in which meaning and language is explored in depth.

The findings presented in this article highlight certain failures related to the recent THPA and the debate surrounding the licensing of traditional healers in South Africa that have not been fully identified. Exploring the implications of the new regulations revealed certain difficulties in the encounter between western and traditional African systems and, indirectly, between the world-views informing them. Furthermore, to shed light on the practical implications of the new laws for traditional healers and the many South African citizens that consult with them, the project aimed at looking into the process of facilitating the creating institutions by the South African government in order to oversee the proper training and certifying of traditional healers.

The position of the citizens about the way in which the South African government is trying to protect their interest was important in order not to exclude their comments as part of the project because government efforts to regulate traditional healing practices are aimed at protecting them from charlatans and from being ripped off by those who pretend to be healers. It also implies that the Medical Aid Schemes also play a role in the whole inclusion of healers, as their system requires a client to consult with a medical practitioner who must be registered by the Medical Aid Scheme council and have a relevant registration number.

Traditional healers have not yet succeeded in having their practice recognised as legitimate in this system of regulation. Indeed this process is an attempt by the South African government to try to represent the citizens and to implement rights equally without any discrimination, but the reality is that the challenges that lie ahead are becoming daunting. The arguments against inclusion range from outright rejection of traditional healing to practical problems of registration (Freeman and Motesi, 1992). The debate surrounding the issue starts off in the transformation process that South Africa undertook in 1994 into a democratic system. The euphoria greeted South African citizens with a breakthrough of non-

discriminatory laws and the respect of human rights that the African National Congress vowed during the elections to uphold and represent all people of colour in the new democracy. Of course, that meant the respect of individual cultures, social background and the proper implantations of policies to protect those interests.

One of the many destructive effects of the apartheid-era government policies was the neglect of health care for the African population, which came along with a more general disrespect for African culture and tradition. The apartheid government discouraged the African population from consulting with traditional healers and created discriminatory laws and insulted the practice for many years. That is why we see that the South African government is trying to rectify that misleading and derogatory information about the practices of traditional healers in the eyes of the people. It is a fact that 80% of the South African population consult traditional healers and it has been practiced for centuries by being delivered from one generation to another and it gives respect to the ancestors and the cultures of the people (Statistics South Africa). The ability to influence traditional healers regarding their knowledge of remedies is an important resource that modern medicine can draw information from and in so doing positively contribute to the health care system in South Africa. This part of the primary health care team has potentials in treating many prevailing illness, educating people in aspects of preventative conditions and bridging the cultural gap in the concept of health and disease.

Conclusion

A democratic system does not only mean the inclusion and representation of everyone in the country, but should also facilitate accountability and participation by all citizens in decision-making. There can be no doubt that in the eyes of opposing NGOs, the government did not fully consult the public regarding the passing of the law. It is in the interest of South African citizens to guard against being manipulated by government officials into following a law that is opposed to their interests. We are yet to find the relevant procedures that will enable us to regulate our traditional healers into what is to become a worldwide medical system. Traditional healers from this part of our society are unique in that they have spiritual gifts to heal society and to guard against evil spirits that afflict the community. They are, on the whole, a great asset to the future of South Africa and the government not only needs to give them proper recognition but also to respect their line of healing as it is integral to African culture. We cannot escape the fact that South Africa is part of the African continent. Thus this implies that rituals of healing and African cultural practices are something that is embedded in the communal life of many tribes that from part of this country. The South African government views the

inclusion of traditional healers as a necessary step towards upholding a medical system that has been a part of African cultural life for centuries. Traditional healers use medicines prescribed by "spirits", and there needs to be more debate on how these practices could play a role in the health care system of South Africa.

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Article

Role of SHGs in socio-economic change of vulnerable poor

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Self help groups (SHGs) have emerged as popular method of working with people in recent years. This movement comes from the people's desires to meet their needs and determine their own destinies through the principle "by the people, for the people and of the people". Ordinarily 'self help' refers to the provision to aid self, but here self is also taken internally. Self – help emphasizes self-reliance, self production and self-employment by mobilizing internal resource of the persons, the group or the community. Society is a patterned system of interaction among individuals and groups. The self-help groups, changes the pattern of social interaction. When such patterns change, substantial number of society members assumes new status and play new roles in the community. SHGs in social change imply not only the change of outer form of a community or a society but also in the social institutions as well as ideas of the people living in that society. In other words, it also applies to the changes in the material aspects of life as well as in the ideas, values and attitudes of the people.

Key word: Self help groups, social change and socio-economic development.

Meaning and definition of self – help groups

Self – help groups are voluntary gatherings of persons who share needs or problems that are not being addressed by existing organizations, institutions, or other types of groups. The broad goals of a self – help group are to bring about personal and social – economic change for its members and society. All of those groups emphasis face to face interaction among members and stress a set of values or ideology that enhances a member's personal sense of identity.

According to Rajkumar self – help groups (SHG) is a group of rural poor who have volunteered to organize themselves into a group for eradication of poverty of the members. They agree to save money regularly and convert their savings into a common fund known as the group corpus. The members of the group agree to use this common fund and such other funds that they may receive as a group through a common management.

Characteristics of SHGs

- i.) The number of member to form SHGs is 5 to 20.
- ii.) All members have not met regularly.
- iii.) The SHGs will have office bearers like president and secretary, group members will elect them.
- iv.) SHGs itself with the help of NGO makes assessment of individual credit needs of its members and submits to the bank for sanction of collective loans in its name.
- v.) NGO helps the SHGs in procuring raw materials and also marketing of the product.
- vi.) SHGs collectively ensure repayment of bank loans.
- vii.) Entire loan amount disbursed to SHGs is refinanced by National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) to the financing bank.

Aims and objectives of SHGs

- i.) SHGs aim at improving the standard of living and value systems.
- ii.) They are for sustainable development of members.
- iii.) Giving loan at a low interest to develop themselves.

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- iv.) They develop savings habit among members.
- v.) NGOs organize the women.
- vi.) To achieve Self-reliance.

This scheme promotes thrift savings and confidence among the members of the group.

Working pattern of SHGs

SHGs collect the deposits from their members and lend to the needy members for production purpose and also for substance and consumption needs. They also borrow loans from the banks or voluntary agencies or self-help promoting institutions to meet the needs of the members.

Social change

Social change is the systematic study of variation in social and cultural "system". There are inherent methodological problems of identification and measurement of change, and rarely does one cause produce one effect. The entire society is involved in a process of social change; however, this change may be so incremental that the members of the society are hardly aware of it. People living in every traditional society would be in this category. Society is characterized by change; the rate of change, the process of change, and the directions of change.

Meaning and definition of social change

"Change" means variation or a difference in anything observed over some period of time. K. Davis defined this process as "an alteration in structure and contentment of a society".

According to H. T. Mazumdar, "Social change may be defined as a new fashion or mode, either modifying or replacing the old, in the life of a people, or in the operation of a society".

Factors of SHGs in social change

Society is in continuous flux. Various factors and forces, as well as external, determine the rate and directions of social change. The factors of self-help groups, which change the root in the physical environment, biological factors are the responsible factors for social changes. The following are the factors of SHGs in social change.

Biological factors: Human biological environment changes due to the SHG, it includes the factors that determine the number, composition and the hereditary quality for successive generations. The human element is always changing. It is like the size and composition of population produce and aware about family planning.

Cultural factors: The SHG affects the speed and direction of social change. Cultural factors consists changes of our values and beliefs, customs and traditional and various institutions. SHG changes the beliefs of witchcraft, supernatural power and also widow marriage. It also changes social structure and social relationships.

Technological factors: The society is changing every time. The SHG supports changes in the system of invention. It has influenced our environment, education, attitudes, politics, and sprite, due to the intervention of SHGs.

The present study

In the present context of SHGs are playing an important role in socio-economic change. The researchers personally came across with many SHGs, which are acting upon to improve the social conditions of villagers. The increasing membership of village people in SHG and the changes took places among the members motivated the researcher to take up this study. The researchers decided to study the SHGs in Belthangadi taluk of Dakshina Kannada District.

Objective of the study

- i.) To identify personal changes, if any in the group members.
- ii.) To analyse the changes, if any in the socio-economic, political, cultural, health and behavioral conditions of the members after participation in the SHGs.
- iii.) To identify the influencing factors for social change.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and sampling technique

10 villages of Belthangadi taluk and 5 SHGs of each village. The total sample constitutes 150, that is, 3 members from each SHGs, using purposive sampling method.

Research design

This study is essentially a descriptive one. It aims at describing and exploring the changes among the members after joining SHGs.

Method and tools of data collection

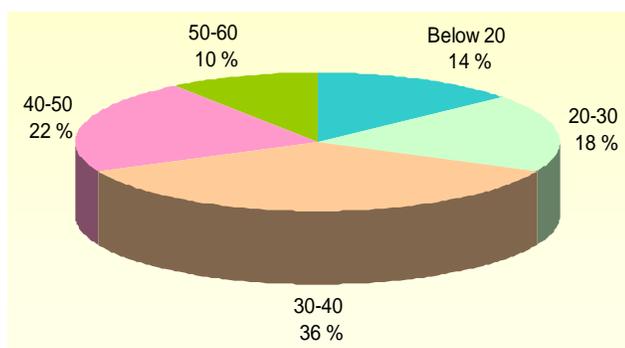
The study is based on primary data and it was collected through a structural interview schedule.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

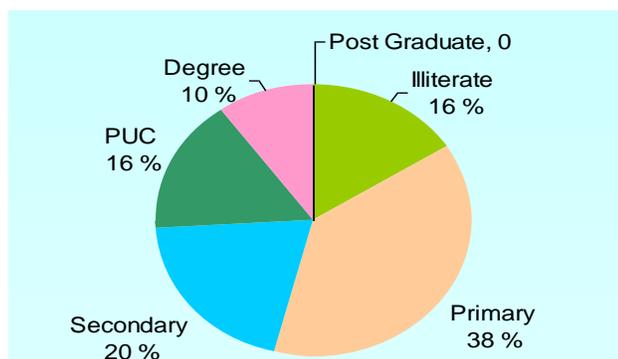
From the data presented in the Table 1 (appendix 1), it is clear that out of 150 respondents majority (36%) of them are from the age group of 30 - 40 years. Only few respondents (14%) are found below the age group of 20 and 18% of them are in the age group between 20 - 30 and only

Table 1. Distribution of respondents on the basis of age.

Age	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Below 20	21	14
20-30	27	18
30-40	54	36
40-50	33	22
50-60	15	10
Total	150	100

**Appendix 1.** Distribution of respondents on the basis of age (Table 1).**Table 2.** Distribution of respondents on the basis of education.

Education Qualification	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Illiterate	24	16
Primary	57	38
Secondary	30	20
PUC	24	16
Degree	15	10
Post Graduate	00	00
Any other	00	00
Total	150	100

**Appendix 2.** Distribution of respondents on the basis of education (Table 2).**Table 3.** Marital status of Respondents.

Marital status	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Married	114	76
Unmarried	30	20
Widow	06	04
Total	150	100

only 10% of them are between 50 - 60 age group. 22% of the respondents are in the age group of 40 - 50.

The data clearly reveals that age group between 30 - 40 years is mainly engaged in SHGs and it shows that middle aged people are interested in joining the group. These age groups are very responsible people and socially settled and they are marginal farmers, landless poor and agricultural laborers.

The Table 2 (appendix 2), shows that the educational qualification of the respondents. Among the respondents 16% of them are illiterates, 38% of them have primary education, 20% of them have secondary education, another 16% have PUC, only 10% of them have degree and there are no post graduates and any other qualification among the members of SHGs in the study area.

It looks obvious that the women who have Primary level education are much more interested in joining SHGs.

The Table 3, shows the number of married and unmarried respondent and it is found that 76% of the respondents are married and 20% of the respondents are unmarried and only 4% of them are Widows. This can also be compared with age group as majority of the respondent are in the age group of 30 to 40 years. It is found from the study that, majority of the respondents who joined SHGs are married.

In the Table 4 (appendix 3) the occupations of the respondents are shown. It is very significant that majority (50%) of the respondents have taken self-employment and 22 of the respondents are coolie workers, 20% of them have Beedi rolling occupation and only 8% have some other occupation.

This shows the awareness about the self-employment among the respondents and their spirit to take up the same. But in the previous days people use to do their caste based occupation. But now the entire scenario has been changed due to the intervention of SHGs people are working on the basis of their knowledge and skills. The need of the hour is only skill based knowledge.

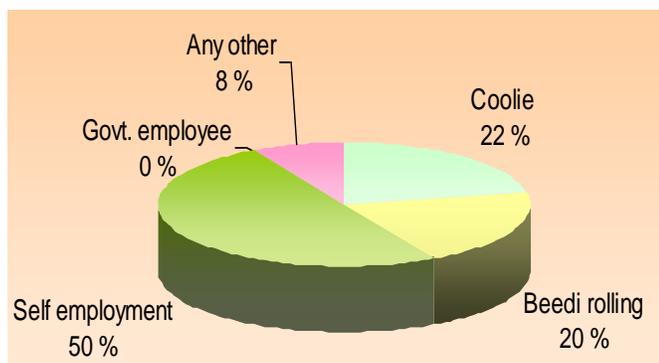
Socio-economic change

Table 5 (appendix 4) is an attempt to depict the inspiration for joining SHGs. It is good factor to note that many of the respondents had joined SHG on their own interest which represents 62 and 26% of them joined to the inspiration of their family members and very few, that is, 4% because of their friend's inspiration, joined SHGs.

This reveals that people are aware of use and importance of SHGs. The goals are met only through the support

Table 4. Occupational structure of the respondents.

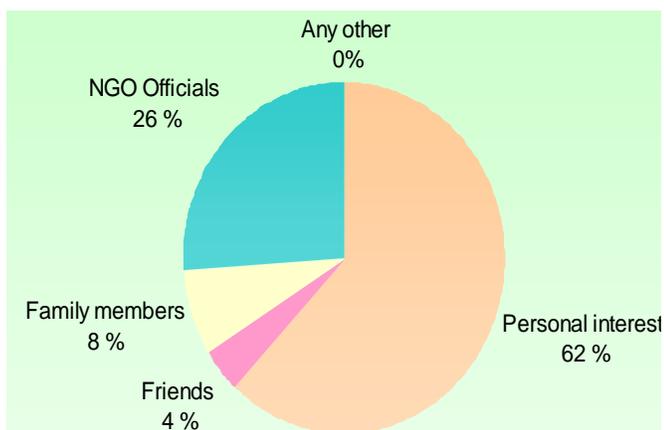
Occupation	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Coolie	33	22
Beedi rolling	30	20
Self employment	75	50
Govt. employee	00	00
Any other	12	08
Total	150	100



Appendix 3. Occupational structure of the respondents (Table 4).

Table 5. Inspiration for joining SHGs.

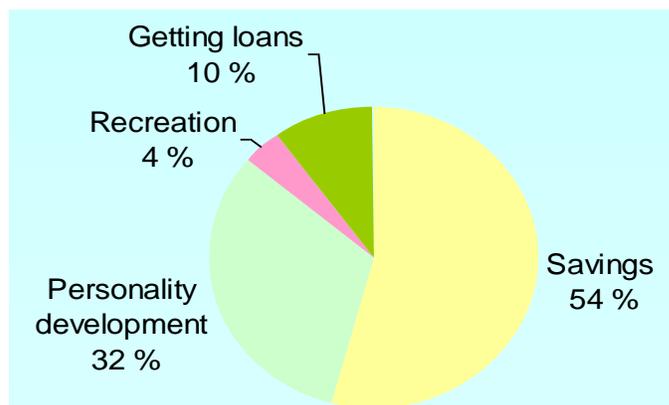
Inspiration	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Personal interest	93	62
Friends	06	04
Family members	12	08
NGO Officials	39	26
Any other	00	00
Total	150	100



Appendix 4. Inspiration for joining SHGs (Table 5).

Table 6. Purpose behind joining SHGs.

Purpose	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Savings	81	54
Personality development	48	32
Recreation	06	04
Getting loans	15	10
Total	150	100



Appendix 5. Purpose behind joining SHGs (Table 6).

support of the society and their own interest. The personal interest determines the way of acquiring knowledge about the self-help group.

The above Table 6 (appendix 5) explains the purpose of joining SHGs. Money is the major aspect in modern life. Majority of the respondents (54%) joined SHGs in order to save money and 32% of them joined for personality development. Only 10% of them joined for getting loan and very few 4% joined for recreation purpose. It is understood from the study that, majority of the respondents joined SHGs for savings purpose.

Almost all people had opined that their income is increased after joining SHG. This shows in Table 7 that SHGs are playing a significant role in improving economic status of the respondents.

Savings enhance the self-confidence of the individuals, as it is a sign of group encouragement in the time of taking loan. These activities are increasing their income. The Table 8 shows that SHGs are helping the respondents to know about the present political system. 78% of them have opined that their political knowledge is improved after joining SHGs. And 22% of them are not improved. It reveals that SHGs are playing a vital role in giving awareness about political system to its members.

The present SHGs give awareness about the present political system and its activities. It enhances the knowledge to decide which government is necessary, and which government ruled effectively in identifying problems,

Table 7. Representing the Increase of Income.

Opinion	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	144	96
No	6	4
Total	150	100

Table 8. Distribution on the basis of Political knowledge.

Opinion	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Improved	117	78
Not improved	33	22
Total	150	100

Table 9. Inspiration of the members in participating political activities.

Opinion	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	117	78
No	33	22
Total	150	100

Table 10. Changes in the respondents after joining SHGs.

Changes	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Behaviour	141	94
Interpersonal relationship	44	6
Total	150	100

formulating alternatives and allocating resources.

The Table 9 highlights that 78% of the respondents opined that SHG has inspired them in participating political activities and 22% them opined that they are not inspired by SHG for political participation.

The above Table 10 shows that 94% of the respondents are influenced by SHGs in their day-to-day behaviour. 96% of them say that their interpersonal relationship has been change positively after joining SHGs and all 100% of them opined that their level of self-confidence has been significantly increased after joining SHGs.

Suggestions and policy implications

Since the socio-economic scenario has changed a lot, it is suggested that the SHGs should take up the new challenges such as socio-economic development, use of science and technology in the rural areas and human resources development in perfect manner.

Most of the members of the SHGs are self-employed. So the voluntary agencies should be encouraged to be self-supportive by way of creating their own sources of the finance.

SHGs members should be made aware about national and international politics. In this regard the local organizations, schools, college have to conduct workshop, awareness camp about the existing political conditions to the SHG members.

Existing SHGs must publish articles in newspaper, conduct radio programme on importance of SHGs.

Conclusion

The findings of the study clearly reveal that, the SHGs have the power to create a socio-economic revolution in the country. When observing the whole data the people have come out of their problems and traditional bound. Self help groups have paved the way to bring the rural people in the main stream of social and economic progress of the society.

The SHG can contribute to changes in economic conditions, social status, decision making and increases women in out door activities. These SHGs play a very important role in social change. SHG not only changes the outer form of a community or a society but also the social institutions as well as ideas of the people living in the society. In other words it also applies to change the material aspects of life as well as in the ideas, values and attitudes of the people.

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Article

Who is reaching whom? Depth of outreach of rural micro finance institutions in Ghana

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Outreach of microfinance institutions has been saddled with the definition of who is poor specifically within the context of an individual's capability to access financial and non-financial services. This paper presents empirical results of the structure of the microfinance market in Ghana as per institutions and defines the market target of each of the institutions based on the socio-economic characteristics of the clients. Using the Microfinance Poverty Assessment Tool, data on 2704 households comprising of 1104 and 1600 non-clients and clients respectively, are collected to compute the household level relative poverty scores. The computed scores unraveled the depth of outreach of each microfinance institution. Five broad categories of microfinance institutions were identified namely; Rural and Community Banks, Financial Non-Governmental Organizations, Savings and Loans Companies, Susu Associations and Collectors and Credit Unions. The study results showed that the rural and community banks and the financial NGOs reached out to all categories of clients ranging from the extremely poor in the lowest wealth quintile to the poor in the highest quintile. At the other end, savings and loans companies and susu collectors reached clients within the above average and highest quintiles, while credit unions reached out to clients from the average to the highest quintile. Among factors alluding to the different market niches include; source of funds, strategies for outreach and mission of the institution. The derived policy implication is to harness the relative market strengths of the institutions and design specific products to deepen each institutions capability.

Key words: Poverty, microfinance, clients, institutions, outreach and Ghana.

INTRODUCTION

Among major challenges facing a number of sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries today are reducing the extreme levels of poverty affecting an estimated 300 million people (UNDP, 2003), meeting the food needs of the fast growing population and harnessing available resources to meet developmental needs without compromising the sustainability of the environment. Growing and deepening poverty have compelled governments of many SSA countries to institute poverty reduction strategies (World Bank, 2003a).

Recognizing these challenges, the world body pledged itself to assist such countries in the Millennium Development Goals and Targets adopted by the United Nations in 2000. The first goal of "Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger was to be achieved by halving between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than

\$1 a day and halving the proportion of people who suffer from extreme hunger" (UNDP, 2003). With such commitment from both rich and poor countries, the stage is set for the development of programmes and activities that will make these intentions possible. Among the public policies recommended for eradicating poverty and creating wealth is the expansion of poor people's "access to land, credit, skills and economic assets".

The concept of poverty as used in the study is based on the definition by the United Nations Development Report of 1990, which is 'pronounced deprivation which encompasses a wide range of issues including hunger, lack of shelter and clothing, lack of access to health care and education and inadequate or lack of access to policy making' (UNDP, 2000a). Poverty can be conceptualised as a composite of personal and community conditions. At the individual level, it is the lack of sufficient basic needs to satisfy daily livelihood. This then is largely related to unemployment and the inability to achieve a decent living from one's economic activities. It also implies lack of opportunities and choices of services basic to human

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development that lead to a long healthy creative life and the enjoyment of a decent standard of living involving freedom, dignity, self esteem and respect for others (UNDP, 2000b). The tag of being poor goes beyond economic deprivation and includes lack of access to education, health and other services, social exclusion and inability to be involved in some social activities such as decision-making at local and national levels. In this context, poverty is a contrast to acceptable well being in its broad sense which includes personal happiness, harmony, peace, and freedom from anxiety and access to material items including food, income, shelter, clothing, land and other physical resources. Community level poverty is manifested in the absence or low levels of facilities and services such as education, health, power, water and sanitation. Thus, at the level of the community, poverty is manifested in the (un)availability of basic services (Batse et. al, 1999). Poverty in these two dimensions becomes a disincentive to socio-economic development and creates conditions for discontent, apathy and despondency. Therefore, reducing poverty will involve both individual and community targeting through the provision of resources and restoration of individual rights and ensuring industrial growth, good governance, equity, efficiency and investment in public goods.

This paper presents results from a study on dimensions of poverty and the activities of selected microfinance institutions in poverty reduction in Ghana.

The study specifically sought to:

- i.) Assess the socio-economic status of households of clients and non-clients of rural microfinance institutions and government-oriented credit programmes.
- ii.) Assess the level of poverty of households involved in rural microfinance institutions in relation to a national sample of non-clients.
- iii.) Assess the depth of outreach of selected microfinance institutions.

Synonymous to cross country evidence of variation in outreach by type of institution (Zeller and Johannsen, 2006), this paper observes wide variations within country and more revealing among institutions in one category. This suggests an implicit weakness of measuring outreach of microfinance institutions on the premise of formal/informal institution. Different strategies of delivery mechanisms and more importantly resilience to conditions accompanying external funding sources that potentially distorts the market cuts across within and between categories of microfinance institution. The eminent policy implication is to draw into the fold activities of both formal and informal microfinance institutions and tap possible lines of linkages to harness the potential of microfinance.

Overview of strategies for poverty reduction in Ghana

In Ghana, various governments have recognised the

implications of pervasive poverty for socio-economic and human resource development and have launched programmes over the years to address the situation (Government of Ghana, 2003a; Government of Ghana, 2003b). First, the 10-year Development Plan of Governor Guggisburg from 1920-1930, was meant to develop the infrastructure of the country. In 1951, the government launched the 10-year Accelerated Development Plan with the view to fast-tracking the socio-economic development of the country. Others that followed were the 7-year Development Plan (1961-1968) and the Five-year Development Plan (1975-1980).

In spite of these laudable programmes, the economy of the country continued to deteriorate partly because of political instability which did not make it possible for the proposed programmes to be carried through to achieve their expected impacts. Some of the outcomes of the inability to achieve the set objectives were worsened growth rate in gross domestic product (14% growth rate), inflation of over 100% and an overall deepening of poverty especially in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Alderman, 1994). In 1990 when the human development index (HDI) was first introduced, Ghana ranked 121st among the 160 countries for which data were available (UNDP, 1990). In 1996, Ghana slipped to 174th out of nearly 200 countries and ranked 129th in 2003 out of 179 countries (UNDP 1997; 2000a; 2003). Although the position of Ghana declined within the period due to an increase in the number of countries covered within the last decade, the information reflected the general trend of low wellbeing in the country. As with a number of African countries in the 1980s and early 1990s, Ghana has become an aid-dependent country with an average budget reliance rate of about 40% every year being donor-funded. This has been primarily due to the decline in income from primary commodities which form the bulk of the country's export. Over the years there was also less investment in human capital compared to other countries at the same level of socio-economic development. In general, about 32% of the adult population have never been to school whilst some 25% of others had been to school but failed to obtain any certificate (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002; Oduro, 2001; World Bank, 2000). Anecdotal evidence points to the fact that a few well-educated Ghanaians also migrated to other African and Euro-American countries in a massive brain-drain.

In an attempt to kick-start the economy, various programmes were launched in the 1990s and the current programme for poverty reduction is one of the series. The programmes are:

- 1991: Making People Better-A Human Development Strategy for Ghana;
- 1994: The National Development Policy Framework (Vision 2020);
- 1996-2000: The First Medium Term Development Plan (MTDP);
- 2001: The Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-

PRSP; and
2002-2007: Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS).

The GPRS was launched after a wide range of consultations with government ministries, departments and agencies (MDA), NGO, civil society organisations and individuals from selected communities. The GPRS aimed, among others, to improve the living conditions of the poor by implementing programmes that will achieve the following objectives (Ghana, 2003a):

- i.) Increase access to basic needs of life in addition to developing a strong human resource base to enable the poor identify and take advantage of opportunities.
- ii.) Create conditions that will encourage the development of new ideas and the use of simple and reasonably less costly methods of production, processing, storage and marketing of goods and services to result in increased levels of production and employment.
- iii.) Provide direct support to persons living in very difficult situations and gradually being excluded from the process of development while putting in place policies that will prevent new cases of deprivation; and
- iv.) Ensure that the interest of girls and women are adequately considered in all actions and programmes.

Promoting micro-financing (MF) programmes is one of the strategies designed to achieve the broad objective of poverty reduction. This has led to the emergence of a number of institutions, including rural banks, which became involved in the implementation of micro-financing programmes. In 1996, a number of groups involved in implementing micro-financing projects came together to form the Micro Finance Action Research Network (MFARN) with the aim of playing an active role in policy discussion, formulation and implementation of programmes related to micro financing in the country. The network consisting of the Association of Rural Banks (ARB), Credit Union Associations (CUA), Financial Non-Governmental Organizations (FNGO), Savings and Loans (S and L) and the Ghana Co-operative Susu Collectors Association (GCSCA) has become a formidable advocacy group in rural financing and poverty issues (Jones et al., 2000). In 1998, the group changed its name to the Ghana Microfinance Institutions Network (GHAMFIN). The objectives of GHAMFIN, among others, are to strengthen the capacity of microfinance institutions (MFI) through training to enable them improve upon their performance as well as sensitize government and stakeholders on issues relating to microfinance and through these contribute to the creation of employment opportunities, provide support for the poor and excluded, and empower women to participate actively in national development.

SOURCES OF DATA FOR POVERTY STUDIES IN GHANA

Historically, poverty studies in the country have been

based on national expenditure surveys with emphasis on the distribution of income and inequality (Assefa, 1980; Ewusi, 1984). In the 1960s and 1970s the main method was using income to study welfare. This was influenced by the methodology that existed at that time. Since the 1980s, the analyses of poverty have principally focused on consumption using the concept of a basket of consumables (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). From 1987, four living standard surveys have been conducted in the country, with the latest in 1998/1999.

Within the last decade, there have been attempts to improve upon the consumption approach to data collection and the measurement of poverty at the household level. One of such approaches is the Micro-Finance Poverty Assessment Tool (MPAT) of the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGAP) (Henry et al., 2003). The method uses consumption data to construct a multi-dimensional index.

METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

The survey covered the whole country based on client and non-client households, with the latter serving as a control group. For the survey, the country was divided into three namely, northern zone, consisting of the Upper West and East and Northern regions, the middle zone made up of the Brong Ahafo, Ashanti and Eastern regions and the coastal zone covering the Volta, Greater Accra, Central and Western regions. Respondents were then selected from each of the zones.

Selection of clients of MFI: The microfinance institutions were purposively selected based on consultations with ARB Apex Bank, FNGO, S and L, CUA and GHAMFIN regarding the activities and the performance of their members. Based on the discussion, 16 institutions were selected from the northern, middle and coastal zones. In addition, a group using Susu (a concept used in Ghana for the mobilization of resources from individuals and groups. It involves an individual or a group making daily/weekly contributions to a collector. At the end of an agreed period, the client receives the accumulated amount or is credited with it) methodology to mobilize funds was selected, giving a total of 17 MFI.

Among the factors that informed the selection of the microfinance institutions were variety in the type of MFI (rural banks, credit unions, FNGO and savings and loans), their objectives in micro-financing, the different programmes being pursued, location and the age of the institution. For the purpose of the study, MFI in the northern zone were over-represented because of the pattern of poverty in the country which made it imperative to understand the capacities of institutions in that zone to reach the poor.

Within the coastal zone (Greater Accra, Western, Volta, and Central regions) clients of four rural banks (RB), one credit union (CU) and two financial non-governmental organizations (FNGO) were identified and selected. In the middle zone (Brong Ahafo, Ashanti and Eastern), two rural banks, one CU, and one FNGO were targeted. From the northern zone (Upper West, Upper East, and Northern), three rural banks and one FNGO were selected.

The institutions studied relied on funds from their own resources, government funds channeled through either the District Assembly Common Fund (DACF) or the Ministry for Women and Children's Affairs, donor sources such as International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the World Bank and other bilateral agencies.

Selection of control group (non-clients): As part of the MPAT methodology, a sample of non-client households was selected. The rationale was to compare the profile of the households of MFI clients to the households of non-clients as inherent in the M-PAT. The data from this sample was used to construct poverty profiles

Table 1. Variables used in constructing poverty index.

Components	Indicators
Geographical location	Urban or rural location in rural savannah
Food Security and vulnerability	Coping strategy: frequency of reducing number of meals
Quality of the house	Index for type of ownership, access to water, electricity, quality of roof, walls toilets, etc.
Assets of the household	Motorcycle, bicycle, TV, stereo, radio, fridge, stove, sewing machine, fan, iron, etc.
Access to basic needs	Time (in minutes) to the nearest secondary school and pharmacist.
Education	Literacy and level of schooling of HH head, per cent of adults who have completed primary schooling, ratio of literate adults
Occupation	Number of adults self-employed in food crop agriculture and distance to the nearest food market.
Expenditures	Clothing and footwear expenditures per person.

against which the results from the client households were compared. With the assistance of the Ghana Statistical Service and using results from the 2000 census of population and housing, 70 enumeration areas (EA) were randomly selected from the three zones. Each selected EA consisted of 17 or 18 households, and this gave a potential sample size of between 1,190 and 1260 households.

Method of data analysis

The study used the Microfinance Poverty Assessment Tool (MPAT) developed by the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGAP) to analyze the data. The approach, which is based on principal component analysis (PCA), combines various welfare variables including housing conditions and characteristics, food security and vulnerability, livestock and consumption assets to calculate a household relative poverty index to construct a multi-dimensional poverty index. For comparison, household indices are arranged in ascending order and classified into terciles or quintiles. The method has the advantage of collecting cross-sectional data which can be used to construct a multi-dimensional poverty index (Henry et al., 2003). As an indicator-based method, the approach allows one to compare the profile of a control group to a national sample in a chosen activity. Using the PCA also ensures the calculation of specific poverty indices or scores for each household. The variables applied in the computation of the poverty score are summarized in Table 1.

A computed household poverty score normally ranged between ± 3 . For this study, the computed household poverty score for the non-client household ranged between -3.05 and +2.65. A score of zero denotes an average level of poverty, with the higher and lower scores connoting relatively less poor and extreme poor respectively. Through the household. Any deviation in the pattern of the distribution connotes a difference between the client and the non-client households. approach, non-client households are equally divided into five (quintiles) and provides the basis for comparison with client

RESULTS

Poverty profile of non-clients

The results from the control group show first, a core area

of high well being in the Greater Accra, Eastern and Ashanti regions. These are ringed by relatively better-off areas of well-being consisting of Volta, Brong Ahafo, Western and Central regions. In this second group is the Central region which reported the highest level of poverty similar to those from the 1998/99 Ghana Living Standards Survey (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). Overall, respondents from the three northern regions reported the highest levels of poverty. The worst was the Upper East region (Figure 1). This poverty profile from the study by region is similar to what has been observed from GLSS 4. The results from the non-client households are used as control against which the profile of client households are compared and through that the outreach of the micro-financing institutions surveyed.

Profile of clients and non-clients

An aspect of the MPAT methodology is to compare the quintile distribution of households of clients of micro-finance institutions to the profile of a control group. The results indicate that compared to non-client households, households of clients of MFI were in the non-poor category: over 30% of the clients were within the highest quintile and 23% in the above average quintile (Figure 2), giving a total of 54% in the two highest quintiles, compared to the expected 40% for the non-client households. The proportion of MFI households in the lowest two quintiles is 30%, with 21% in the lowest quintile. What emerges is that the profile of households of clients of MFI is slightly skewed towards the higher quintiles.

Outreach of institutions

As the survey covered five MFI, it is possible to assess

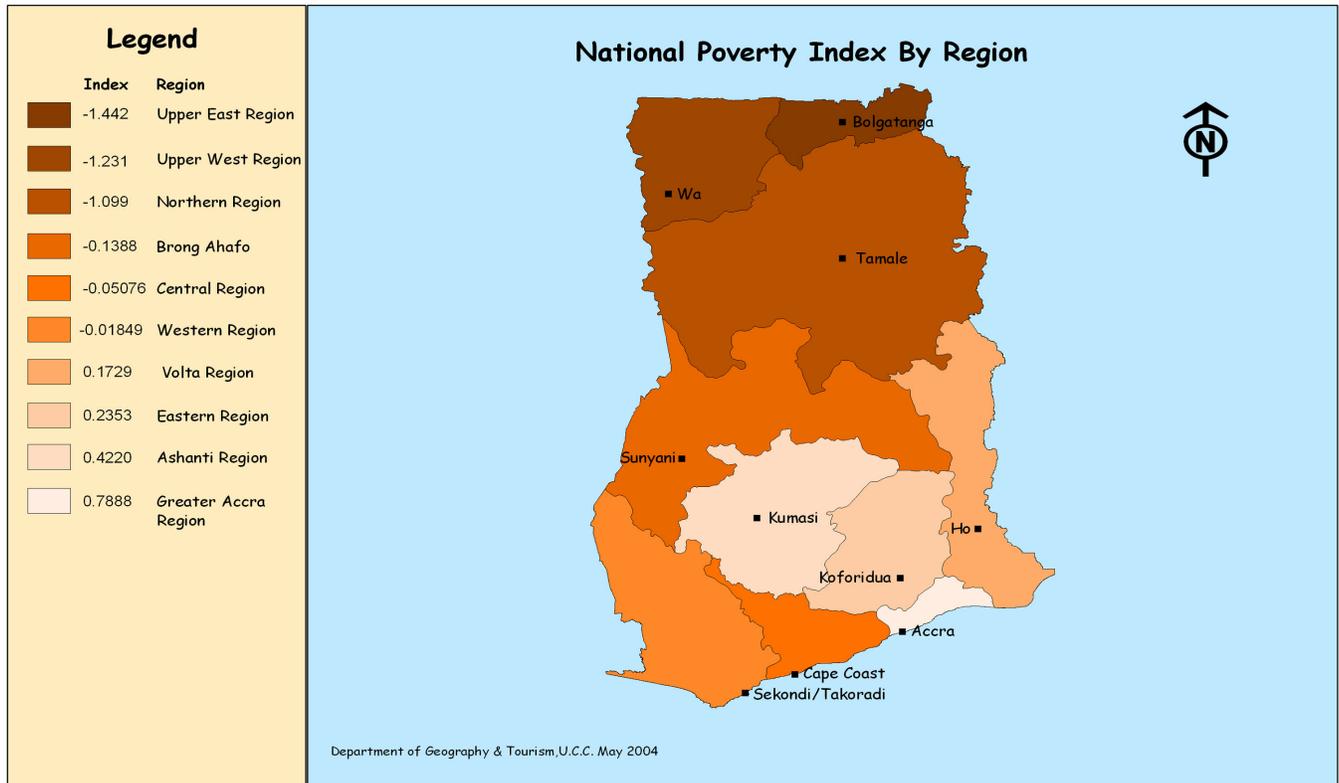


Figure 1. National poverty index based on control population.

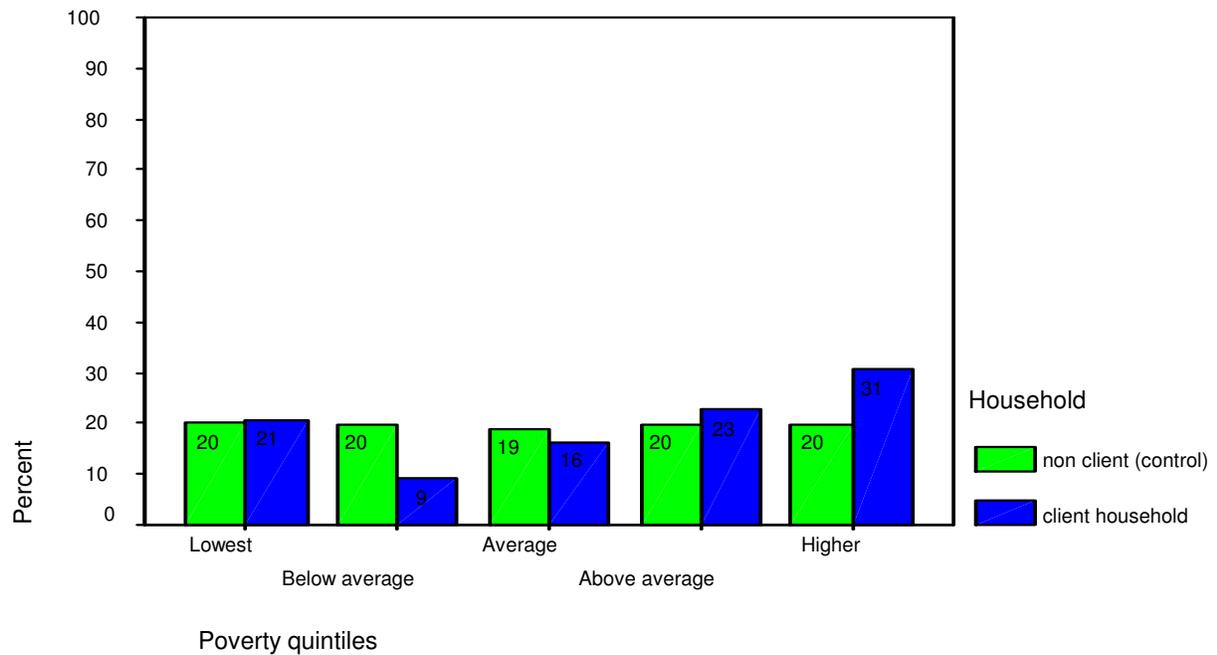


Figure 2. Pattern of poverty of the client and non client samples.

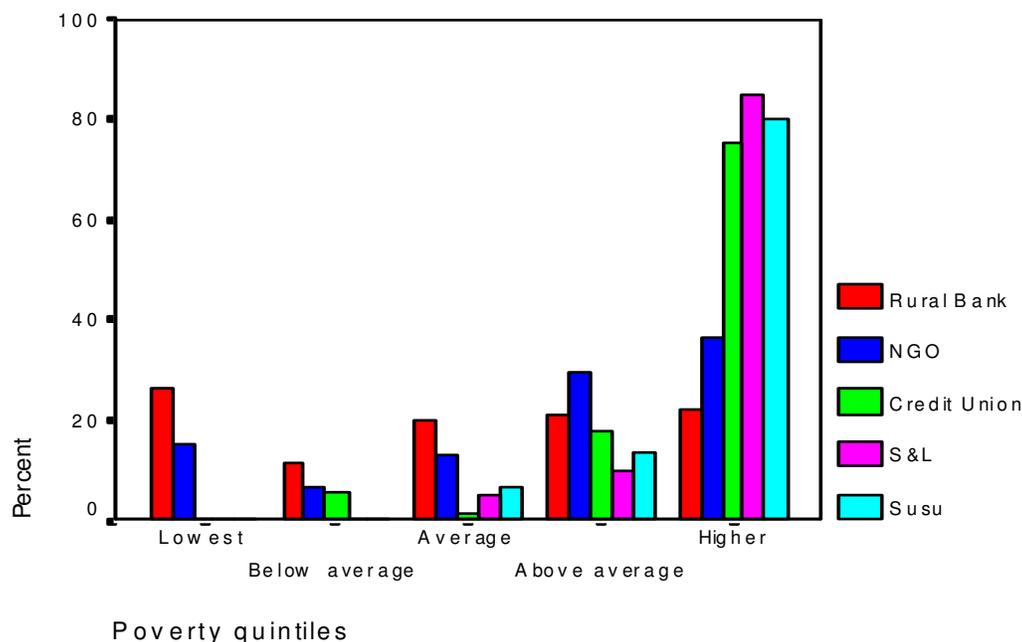


Figure 3. Poverty outreach by type of financial institution.

the depth of outreach of the institutions. The results, shown in **Figure 3**, reveal three broad patterns. The first is that clients of the rural banks and FNGO studied were represented in all the quintiles. The clients of the rural banks were more spread out among the five quintiles than those of the FNGOs. The patterns for the FNGO, on the other hand, tilted towards the average to the non-poor categories. The second broad pattern, characteristic of clients of savings and loans, credit unions, and susu groups, shows that 80% or more of their clients are in the highest quintile and that household of clients of the savings and loans and susu institutions are not represented in the lowest two quintiles.

The pattern of outreach is presented statistically in Table 2 and also shows the indices of poverty by source of funds. The indices for the rural banks ranged from -1.514 to 0.767 and that of the FNGO from -1.187 to 0.937. This implied that the indices for the banks, although had a wide variation, were tilted towards the lower end of the distribution.

For the study, if the source of funds was from the resources of the institution through mobilization of a loan, this was classified as 'own programme'. If the institution operated a programme on behalf of a government agency it was termed as 'government programme' and funds from donors (bi-lateral and multi-lateral) or an international FNGO it was classified as 'other programme'. Based on the sources of funding and the number of programmes pursued, the institutions exhibited the following characteristics (Table 2):

i.) Nine of the institutions operated programmes based

solely on their own resources.

ii.) One rural bank did not have a programme of its own and only disbursed funds on behalf of government; and
iii.) Six rural banks and two FNGOs operated their own programmes as well as programmes on behalf of either the government or donor institutions.

Among the six rural banks operating more than one programme, three strands of performance could be observed. In the first category are three institutions with clients in their own programme in higher quintiles than those of the donor and government programmes. Two of these rural banks are in the coastal zone. For the second group, made up of two institutions, the indices of poverty for their own programmes tilted towards the lower quintiles than those of the government. These two rural banks are located in the middle zone. In the third category, there is no difference in the poverty profiles of the clients for their own and the government supported programmes. Therefore, there was no definite pattern in the outreach of 'own' programmes and those undertaken on behalf of government or donor institutions.

The mean poverty scores for the five broad institutions and by location are shown in Table 3. These ranged from 0.026 among the nine rural banks to over 1.0 for the two credit unions (1.103), the only S and L (1.204) and the single susu group (1.226). In the middle and coastal zones, the outreach of the rural banks is about the same. For the FNGOs, there was marked variation from the coast to the north. MFI in the northern zone, irrespective of type, recorded indices of less than zero (-1.514 to -0.722), implying that in the zone, the institutions served

Table 2. Poverty index by institution and programme.

Micro finance institutions	Programmes	Poverty index	Average poverty index
Rural bank A	Government	0.436	0.436
Credit union A	Own programme	1.057	1.057
Rural bank B	Own programme	- 1.513	
	Other programme	- 1.515	- 1.514
Rural Bank C	Own programme	- 0.722	- 0.722
FNGO A	Own programme	- 1.187	- 1.187
S and L	Own programme	1.204	1.204
FNGO B	Other programme	0.924	
	Own programme	0.949	0.937
Rural bank D	Own programme	0.503	
	Government	0.274	0.389
FNGO C	Own programme	0.238	0.238
Rural bank E	Own programme	0.023	
	Government	0.665	0.344
Rural bank F	Own programme	0.767	0.767
Rural bank G	Government	- 1.374	
	Other programme	- 1.097	- 1.235
Rural bank H	Government	0.797	
	Own programme	0.561	0.679
Rural bank I	Own programme	0.709	
	Own programme	0.974	
	Government	0.555	
	Government	0.365	0.650
Credit union B	Own programme	1.167	1.167
FNGO D	Own programme	0.483	
	Own programme	1.057	
	Own programme	0.957	
	Own programme	0.642	0.785
Susu	Own programme	1.226	1.226

Table 3. Mean poverty indices of institutions.

Micro finance institutions	Number	Mean poverty index
Coastal rural banks	4	0.561
Middle rural banks	2	0.511
Northern rural banks	3	-1.157
All rural banks	9	0.026
FNGOs in coastal	4	0.989
FNGOs in middle	2	0.694
FNGOs in northern	1	-1.187
All non- governmental organisations*	4	0.426
Credit unions	2	1.103
Savings and loans company	1	1.204
Susu group	1	1.226

*Two of the FNGO operate in more than one region/zone.

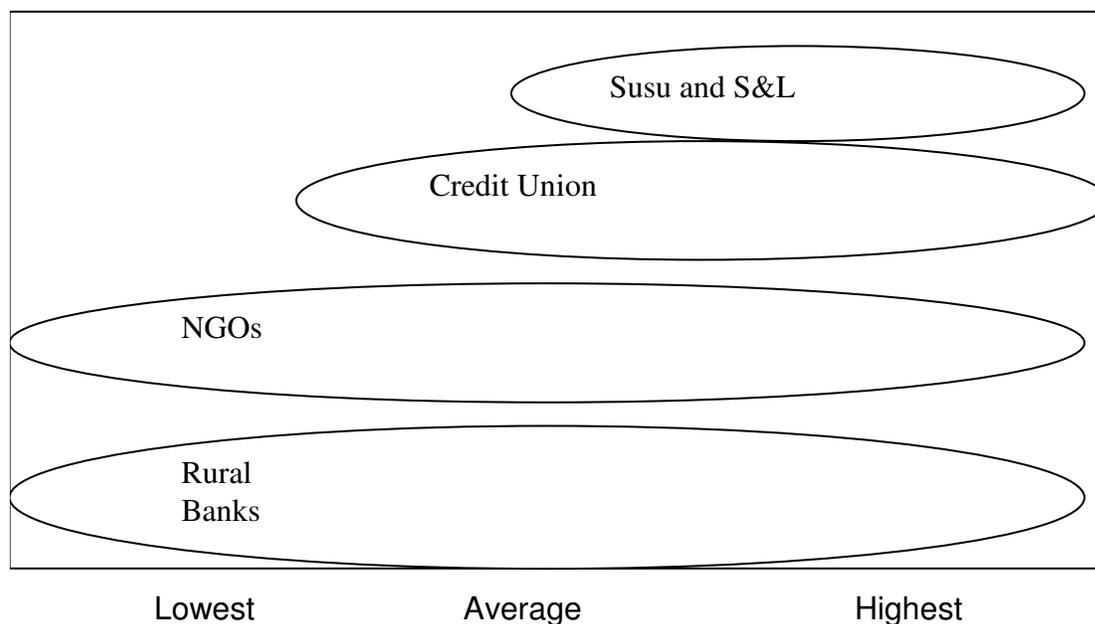


Figure 4. Spheres of Operations of MFI.

more people in the lowest quintiles than any where else. Thus, in the northern zone where poverty levels are high, outreach of MFI is mainly to those in the lowest quintile.

With their in-built system of collecting monies from their clients and loaning them out, credit unions, S and L and susu groups have as their clientele people in the average and above average categories. Rural banks, on the other hand, generating income from other sources and fulfilling a mandate of corporate responsibilities to the communities in which they operate, are in a position to set aside some money to lend out. From the results, the rural banks and FNGO were able to cover people in the lowest quintiles than the other three institutions.

Based on the patterns of outreach of the MFI, three general spheres of operation can be identified (Figure 4). The first is the sphere of the rural banks and FNGO which cover people in all the quintiles. The second category is the credit unions whose clients are in the below average to the high categories. At the other extreme are the savings and loans and the susu groups. Their clients tended to be in the average to the highest quintiles, partly as a result of the nature of their operations. With savings as one of the conditions for consideration for the award of loans, clients of such institutions will obviously be within the high quintiles.

For the future of MFIs in the country, these spheres which are emerging will need to be explored to the advantage by enhancing the strengths of each of the groups. Rural banks and FNGOs can be encouraged to concentrate more on the average to the low categories of the population in view of their potential to reach clients with diverse poverty profiles while the credit unions can

concentrate on certain clientele category based on their objectives.

DISCUSSION

A number of varied factors accounted for who is reaching whom therefore the need to identify the strategies being used by these different types of MFIs reaching different markets of the poor population. While there are some general characteristics associated with all the institutions, some variations were observed. This section examines the strategies adopted by the MFIs to select potential clients.

The rural banks reportedly used two strategies for the selection of clients, namely the peer-selection group-lending scheme and the committee approach. Among the attributes of the first approach is that peers involved in similar economic activities come together and select individuals they would want to work with. The person identified should not have been previously indebted to the bank and the members feel comfortable working with one another. After the formation of a group, the project officer animates the group, assesses the potential of its members and recommends the group for consideration and funding. All the rural banks prescribed forced savings for their own programmes and a client may be required to save for a period ranging from same day to six months. In some cases, the group is expected to complete entire training modules before loans are disbursed.

With members selecting those they wish to work with in the peer-selection approach, the very poor are not likely to be selected since they will not be involved in any eco-

conomic activity and may not be considered as people who have the capacity to repay loan. The second condition of savings before disbursement will also eliminate the very poor. Thus, by the nature of the approach, the poor are not likely to be covered in loan disbursement schemes. This may partly account for the pattern observed among the potential clients of rural banks. The few banks which showed better outreach than the rest in terms of reaching the poor are those that are located in relatively poor areas and deal with poor people even among those in the above average categories.

The second approach is basically for government and donor-supported programmes. Under this approach the short listing of potential clients is by a committee consisting of technical advisers, representative of the district assembly and loan officers of the rural bank and representative of the donor institution. Beneficiaries of programmes channeled through rural banks are normally target groups approved by the district assembly and/or members of the donor institution or government department supporting the programme. One feature of this approach is that the committee charged with the disbursement of the loan is independent of the bank. The purpose of the loan, rather than the background of the clients, influences the characteristics of the group.

This approach has the potential of reaching the poor as it targets members of a community with certain characteristics for support. As loans targeting the poor, the donors are able to liaise with community members to identify some of the people who need support. However, reports from the loan officers and other officials indicated that government-supported loans tended to be subjected to political and social interferences. The interference of government officials and politicians in the selection of clients also affects the recovery of the loans, since it creates the impression that such loans are for political patronage and, therefore, need not be paid back. For the objective of supporting the poor to be achieved, there is the need to reduce, if not eliminate political interference in the selection of clients. Parameters should be established and the committees set up to review the application of potential clients should be given a free hand.

The FNGO also uses the peer selection approach as previously outlined. In addition, they set some conditions. For instance, one FNGO expected potential clients to save up to 20% of the required loan within 3 months with any bank or financial institution while another FNGO received in-kind savings such as grains. In addition, some of the FNGOs offered in-kind loans such as the Inventory Credit Scheme for agriculture and training programmes. This FNGO required an initial contribution in the form of stored produce. After this, potential clients are given loans in the form of inputs or cash and they re-pay in cash or kind. The strategy of this FNGO was found to have been designed to overcome the above constraint of the segment of the poor population who could not mobilize financial resources for initial savings.

The assessment of clients is based on the economic activity being pursued. For grain farmers, it provides storage facilities making it possible for them to store their surplus and selling them during the lean season when prices are high. The approach of this particular FNGO is unique and suits the rural environment as well as the economic activities and conditions of the clients in the areas it operates. Hence, its approach offers an alternative model for granting support to the poor.

Susu as a system derives its origin from the traditional group insurance. A group of people agree to contribute a certain amount based on their daily cash sales over a given period (Jones et al., 2000). This implies that the members must be involved in an economic venture. Once a member satisfies the conditions set out by members of the group, he/she qualifies for a loan. Repayment of the loan is spread out over a period and the duration is influenced by one's daily contributions. Thus, this approach is basically self-selective and based on the willingness of an individual to become a member.

The concept of credit union is that one should belong to a group, save with the union which will then qualify the individual to access a loan from the union. One criterion then is membership of the union and this is the same with savings and loans institutions. Some of the CUs charge registration fee and each member is expected to save within a certain time frame before qualifying for a loan. That is, credit unions operate a share capitalization system which is compulsory for every member. A client applying for a loan will be expected to provide information on the intended project after which the individual is interviewed. Once these requirements are met the member qualifies for a loan. Clients who qualify are given training in issues such as financial management and record keeping. These aspects of the CU partly explain the occupational background of the clients of the credit union studied.

As with the Susu, the conditions for membership in a credit union will not make it possible for the poor to be involved in their activities. Therefore, by its nature, CUs and susu are not avenues for supporting the very poor. To reach the poor, credit unions will need to change their strategy and relax some of their conditions, such as compulsory savings for prospective clients.

The observed patterns of the poverty profile of clients of MFIs when compared to that of a control group, present challenges to the future of micro-financing in the country. The poverty profile of the clients of government- and donor-supported poverty-reduction programmes that were executed by rural banks on behalf of those agencies were similar to those of the banks themselves. This may be attributed to similarities in the approaches adopted for the selection of clients as some of the rural banks have adopted the strategies introduced by some of the international non-governmental organizations (e.g. the strategies of Freedom from Hunger). Among the challenges, therefore, are how the donor-supported funds

can target and advance loans to more people in the lowest quintiles than the rest of the sources. The second is the re-orientation of MFIs in the country such that the base of their clients will tilt more to people in the average to the lowest quintiles. The approach of one of the FNGOs provides an example of what can be done. The strategy of providing their clients with inputs and receiving re-payment in the form of produce is worth exploring and using in resource poor areas where the economic base is agriculture and the prices of such produce fluctuate widely between harvest time and the lean season. It will help the poor store their produce and get better prices for their produce during the lean season. Although in general, in-kind credit has its own shortcomings, the strategy provides another alternative, as in the case of the FNGO, some clients receive cash and repay their loans in cash.

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Article

Industrializing the Nigerian society through creative skill acquisition vocational and technical education programme

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The development of any nation is critical to the economic survival and vibrancy of that nation. This holds particularly true for developing nations like Nigeria, who is still grappling with chronic factors like unemployment and underemployment, which have kept them in the perpetual bondage of economic frustration. Vocational and technical education a multifaceted, multi-disciplinary and pragmatic field of study, is aimed at equipping the individuals with requisite vocational and technical education literacy skills, which will enhance their relevance and functionality in the society. As a result, it plays a vital and indispensable role in the development of the society. This paper therefore examines the future of vocational and technical education in Nigeria, its significance and role with regards to the development in Nigeria, the challenges ahead as well as possible suggestions and recommendations for moving it forward with enhanced effectiveness for the benefit of the nation and incoming generations.

Key words: Industrialization, creative skill acquisition programme.

INTRODUCTION

Vocational and technical education can be described as any form of education whose purpose is to prepare person(s) for employment in an occupation or group of occupations. Throughout the country, there is a growing awareness about the need for vocational and technical education. This improvement in societal perception and interest has culminated in demands for changes in content, organization and delivery of vocational and technical curricular to reflect a new emphasis on technology.

As a matter of fact, vocational and technical education is aimed at developing not only practical skills but also attitudes and habits that makes the recipient a creative, innovative and resourceful person.

The concept of vocational and technical education

Vocational and technical education is the acquisition of skills and techniques in chosen occupation or profession to enable an individual earn a living. The national policy on education (NPE, 2004), viewed vocational education as training or retraining programme, which is given in schools or classes under public supervision and control. Vocational education is a system of education, which is predicted upon the teaching of skills and also demanding

the professional or expert use of hands. The teaching of skills at formal sector existed in 2 types of institution initially established in Nigeria, these are technical colleges and trade centers. Vocational and technical education is a continuous process of adaptation of the worker's training towards acquiring the minimum knowledge required.

Roland (1995) states that vocational and technical education is result oriented. It brings about technological advancement and aims to fit new manpower for employment and provide continuing training for those already qualified, so that they can keep up with modern working methods.

The development of vocational and technical education in Nigeria

The education system of Nigeria has been influenced by the British system of education. This type of education neglects the cultural and vocational interest of the nation. The apprenticeship system was the earliest type of vocational education practiced in Nigeria and it provided employment for youth as they learnt how to use their hands in specific trade (vocation). Extensive development

of vocational education started in Russia in 1888 with the introduction of shop classes in addition to the existing apprenticeship system. Shop classes involved the development of a problem and specially prepared drawings made to tackle the problem. Then the students were made to perform the same exercise individually, until they are proficient in that skill.

In United States of America, vocational and technical education is organized through agencies. These includes public high schools, public and private junior colleges, technical institute, extension services, labour unions and the armed forces. While dozens of programs are organized, specialization in training for 1 type of occupation exists.

The change in educational system in Nigeria came after the enactment of the land grant foundation Morrill's act of 1890. This foundation in the United States of America influenced the educational reforms after the abolition of the slave trade. Simple Job training skills through companies and schools were introduced. Learning of skill in carpentry, tailoring, mechanizing, craft making etc, started in some schools in Nigeria, like the comprehensive high school Aiyetoro and Mubi and the technical college in Yaba, Lagos. Vocational and technical education remained dormant for a long time with the introduction of western education.

The administration of vocational and technical education in Nigeria

Bayode (1994) stated that vocational and technical education is geared towards the production of the educated man who can effectively work with his head, heart and hands. The development of the economy and the crave for self-reliance and self-sustainability is the driving force for acquiring this programme.

The national policy on education (2004) states that the objective of vocational and technical education is expected to be realized. This includes

- i.) To acquire vocational and technical skills.
- ii.) To expose students to career awareness by exploring usable options in the world of work.
- iii.) To enable youths to have an intelligent understanding of the increasing complexity of technology.
- iv.) To stimulate creativity.

The national policy on education highlighted Nigeria's desired to achieve her national goal through education, hence the need for the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competence both mental and physical as equipment for the individual to life and to also contribute to the development of the society, thus, no society can develop to appreciable extent without relevant functional and technological based vocational and technical education.

The need for vocational and technical education cannot be over emphasized in Nigeria schools. Therefore,

Charles (2000) asserted that full vocational training should be offered in the 6 year programme of the post primary schools students (in addition to their general education courses) to enable them develop sufficient skill in their chosen occupational skill so obtain employment on leaving school. Post secondary vocational education courses in the universities, colleges of technology and polytechnics should be offered to students who took vocational courses in secondary and now need to increase their level of skill through further training. Wenrich (1974) stated that vocational and technical education provides various avenues for discovering and developing the individual's potential for work. It has a broadening effect, which motivates learners to be more exploratory, realize their capabilities and develop their potentials for success in the world of work.

Forshey (1970) opined that there is a very good reason for young people to begin the process of being productive in the world as soon as they are capable of doing so. This is simply what vocational and technical education opt to do.

Teacher's role in the training of vocational and technical education in Nigeria

According to Uwaifo (2005) education unlocks the door of modernization but it is the teacher who holds the key to the door. Drawing a comparative situation, a nation that is in quest of technological development should turn to the schools for solution. Teachers are the hub or pivot on which any successful educational programme revolves and if teachers perform their task dutifully, there will certainly be a myriad of new technologies in the future of vocational education. Most present day teacher in Nigeria will parade antiquated knowledge in science and technology. Consequently, to perform successfully as teacher of vocational and technical education, constant training and re-training programme is recommended to continually keep them abreast with the changing dynamics in teaching and learning modalities. Programme which will involve the participation of agriculture, business, Industrial technical and service sector are imperative, involving these sectors ensure relevance and up dated knowledge and availability of modern equipment and machinery for programmes of vocational education. Further more, it is imperative for industry will have skilled work force to support strong performance in the economy of this country.

Finally, indigenous Nigerian should have skill for able job, and their learning culture should be shared.

The future of vocational and technical education in Nigeria

There is no skepticism about what tomorrow might bring about vocational and technical education in Nigeria. Therefore, it would be possible if we can develop a system that makes learning more interesting, involving and

permanent to the students in the various aspects of our educational programme. A system that,

- i.) Helps the trainee to capitalize his interest and abilities to the highest possible degree.
- ii.) Provide the training that he or she would meet after school.
- iii.) Provide the trainee the manipulative habits and thinking habits required in the occupation itself.
- iv.) Providing training on the actual job and in exercise or pseudo job.
- v.) Ensure that training is carried out to the extent that it gives the trainee a production ability with which he can secure development or hold unemployment.
- vi.) Making sure that training is giving to those who needs it, wants it and can profit by it.
- vii.) Ensure that each member of the group has the opportunity to participate as a tutor and tutee.
- viii.) Helps to properly socialize the entire students and puts them on their toe (academically), so they cannot be ridiculed by their peer.

Therefore the following will justify the brightening of vocational technical education in Nigeria:

Self-employment

Today in Nigeria, the high incidence of school drop out among secondary school students clearly highlights the importance of career development, which is achievable through vocational and technical education. These students who could not fit into the academic oriented curriculum would need practical skill to enable them function profitably in the society. Secondly, the graduates from these existing schools system invariably enter the job market seeking employment that does hardly exist in this country today. To draw the majority of these job seekers out of the unemployment market, vocational and technical training in secondary school become the most potent elixir. This again required the training of the teachers that would impact these skills to students in the primary, post primary and tertiary education levels.

Technological improvement

In the future, it is hoped that vocational and technical education will adequately equip students to be more effective in this age of science and technology and to raise a generation of people who can think for themselves and respect the dignity of labour and propel its citizenry into a blossom economic enderado. What is needed today and tomorrow are workers with good technical skill background, rugged enough to transform Nigeria into a positive technological breakthrough with the ability to meet its immediate demand. A bright future is possible if we are willing and able to re-examine the vocational programme and its value in our educational system. As

the world around us is changing fast there must be an increased emphasis on vocational education.

Higher standard of living

Vocational and technical education aims at helping the society maintain its material civilization by enabling the individual to keep pace with the rapidly changing Industrial and technological development. Vocational education must be seen as an instrument for transforming Nigeria's resources into finished goods and services that will promote higher standard of living. Since Nigeria is a country that is trying to industrialize rapidly, emphasizing vocational and technical education even at the elementary level will only reinforce a solid foundation. In effect training for a vocation is a life long process and must be made part of Nigeria culture if the desired technological and economical growth will be achieved.

Political stability

Vocational and technical education is a marginal enterprise serving the personal interest of a relatively few people in Nigeria today. It is also an essential component of any national policy for coping with pressure of change and improving the quality of life of its people and design a way forward for government prostates. Infact, the future of vocational programme in Nigeria will give room to a dynamic government.

This relates to the idea of the people and the change that has taken place in the political attainment of any nation. The ideology of any nation determines the aim and goals of vocational education. A government with good political ideology and technological improvement and with the focus and stable political institution often witnesses stable educational system.

It is the desire of the present Nigeria government to make Nigeria be amongst the 20 economically developed nation in the world by the year 2020, it then become imperative that new social, economic and technological order be put in place in which every employable citizen is gainfully employed. At that time, there should be a drastic reduction of the gap between the rich and the poor as well as a society near free from corruption and anti-social vices. Nigeria requires a citizenry that is made up to have informed, developed and enlighten minds that is conscious, alert and stable to participate in the developmental process so that we can attain our main goal, which should be an industrialized and self-reliant nation, like Cuba, Brazil and China through their faithful and dogged pursuance of vocational and technical education programme.

The implications of vocational education in Nigeria

The implication of vocational education in Nigeria can be discussed which the following sub-heading.

Psychological implication

Vocational and technical education can bridge the gap between people without job and without hope. If one is able to acquire training in vocational education, employment is guaranteed. On the other hand, a country without enough manpower in vocational and technical area will continually suffer the problem of unemployment.

Sociological implication

Occasional education is a social safety measure to many social problems. Unemployment is a serious social ill, with its numerous remote consequences like hooliganism, unstable homes and other anti social vices. Vocational and technical education helps to eliminate all these through the production of students that are easily employable.

Economic implication

Vocational education is designed to meet the employment needs of particular areas of the economy. The training provided is closely matched with specific job requirement so as to foster immediate production performance by the trainees. Trainees can become wage earners, thereby becoming more useful and productive citizens who will be assets to the society and not liabilities.

Conclusions

Since the form "chalk and talk" school system was clearly not effective in preparing workers for the jobs required by modern industry in Nigeria, government should look toward vocational and technical education as a means of providing for the work force needed in both rural and urban industries. This is being done with the hope of improving the standard of living of the Nigerian citizen.

From the findings in this paper, the following conclusions become clear, that vocational and technical education in Nigeria is the pivot of any national development. It is when the individual in the micro setting are self reliant that the macro economy becomes buoyant and stable. Therefore, vocational and technical education is the live wire of technology. It is no exaggeration to assert that vocational and technical education constitutes the arteries that supply life-sustaining blood through the system of country economy and standard of living. It will be an impossible task to plan and develop any economy in which vocational and technical education is not developed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of this paper, the following suggestions were made,

- i.) Industry, communities, religious organization, labour union and wealthy individual in the society should be encouraged to contribute in cash and kind to the growth and development of vocational and technical education at all level.
- ii.) Vocational and technical education as a matter of urgency should through a comprehensive retraining in services programme and research work improve their quality.
- iii.) The public, employers of labour and the products of vocational and technical education programme should serve as a source of determining the efficacy, efficiency and the effectiveness of vocational and technical education based programme.
- iv.) Workshop and seminars should be jointly organized by government, vocational and technical educators, schools, accrediting bodies and industries regularly.
- v.) The guiding principles to the success of vocational and technical education should be making the best use of all available materials, tools, equipment as well as human resources at all times.

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Article

Attaining standards in technology education in Nigeria universities through effective utilization of physical facilities

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Technical Education programmes at university level involve an effective interaction among the lecturer, the student and the environment. The environment which includes the physical facilities enables the lecturer to attain cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domain objectives. These traits could only be attained if the lecturer adopts instructional approaches that effectively associate with the use of physical facilities. However, doubts have been raised over the adequacy and effective utilization of physical facilities for the attainment of these educational objectives. This study therefore was designed to determine the level of availability of physical facilities, their utilization and what instructional approaches, given available physical facilities, would be suitable for the attainment of educational objectives in the programmes of Technical Education. To carry out the study, three hypotheses were formulated. An instrument containing 213 items was developed and used to obtain data from a population of 40 lecturers in three universities offering Technical Education programmes in Edo and Delta states of Nigeria. Frequency count, mean, percentage and National Universities Commission standard requirements were used to answer hypotheses 1&2, while the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used in testing hypotheses 3, at 0.05 level of significance. The findings revealed among other things that physical facilities are inadequately provided for instructional purposes as only 22 physical facility items (24%) out of the 161 presented in the list were found in adequate quantity in these universities. Physical facilities were also rarely utilized as only 77, representing 48% of the 161 physical facility items were often utilized for instructional purpose. Based on these findings, recommendations were made for universities to provide and effectively utilize physical facilities, as well as adopt the listed instructional approaches for the attainment of the domains of educational objectives. Suggestions were also made for further studies on the utilization of physical facilities for the attainment of education objectives.

Key words: Standard attainment, technology education, facility utilization.

INTRODUCTION

Technical education programme in Nigeria Universities are concerned with equipping persons with skills, knowledge and attitude that will enable one to enter into, and progress as lecturers and instructions in their chosen areas of course specialization. This will enable the attainment of objectives in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of educational objectives. Teaching and learning in technical Education programmes according to Saran (2000) requires a close interactive process between the instructor and the learner, which results in the learner gaining knowledge, technical information and

skills. Training also requires the attainment of objectives in the cognitive affective and psychomotor domain of educational objectives. It therefore, becomes necessary that the student-teachers should possess strong interest in a course area, ability in manipulative skills, and an innate aptitude in the field of teaching. On the other hand the instructor of Technical Education among other qualities should have a good knowledge of the course area, should be able to teach and should be sympathetic to the learning needs of the students.

Technical education according to Saran (2000), offers

Building Construction/woodwork, applied Electricity/ Electronic and Metal/Automechanics as main course areas. Physical facilities are the essential concrete features that assist or enable the teacher teach effectively and could also be classified as tools. In Nigeria Tools in industrial technical education are grouped together according to National Universities Commission, NUC (2004) and they include saws, pliers, files, chisel, screws drivers, etc., and they are classified as hand tools. The lathe, pillar drills, grinders, power saw, combination planners, rolling, shaping and milling machines are classified under machine tools, while some materials include steel rods, wood and cement. Facilities common to the course areas of technical education are: storage places for materials, first aids box demonstration charts, wash-hand basins, electrical sockets, drawing and chalk-boards, and the main workshop building.

Planning for physical in technical education for an effective attainment of educational objectives consideration to the number of students that should enroll in the programme also, retaining the good and serviceable condition of physical facilities requires a good maintenance culture. Additionally, in order to effectively attain the affective domain, good and serviceable physical facilities, according to saran (2000) help to create sanity in relationship between the teacher and students. It is also important to explain that the existence of physical facilities in required number does not in itself achieve the instructional objectives. Rather, physical facilities should be effectively associated with appropriate instructional approach in order to achieve stated instructional objective.

The Utilization of instructional materials to the methodology and practice of technical education

Dewey (1962), an American philosopher strongly believed in the role of learning by doing. Experience counts very much. A subject is learned when certain process have been gone through. Many teachers think that when they have shown their pupil how to apply certain principles and generalization, they have achieved as much as possible, this might be true with some children ability in these cognitive skills. For example, of a teacher takes different sides circular objects some strips of types ruler and razor blade in to the classroom he can ask the children to make use of the materials provided to find out the relationship between the radius and the circumference of the children must be able to analyze synthesis and evaluate whenever they are given the same problem with aids.

Another view of another author an educationalist on the utilization of instructional materials play a very big role in making the teaching of any subject more effective. Instructional materials are important in teaching just as magic cubes, tomatoes and other ingredients are important to a good meal. The correct use of instructional materials often gives correct representation to the abstract ideas

thereby making their meaning clever and pleasant. It serves as a useful purpose in promoting understanding to concept and principles.

Physical facilities and instructional approaches in technical education

Physical facilities in industrial technical education are the essential concrete features that enable the instructor teach effectively in the industrial technical education workshop and classrooms (Okoro, 1991; Oranu, 1994) physical facilities which includes the building, machines, workbenches, equipment, tools and materials form a major place and resources which the instructor manipulates in order to cause learning to occur. This implies that physical facilities are those items which the teacher turns to for help in his goal of seeking activities that would help him perform the job of instruction. In addition, whatever the teacher uses as aid in order to teach a lesson could be referred to as facilities. Also, Larson (2007) emphasized that the school building could be referred to as physical facility because of its function of housing and protecting other physical facilities inside it.

Design and construction of the technical workshop building and effectiveness in technical instruction cannot be fully effective when adequate provision is not made for other physical facilities contained in the building. Writing, Wang (2003) submitted that these physical facilities are instructional materials like charts, chalkboards, sample objects and specimen, tools, equipment and machines which are used in making teaching meaningful. He added that physical facilities help the teacher convey intended messages effectively so that the learner receives, understands, retains and applied experience gained to reach overall educational goals. In listing of physical facilities, Okoro (2004) have the following essential tools and equipment of the school workshop. Work bench, Engineers' vice. Hacksaw frames, various grades of hand files, drill bits, Engineers; pliers, chisel, try square tools enter punches, scribes, scrapers, metric tape, stock and dies, screwdriver etc. These tools and equipment help actualize instructions of technical education curriculum.

According to Olaitan (2002) arrangement of the workshop, good safety precautionary measures and nice aesthetic outlook are principles that could aid the technical department in planning, organizing and managing facilities and equipment. Also contributing, Sylvinus and Curry (1967) listed six factors that should be put into consideration while constructing a workshop for technical education and for remodeling old ones. They are:

- i.) Consideration for aims and objectives of the course to be taught must be useful to the locality and have a relevant philosophical base.
- ii.) The use of units makes the content of courses to be offered as a guide for providing hand tools and other equipment.
- iii.) Method and approach should govern the placement of

equipment; also the limited general shop shall call for a different arrangement to that used for multipurpose type.

iv.) The number of students that will be scheduled in the shop at any given time must be considered.

v.) Age and mental capacity of students will affect the size of the workshop and equipment.

vi.) The resources available must be considered. The type of equipment and the expenditure for it must coincide with the money available for the programme.

These recommendations support the idea that the construction of a new workshop or remodeling of an existing one will involve a thorough analysis of the course, the students need for the programme and ways of reaching reasonable competence in manipulative skills.

Acquiring competence in skill training is one of the most essential activities of the school workshop. Equipping a workshop with adequate activities remained paramount in the contributions of Aina and Beecroft (1982). This provision could be accomplished through compliance to various recommendations by organizations that create standards. The Nigerian universities commission (1992) recommended a specified number of each of the tools, equipment and machinery for a specified number of students intended for admission in an academic year for Engineering and industrial technical education programme in universities. This recommendation by the NUC means that such facilities should be given consideration in the initial planning of the course programme. The NUC also emphasized that a provision of these facilities less than the number specified in any of the universities Nigeria would be classified as inadequate. Contributing, Agusiobo (1986), Ezeji (1984), Olaitan (1994) and Oranu, (1994) recommended proper planning which will give early consideration to the provision of tools and equipment. This provide mean that the entire process of planning a course programme will include at what stages, who and when these facilities are going to be employed.

Non-use of adequate planning and physical facilities in the technical educational workshop could be comparable to the informal type of trade and skill training the Ugonabo and Ogwo (2006) referred to as lacking in structure and organization terms of context, methodology and mode of evaluation for mastery. As a possible solution they called for the need for an organized and effective method of training that will develop the vocational education system. Considering this call for the use of adequate and functional physical facilities, Prosser and Quigley (1949) in Okoro (2003) presented a number of principles which they developed that had substantial influence on the administration of vocational education. These principles which Okoro said are still useful till date today specified that there are minimum standards below which effective vocational education cannot be offered.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to identify which physical

facilities are available for use in the programme of technical education, how often they are utilized, and how they could be used with instructional approaches for the attainment of education objectives of technical education programme. Specifically, this study identified;

i.) What physical facilities are available for instructional purpose in technical education programmes in Nigerian Universities?

ii.) The frequency of utilization of the available physical facilities for the attainment of educational objectives in technical education programme in Nigeria Universities.

Significance of the study

The study on the instructional approaches for the attainment of educational objectives in technical education programmes in Nigerian Universities is significant because the National Universities Commission (NUC) shall benefit from the study. The study will state what physical facilities are available in the universities as well as indicate how often they are utilized for instructional purposes. The accreditation panel of the NUC shall through the findings determine which areas it could recommend to the universities of improvement.

Deans of faculty and heads of department will also use findings of this study to suggest an improvement for physical facilities and instructional approaches in industrial technical education. Deans of faculty and Head of departments will relay and subsequently enforce the findings for use in the workshops and lecture rooms for maximum output. Also to be provided in this study to the deans and the head of the department are instructional approaches that lead towards the attainment of specific objectives. This will help to ensure that the graduates acquire a level of training which will enable them teach effectively or graduation.

Lecturers and instructor of technical education will also benefit from the findings and recommendations of the study. They will by the findings apply effective instructional approaches that will enable them achieve a high level of instructional effectiveness. They would apply and combine these qualities, characteristics and attributes of a cognitive, affective and a psychomotor teacher in order to realize stated objective.

Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the physical facilities available for instructional purposes and the recommended NUC facilities for the teaching and learning of technical education in Nigerian Universities ($p < 0.5$).

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the

Table 1. Universities offering Technical Education programme in Edo and Delta states.

S/No.	Name of university	Course areas			Total
		Building/Wood work	Electrical/ Electronics	Metal/ Auto	
1	University of Benin, Benin City	5	4	6	15
2	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	6	3	3	12
3	Delta State University, Abraka	4	5	4	13
	Total No. of Lecturers	15	12	13	40

Method of data analysis.

frequency of utilization of available physical facilities for the teaching and learning of technical education in Nigerian Universities ($p < 0.5$).

H₀₃: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the instructional approaches that will be suited for the use of the physical facilities for the attainment of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain educational objectives of industrial technical education programme ($P < 0.5$).

RESEARCH DESIGN

The design for this study is a descriptive survey. According to Borg and Gall (1993) the design is the one which a group of people or items considered to be representative of the entire group. The study involved the use of structured questionnaire to elicit information from lecturers in technical education departments of specified Nigerian Universities. Results and recommendations were arrived at through a systematic description of data collected by the use of a structured questionnaire.

Area of study

This study was carried out within the three public Universities offering Technical Education in Edo and Delta states of the South-South zone of Nigeria. Details of these universities are shown in Table 1.

The data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The study has three hypotheses that were analysed as follows:

- i.) Frequency count, mean, percentage and NUC standard requirements were used for analyzing hypothesis 1.
- ii.) Mean was used for hypotheses 2.
- iii.) The analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistics was used to test hypotheses 3 at 0.05 level of significance.

Presentation and analysis of data

This section deals with the presentation and analysis of

data with respect to the hypotheses formulated for this study.

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the physical facilities available for instructional purposes and the recommended NUC facilities for the teaching and learning of technical education in Nigerian Universities ($p < 0.5$).

To test hypotheses 1, a list of 161 physical facility items were presented in the instrument for the head of course programmes to indicate the number of physical facilities available for instructional purposes. The numbers of physical facilities indicated by them are then compared with the number recommended by the Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC) as prerequisite for the course programme accreditation. Data collected are presented in Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5. Tables 2, 4 and 5 contain ratings according to course areas, the level of adequacy and inadequacy of physical facility items existing in the universities, while Table 7 contain summary of the data collected on the adequacy level of physical facility items.

The result in table 2 shows that no institution under study has all the 41 physical facility items at 100% adequacy level. Rather in order of ranking, Benin has the highest items of 25 representing 61% AAU has 23 items at adequate quality, Delta state university lie at the lowest with 19 items adequate, representing 46% of the 41 physical facility items listed.

Data I table 3 shows that only 3 physical facility items out of the 60 items listed were found in adequate quantity in all the institutions under study. This represents 5%. In ranking the 3 institutions, DELSU has the highest with 37 items adequate, representing 62% items. Benin 31 items, and lastly is AAU with 29 physical facility items adequate, representing 48% of the 60 items presented.

Data presented in table 4 shows that only 19 physical facility items were found in adequate quantity in the 3 institutions under study. 41 other items out of the 61 items listed were in inadequate quantity. In the adequacy level of various institutions studied, Benin has the highest number of adequate items with a frequency of 47 items, representing 61%, AAU 42 items, DELSU 39 items, representing 43%.

Table 2. Existing physical facilities in applied electricity/electronics course programme.

S/No.	Tools, Equipment and Machines	NUC Min	BENIN	AAU	DELSU	% ADEQT
1	Universal pipe bending	3	3	3	2	50
2	Long nose pliers	10	20	13	16	87.5
3	Blow lamps	6	3	12	4	37.5
4	Hammers assorted sizes	15	15	15	16	75
5	Hand drill	3	4	4	8	87.5
6	Cold chisel sets	10	11	16	8	37.5
7	Screw driver	20	32	24	18	75
8	Electronic soldering iron 15/48w assorted	15	18	22	17	87.5
9	Files assorted	20	20	16	28	50
10	Wire gauze	5	4	2	8	37.5
11	Screw driver	20	14	27	31	75
12	Measuring tapes	20	30	18	28	87.5
13	Metal rectifiers	20	22	18	13	37.5
14	Fixtures-fluorescent	10	11	6	8	75
15	Capacitors assorted	20	25	18	33	87.5
16	Bells electric	10	7	15	6	25
17	Hydrometer	10	8	15	12	87.5
18	Magnetic kit	10	7	16	4	50
19	Continuity tester	10	8	14	8	25
20	Motor-wound motor induction	5	6	4	3	37.5
21	Miniature circuit breakers	10	12	13	7	37.5
22	Potentiometer	10	12	8	17	75
23	Motor generator unit – 220v	10	11	18	4	62.5
24	Power supply	5	6	5	1	37.5
25	AC and DC motor	15	14	11	22	62.5
27	Vacuum tube voltmeter	10	7	2	3	00
28	Voltmeter dc 0-2.5-25-220v	10	8	4	13	50
29	Experimental cell	1	-	2	-	50
30	Switches assorted	15	17	10	8	75
31	Relays	10	15	10	12	75
32	Volt-ohm meter, 240-500v	10	15	3	7	37.5
34	Cathode ray oscilloscope	4	3	2	3	50
35	Ammeter d. e 0-54 scale	10	12	11	13	37.5
36	Bench radio	4	2	1	2	37.5
37	Watt-hour meter (PHCN)meter	10	17	3	8	50
38	Work benches	15	18	20	22	75
39	Galvanometer	10	11	18	13	87.5
40	Generator (sine and wave)	6	7	5	6	87.5
41	Frequency modulator	2	1	1	3	75
42	Cathode ray tubes	5	4	8	2	62.5
Total No. of items			25	23	19	
% Adequate			61%	56%	46%	

NUC Min: minimum number of physical facilities recommended by the National Universities commission (NUC)

%ADEQT: Percentage of the 3 universities with the minimum number of physical facilities in adequate quantity.

Data in table 5 revealed that BENIN, has the highest number of physical facilities of 103 items, representing 64%, DELSU has 98 items in adequate quantity with 61% and lastly AAU with 91 physical facility items with 57% adequacy level.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the frequency of utilization of available physical facilities for the teaching and learning of technical education in Nigerian Universities ($p < 0.5$).

Table 3. Existing physical facilities in Building Construction/woodwork course area.

S/No.	Tools, Equipment and Machines	NUC Min	BENIN	AAU	DELSU	% ADEQT
1	Portable tools (assort)	50	62	81	62	100
2	Pipe wrenches(assort)	5	7	2	5	50
3	Port compressor and acc	2	1	3	1	75
4	Portable concrete mixer	2	2	1	2	87.5
5	Portable pipe thread	2	2	3	1	75
6	Hack saws	15	15	15	11	50
7	Block making mach	2	1	2	-	37.5
8	Spades	10	10	14	3	37.5
9	Chisels	10	8	10	4	50
10	Trowels (assorted)	20	18	14	15	25
11	Tape measure (2.6 m)	15	15	10	18	50
12	Head pans	10	8	4	11	37.5
13	Sprit levels	15	20	14	16	50
14	Lion square	15	10	16	1	37.5
15	Shovels	10	6	12	4	25
16	Jack planes	15	16	10	18	75
17	Smoothing planes	15	16	15	15	75
18	Rebate planes	15	12	11	18	75
19	Grooving/plough planes	3	3	2	5	50
20	Compass plane	3	1	3	2	12.5
21	Rip saw	15	15	2	15	25
22	Crosscut handsaw	15	13	10	4	50
23	Tension saw	15	15	12	17	37.5
24	Coping saw	15	10	15	13	37.5
25	Compass saw	10	9	4	10	50
26	Key hole saw	10	4	2	10	37.5
27	Fret saw	10	10	11	6	50
28	Panel saw	10	10	4	8	50
29	Formal chose;	20	10	24	8	25
30	Revenge chisel	20	26	12	24	37.5
31	Notice chisel	10	14	8	16	50
32	Firmer gauge set	8	2	10	4	37.5
33	Auger set	13	10	8	13	75
34	Twist set	10	14	11	11	75
35	Gimlet set	10	17	10	11	75
36	Spoke shaves set	10	9	12	3	37.5
37	Screw driver set	10	4	8	7	37.5
38	Mallet	16	15	12	17	50
39	Claw hammer	10	8	12	8	37.5
40	Bradawls;	10	6	6	12	25
41	Sash cramp	10	8	4	3	25
42	G –Clamp	8	6	5	10	12.5
43	Circular saw	3	2	4	2	25
44	Surface	1	3	2	1	100
45	Wood lathe assoc	1	1	2	1	100
46	Band saw	1	4	2	1	87.5
47	Moister	1	1	-	-	75
48	Sanders	1	1	-	1	75
49	Cross cur sawing machine	1	1	2	1	87.5
50	Drilling machine	1	1	-	1	75
51	Oil cans	6	7	3	6	62.5

Table 3. contd

52	Sewing machine	2	1	2	3	62.5
53	Try square	10	12	14	12	87.5
54	Staples	5	-	3	5	37.5
55	Marking gauges	10	10	13	17	87.5
56	Mortise gauges	8	6	11	10	75
57	Marking knives	8	14	4	12	62.5
58	Meter square	8	14	4	18	62.5
59	Measuring tape	10	6	13	4	62.5
60	Compressor	3	2	1	4	25
Total No of Items			31	29	37	
%Adequate			52%	50%	62%	54.38%

NUC Min. Minimum number of physical facilities recommended by the National universities commission (NUC).

% ADEQT. Percentage of the 8 universities that the minimum number of the physical I adequate quantity.

Table 4. Existing physical facilities in metal work/auto mechanic course programme.

S/No.	Tools, Equipment and Machines	NUC Min	BENIN	AAU	DELSU	% ADEQT
1	Set of taps and wrench	10	13	11	12	87.5
2	Hacksaw frames	20	10	15	21	50
3	Cold chisels	15	13	16	21	37.5
4	Files assorted	20	10	27	15	50
5	Steel rule (300m)	20	27	10	16	50
6	Scriber	15	15	16	10	37.5
7	Set of dies and stock	10	18	8	14	50
8	Venier calipers	10	5	2	11	37.5
9	Micrometer assorted	20	8	4	14	25
10	Hammers	10	12	12	22	100
11	Metal scrapers	13	15	18	10	50
12	Try square	11	18	11	13	75
13	Sanding machine	1	4	1	6	100
14	Grinding machine (uni)	1	3	1	2	100
15	Power hacksaw	1	1	1	-	75
16	Benches vices	18	20	10	24	87.5
17	Centre lathe	5	2	4	8	37.5
18	Grinding wheels	10	7	8	6	25
19	Pillar drilling machine	2	2	3	1	75
20	Milling cutters assorted	10	18	16	8	75
21	Universal milling Mac.	1	1	1	1	100
22	Surface plates	2	2	3	2	75
23	Forging hammers	10	11	16	8	50
24	Blows lamps	4	5	7	4	100
25	Soldering bits	20	24	21	15	50
26	Anvil	2	2	3	4	100
27	Blacksmith hearth	1	1	-	1	87.5
28	Flat nose pliers	15	16	4	16	50
29	Furnace for heat treat	2	2	2	2	75
30	Pipe cutter	2	2	1	1	37.5

Table 4. contd

31	Punches	15	17	8	18	75
32	Life vehicle	1	1	1	-	50
33	Dead vehicle	1	1	-	-	50
34	Diesel vehicle	1	2	-	-	25
35	Petrol engine	1	-	-	-	25
36	Chassis	1	-	1	-	25
37	Spanners open ended	10	12	16	11	100
38	Ring spanners	10	13	10	18	100
39	Socket spanners (boxes)	6	8	8	10	100
40	Ball peen	10	18	14	6	75
41	Pullers assorted	6	6	5	4	37.5
42	Grease guns	6	2	4	6	37.5
43	Screw driver assorted	10	12	10	10	87.5
44	Pliers assorted	20	33	15	24	87.5
45	Chisel assorted	20	23	30	21	100
46	Files assorted	15	15	18	30	100
47	Engineers square	10	12	18	8	50
48	Allen keys	10	12	21	18	100
49	Twist drills	10	10	16	13	100
50	Tread cutting taps and dies	5	2	5	2	50
51	Rubber mallets	5	8	8	7	100
52	Tire levers	5	6	2	6	50
53	Air compressor	1	4	2	1	100
54	Battery charger	1	3	1	2	100
55	Welding equipment	1	2	2	1	100
56	Electric soldering	10	11	8	10	87.5
57	Soldering lead	10	12	18	17	100
58	Grinding machine	1	2	1	1	100
59	Wheel balancing machine	1	1	-	-	50
60	Wheel alignments machine	1	-	-	1	50
Total No of Items			47	39	42	
% Adequate		75%	61%	43%	52%	68.50%

NUC Min: Minimum number of physical facilities recommended by the National universities commission (NUC).

% ADEQT: Percentage of the 3 universities with the minimum of physical facilities in adequate quantity.

Table 5. Availability of workshop facilities in the various Universities.

Name of university	Applied Elec./Electronics			Building/woodwork			Metal Auto-mech			Summary of availability in the 3 courses		
	Ad	%	Rank	Adq.	%	Rank	Adq.	%	Rank	Adq.	% Adq.	Rank
AAU (Ekpoma)	23	56	2 nd	29	50	3 rd	39	43	3 rd	91	57	3 rd
DELSU (Abraka)	19	46	3 rd	37	62	1 st	42	52	2 nd	98	61	2 nd
UNIBEN (Benin)	25	61	1 st	31	52	2 nd	47	61	1 st	103	64	1 st
		56.2			54.4			68.5			60.1	

To answer hypotheses 2, industrial technical education lecture responded to items that requested them to indicate the rate level of utilization of physical facility

items in the course of instruction. Data collected for this research question are presented in Tables 6, 7, 8 and 9.

Table 6 indicates the level of utilization of the physical

facilities for the attainment of education objectives by the lectures of applied electricity/electronics course programme.

The table shows that 24 items are often utilized for instructional purposes because they have a mean of up to 3.5 and above. While item with mean score below 3.5 are rarely utilized. A grand mean (\bar{x}) score of 3.40 has also shown that physical facilities are generally rarely utilized for the attainment of educational objectives in the course area of applied electricity/electronics.

Data presented in table 7 shows that of the 60 physical facility items, 27 obtained a means response of 3.5 and above, therefore often utilized, while 33 other items with a mean score below 3.50 were rarely utilized in the course area of building construction/woodwork.

Data presented in table 8 shows that 26 items scored a mean utilization rate of above 3.50, while 34 items obtained a mean score lower than 3.50. A grand mean score (\bar{x}) of 3.01 is also an indication of rare utilization level for the physical facilities existing in the course area of metal/automechanics.

The summary of level of utilization of physical facilities in the three course areas is shown in table 9. Data revealed that only 77 physical facility items out of the 161 listed are often used for the attainment of educational objectives of technical education, representing 49% of the all the facilities presented. 84 physical facility items are rarely utilized for the attainment of educational objectives, representing 51% of the total listed.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the lecturers in the three major course areas on the instructional approaches that will be suited for the use of the physical facilities for the attainment of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain educational objectives of industrial technical education programme ($P < 0.5$).

The data analyzed for the null hypothesis above are presented in Table 10, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether or no there were significant difference in the mean scores of lecturers of applied Electricity/Electronics, Building Construction/woodwork and Metalwork/automechanics on the instructional approaches suitable for the use of the physical facilities for the attainment of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains educational objectives of technical education. The ANOVA was used at 0.05 level of significance.

In the data presented in table 10, the obtained F-ratio is 0.70 while the given critical value is 3.19 at the 0.05 level of significance.

Since the obtained F-ratio of 0.07 is less than the critical value of 3.19 at the 0.05 level of significance, the hypothesis is hereby accepted. The F-ratio is therefore not significant. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the three groups of lecturers on the instructional approaches that will be suitable for the attainment of the cognitive domain educational objectives

of technical education.

PRINCIPAL FINDINGS

The following are principal the findings of this study.

i.) The result of the study revealed that physical facilities are inadequate in the course area of applied electricity/electronics. Detail showed that none of the institutions provided all the listed 41 physical facility items at 100% adequacy. Also no item was found in adequate quantity in the 3 universities under study.

ii.) In the course area of building construction/woodwork, only 3 physical facility items were found in adequate quantity in the universities under study. Also, none of the universities has all the items adequate or as recommended by the Nigerian universes commission.

iii.) Physical facilities provided in the course area of metalwork/auto mechanic are inadequate. Out of the 60 items presented only 19 were found in adequate quantity in all the universities, representing 37% adequacy level. Also, no university also has the physical facilities at a 100% adequate level, as recommended by the NUC.

iv.) The summary of the existing physical facilities revealed that only 32 physical facilities could be obtained at all in all the universities under study, out of the 161 items listed. This represents 24% and a high inadequacy level of 76%.

v.) In the course area of Applied Electricity/Electronics 24 physical facility items are often utilized for the attainment of educational objectives, representing 59% of the list of the 41 physical facility items presented to the respondents. 17 items representing 41% are rarely utilized for instructional purposes.

vi.) In the course area of building construction/woodwork, 27 items, representing 45% of the physical facilities are often utilized for instructional purposes. On the other hand 33 other items representing 55% of the total number are rarely utilized for the attainment of educational objectives of industrial technical education.

vii.) The result of the course area of metal work/auto-mechanic shows that only 26 physical facility items, representing 43% of the total 60 items presented were often utilized for the attainment of educational objectives. 34 others representing more than half of the total number are being rarely utilized for the attainment of educational objectives.

viii.) There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the lecturers of the three different course areas of applied electricity/electronics, building constructions/woodwork and the lecturers in the course metalwork/aeromechanics on the instructional approaches suitable with the use of the physical facilities for the attainment of the affective domain educational objectives of technical education.

ix.) In the area of the psychomotor domain, students could suitably be taught to perceive with their sensory

Table 6. Rate of utilization of physical facilities in Applied Electricity/Electronics course programme.

S/No	Tools, Equipment and Machines	X (mean)	Rate of use
1	Universal pipe bending	3.64	Often
2	Long nose pliers	4.46	Often
3	Blow lamps	2.40	Rarely
4	Hammers assorted sizes	4.06	Often
5	Hand drill (electric)	4.30	Often
6	Cold chisel sets	4.43	Often
7	Screw driver (general purpose)	4.43	Often
8	Electric soldering iron 15/48w assorted	4.28	Often
9	Files assorted	2.78	Rarely
10	Wire gauze	3.53	Often
11	Screw driver (electricians	4.46	Often
12	Measuring tapes (steel) 6m	4.37	Often
13	Metal rectifiers	2.68	Rarely
14	Fixtures-fluorescent	2.62	Rarely
15	Capacitors assorted	3.53	Often
16	Bells electric	2.36	Rarely
17	Hydrometer	4.25	Often
18	Magnetic experiment and demonstrating unit	3.40	Rarely
19	Continuity tester	4.18	Often
20	Motor-wound motor induction	2.50	Rarely
21	Miniature circuit breakers	2.75	Rarely
22	Potentiometer	4.18	Often
23	Motor generator unit – 230v	3.60	Often
24	Power supply – electric circuit with meters for filament B and C suppliers	3.78	Often
25	Motor AC and DC demonstrations for generator and motor	4.30	Often
26	Oscilloscope (kit/form)	3.30	Rarely
27	Vacuum tube voltmeter it form	4.09	Often
28	Voltmeter DC 0-2.5-25-250-750	3.15	Rarely
29	Experimental cell	4.46	Often
30	Switches assorted	4.28	Often
31	Relays	4.30	Often
32	Volt-ohm millimetre, 20,000 ohms-volt	1.65	Rarely
33	Cathode ray oscilloscope	3.06	Rarely
34	Ammeter DC 0-54 scale	1.78	Rarely
35	Bench radio works with instrument 230 volts outlet 2.75	2.75	Rarely
36	Watt-hour meter (PHCN) meter	3.53	Often
37	Work benches	4.30	Often
38	Galvanometer	3.93	Often
39	Generator (sine and wave)	4.34	Often
40	Frequency modulator	1.56	Rarely
41	Cathode ray tubes	2.53	Rarely
Grand mean		3.40	Rarely

X – Mean response of items: Often-Often Utilized: Rarely- Rarely Utilized.

organs through guiding them to recognize clues, make choices and translate into action by correctly operating machines and equipment.

x.) A summary of the instructional approaches shows that out of the instructional approaches listed for the attainment of educational objectives, in the cognitive, affective and the psychomotor domain were rated as

suitable for the attainment of the educational objectives of technical education programmes.

Conclusion

Based on the results, discussions and findings of this

Table 7. Rate of utilization of physical facilities in building construction /woodwork course programme.

S/No	Tools, Equipment and Machines	X	Rate of use
1	Portable tools assorted	4.38	Often
2	Pipe wrenches assorted	1.75	RU
3	Portable compressor and accessories	4.08	Often
4	Portable concrete mixer	4.44	Often
5	Portable pipe thread	4.16	Often
6	Hacksaws	1.55	Rarely
7	Block/brick making machine	1.80	Rarely
8	Spades	1.69	Rarely
9	Chisels	1.88	Rarely
10	Trowels (assorted)	1.86	Rarely
11	Tape measure (2.6m)	1.77	Rarely
12	Head pans	1.86	Rarely
13	Spirit level	2.66	Rarely
14	Iron square	2.60	Rarely
15	Shovels	1.90	Rarely
16	Jack planes	4.19	Often
17	Smoothing planes	4.25	Often
18	Rebate planes	4.11	Often
19	Grooving/plough planes	2.90	Rarely
20	Compass plane	2.38	Rarely
21	Rip saw	2.25	Rarely
22	Cross cut/hand saw	2.69	Rarely
23	Tenon saw	4.19	Often
24	Coping saw	4.25	Often
25	Compass saw	4.27	Rarely
26	Keyhole saw	1.90	Rarely
27	Fret saw	2.02	Rarely
28	Panel saw	2.90	Rarely
29	Firmer chisel	2.08	Rarely
30	Bevel-edge chisel	3.00	Rarely
31	Mortise chisel	2.56	Rarely
32	Filler gauge (set)	1.90	Rarely
33	Auger (set)	4.00	Often
34	Twist (set)	4.05	Often
35	Gimlet (set)	4.22	Often
36	Spoke shaves (set)	1.58	Rarely
37	Screw driver (set of 6)	2.05	Rarely
38	Mallet	2.60	Rarely
39	Claw hammer	2.05	Rarely
40	Bradawl	2.86	Rarely
41	Sash cramp	1.88	Rarely
42	G-Cramp	1.69	Rarely
43	Circular saw	2.75	Rarely
44	Surfacer	4.47	Often
45	Wood lathe with accessories	4.25	Often
46	Band saw	4.19	Often
47	Motiser	4.13	Often
48	Sanders, drum, disc and bell	4.11	Often
49	Cross cut sawing machine	4.11	Often
50	Drilling machine	4.22	Often

Table 7. Contd.

51	Oil cans	4.30	Often
52	Sewing machine	2.83	Rarely
53	Try square	4.19	Often
54	Staples	2.77	Rarely
55	Marking gauges	2.22	Rarely
56	Mortise gauges	4.27	Often
57	Marking knives	4.25	Often
58	Meter square	4.13	Often
59	Measuring tapes (metric) 6m	4.19	Often
60	Compressors	4.08	Often
	Grand mean	3.12	Rarely

X- Mean response of items; Often-Often Utilized; Rarely- Rarely Utilized.

Table 8. Utilization of physical facilities of metal work/automechanics course programme.

S/No	Tools, Equipment & Machines	X	Rate of use
1	Set of taps and wrench	4.35	Often
2	Hacksaw frames	4.47	Often
3	Cold chisels	1.50	Rarely
4	Files assorted	4.14	Often
5	Steel rule (300m)	4.29	Often
6	Scriber	1.60	Rarely
7	Set of dies and stock	1.5	Rarely
8	Vernier calipers	4.35	Often
9	Micrometer Assorted	1.55	Rarely
10	Hammers	4.52	Often
11	Metal scrapers	1.76	Rarely
12	Try square	4.40	Often
13	Sanding machine	2.29	Rarely
14	Universal cylindrical grinding machine	1.60	Rarely
15	Power hacksaw	1.58	Rarely
16	Benches vices	4.47	Often
17	Centre lathe with accessories	1.47	Rarely
18	Grinding wheels (assorted)	1.60	Rarely
19	Pillar drilling machine with accessories	1.94	Rarely
20	Milling cutters assorted	1.55	Rarely
21	Universal milling machine	4.58	Often
22	Surface plates	1.60	Rarely
23	Forging hammers assorted	1.85	Rarely
24	Blow lamps	4.38	Often
25	Soldering bits	1.73	Rarely
26	Anvil	4.38	Often
27	Blacksmith hearth	1.76	Rarely
28	Flat nose pliers	1.76	Rarely
29	Furnace for heat treatment	1.90	Rarely
30	Pipe cutter	1.76	Rarely
31	Punches	4.52	Often
32	Life vehicle	1.50	Rarely
33	Dead vehicle	1.70	Rarely
34	Diesel vehicle	1.64	Rarely
35	petrol engine	1.55	Rarely

Table 8. contd

36	Chasis	1.76	Rarely
37	Spanners open ended	4.17	Often
38	Ring spanners	4.38	Often
39	Socket spanners (boxes)	4.35	Often
40	Ball pein	4.20	Often
41	Pullers assorted	1.60	Rarely
42	Grease guns	1.60	Rarely
43	Screw driver assorted	4.47	Often
44	Pliers assorted	4.35	Often
45	Chisel assorted	4.38	Often
46	Files assorted	3.94	Often
47	Engineers square	2.35	Rarely
48	Allen keys	2.08	Rarely
49	Twist drills	4.20	Often
50	Tread cutting taps and dies	1.82	Rarely
51	Rubber mallets	2.08	Rarely
52	Tyre levers	1.64	Rarely
53	Air compressor	1.76	Rarely
54	Battery charger	4.26	Often
55	Welding equipment (gas)	4.47	Often
56	Electric soldering irons	4.5	Often
57	Soldering lead	4.00	Often
58	Grinding machine	4.29	Often
59	Wheel balancing machine	1.87	Rarely
60	Wheel alignment machine	1.88	Rarely
	Grand mean	3.01	Rarely

X- Mean response of items, Often- Often Utilized; Rarely- Rarely Utilized.

Table 9. Summary of the utilization of physical facilities for the attainment of educational objectives of technical education in the course areas.

S/No	Course area	Often utilized	Rarely utilized	Total
1	Applied electricity/electronics	24 59%	17 41%	41
2	Building construction/woodwork	27 45%	33 55%	60
3	Metalwork/automechanics	26 43%	34 57%	60
Total		77 49%	84 51%	161

Table 10. Summary of the analysis of variance of the three areas on the instructional approaches suited for the attainment of the cognitive domain educational objectives.

Source of variance	Sum of squares (ss)	Degree of freedom (df)	Variance estimate	F-ratio (f)	F-critical	Level of sign.
Between groups	0.27	2	0.14	0.70	3.19	0.05
Within groups	9.72	48	0.20			
Total	9.99	50				

study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Physical facilities are inadequately provided for instructional purposes in the universities under study. This is be-

cause of the 161 physical facility items listed, only 22 were provided in adequate quantity in the 3 universities under study. Worst still is that all the universities under

study fall within a range of 66% in the number of physical facilities items that are adequate, an inadequacy level of between 44 to 50%.

The course area of metalwork/ auto mechanics has just an adequacy level of 19 physical facilities in all the Universities, Building construction/woodwork has only 22 items adequate in the 3 universities, while the course area of Applied Electronics has no item in adequate quantity in the universities under study. On the utilization of the physical facilities for the attainment of the educational objectives of technical education, only 77 physical facility items out of the 161 items listed were often utilized for the attainment of the educational objectives of technical education programmes. This number represents 48% of the 161 physical facility, other items are either not available for use, or are abandoned and neglected by the lecturers for utilization and the attainment of stated educational objectives.

Recommendations

The recommendations of this study are as follows;

- i.) Institutions should be properly funded for physical facilities to be provided to meet with the NUC recommendations by the Universities that have their facilities in a short fall.
- ii.) The National universities commission (NUC) should insist on the provision of the minimum standard requirement of facilities before any Nigerian universities could be accredited to offer any technical education programme.
- iii.) Though it was observed that some physical facility items were inadequate, record however showed that those available or existing in the institutions were being utilized for the attainment of educational objectives. It is therefore a recommendation arising from the results and finding of this study for lecturers to increase their level of utilization of the physical facilities for the attainment of the three domains of educational objectives in the taxonomy, the cognitive, the affective and the psychomotor domain of technical education programmes.
- iv.) Lecturers should recognize and adopt instructional purposes, suitable for instructional approaches in technical education that properly internalize knowledge, value and skills, through a breakdown of educational objectives into level of what has to be learned in the cognitive, affective and the psychomotor domain.
- v.) Lectures and other educationalists should in attempt to attain the cognitive domain educational objectives of Industrial technical education, with the use of physical facilities, adopt instructional approaches that teach comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation, as specified and accepted as suitable for the attainment of educational objectives of technical education programmes.
- vi.) Lecturers of technical education should adopt instructional approaches in association with physical facilities

that enable the attainment of the effective domain educational objectives. The approaches should lead to the entire continuum of receiving responding, valuing, organizing and characterizing in a value complex.

vii.) It is also the recommendation of this study that instructional approaches to be adopted by lecturers should be suitable for the attainment of the psychomotor domain educational objectives. The approaches with the use of the physical facilities should lead to the attainment of the sublevels of the psychomotor domain, leading the learner to perceive, set for and activates respond to instructions, mechanism in degree of a skill performance, adoption to new problematic situation and expertise through origination.

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Article

Training technology and vocational education teachers for the new 9-3-4 education system in Nigeria: Its problems and prospects

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The construct of this paper is to ascertain the attendant problems prevalent in the training patterns of vocational and technical education teachers in our various training institutions in the country, and its consequences in the teaching or impacting of knowledge by these trained personnel to the young ones in the post-primary schools across the state and beyond. It also suggested remedies for overcoming the bottlenecks usually encountered during the training process and made work-man-like recommendations for its rapid development.

Key words: Vocational training programme, education in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

The term “vocational” refers to preparations for profession in the world of work. Its definition includes preparation for employment in an occupation for which specialized education is prepared for societal needs and which can be appropriately done in schools. It is a specialized education because courses or programmes are selected by those individual who have a special interest for a particular occupation in a trade or profession, It is commonly defined as education for preparing individuals to earn a good living or simply as “education for work”, therefore making it different from education for life. The training programme of this type of education must be intense and handled only those who know it, appreciate it and live by it (Oranu, 1983).

Technology on the other hand is a way at life and a culture in itself it more than tools, artifacts, machines and process (Uwaifo, 1993). Technology for the purpose of this discourse is taken to deal with man’s attempt to satisfy his wants by human action on physical objects. The training patterns of our vocational and technical education institution in Nigerian have attendant problems and have not been very impressive over the years. Lack of adequate workshop facilities, lack of qualified personnel for these areas, inadequate funding, and the Nigerian factor are some of the bottle-necks militating against the effective training of manpower in these laudable area.

This ineffective training in our in our institutions of higher learning has in no doubt affected the training been inculcated to the young ones in our vocational and technical colleges in the areas of technical and business subjects.

The focus of this paper, therefore, will be to carefully examine the training needs of vocational and technical education in our institution of learning and technical education in our institutions of learning, advance reasons for this training, identify the various training organs - their patterns, mode and methodologies, ascertain the issues for teacher preparation, identify the perennial problems prevalent in the training of teacher, advance remedies in curbing this ugly development and made workman-like recommendations which will help in solving some of the problems identified above.

It is clear from the foregoing that the training need for vocational and technical education is evidently important so that they could adequately coup with the challenging objectives of the programme and thus meeting with the National Philosophy of Education (2004) whose objective includes:

- i.) The inculcation of national consciousness and National unity.
- ii.) The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigeria society.
- iii.) The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around us.
- iv.) The acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies.

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It is clear from the objectives above that the issue of teacher supply and demand for vocational and technical programme is indispensable as it is both social and economic. Many school of thought believe that it is very expensive to establish and maintain vocational programme when infrastructure, equipment and equipment and cost of training teachers are considered. Another school of thought believe that the major issue is that of the attitude of the society towards skilled programmes. The society prefer intellectually oriented programmes to skilled ones hence sufficient interest has not been cultivated for occupational programme in the Nigerian culture.

REASONS FOR TRAINING VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL TEACHERS IN NIGERIA

In Nigeria, teachers had always played important roles in communities and in schools. Therefore the training of teachers has always been of great concern to the government and individuals in the society. For example, there had been very critical comments on the failure of students in the school "fall" in the standard of education, immorality, indiscipline amongst youths in the society, unemployment resulting from unemployable graduates and many other devastating comments resulting from the education of the child. For each of the above negative result on education, the teacher is then expected to cure in addition to other ills of society through the school. Therefore the future of any nation rest in the hands of the caliber of its teachers because the qualities they possess and exhibit today will inevitably be reflected in the behaviour of the citizens of tomorrow. The reason for training Vocational and Technical Education teachers is to be well groomed with enough skills, knowledge and potentials needed for technological advancement. It is therefore very necessary to give substantial attention to the mode of preparing teachers for a technological Nigeria Culture and also monitor the expectations from these teachers.

TRAINING ORGANS

Vocational and Technical Teachers are usually trained under two categories in our training institution.

- i.) Training through the Nigeria Colleges of Education, and Polytechnic: (Physical or Technical).
- ii.) Training through the University: (Science, Technical, Agriculture)

Training vocational and technical teachers through the Nigeria Colleges of Education (N.C.E.) or Polytechnic programme

The holders of the Nigerian certificate in education in any of vocational and technical education are usually trained

in the department of vocational and technical education in most colleges of education and in few polytechnics across the country. Most colleges of education in this part of the world are purely physical in nature that is, they train personnel in the general education subjects: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology etc and in few Vocational subject areas: Business Education, Agricultural Education etc. The Colleges of Education Agbor, Warri, and Okene are examples of this type of institution.

Other types of College of Education like Asaba, Akoka etc. are purely for Vocational and Technical aspects. They train personnel to use the brain, hand and mind most effectively for the development of self and society. Most Polytechnic and Colleges of Technology also run Vocational and Technical courses leading to the award of N.C.E. in Vocational and Technical subjects. The Federal Polytechnic Auchi, and the Kaduna Polytechnic Kaduna, were foremost in these areas, but unfortunately the Federal Polytechnic Auchi, has recently scraped this aspect of their programme because they could not meet with accreditation processes.

Admission requirements into these schools are between three and four credits passes in the relevant subjects depending on the school and their admission processes while the period of training is usually not less than three years.

Holders of this certificate (NCE) teach vocational and technical based subjects in the junior secondary school level. They teach Introductory Technology, Business Studies, Agric. Science and other related skilled subjects at this level.

It is pertinent to state that the Vocational and Technical Education programme in the Colleges of Education are not very effective in teacher preparation because of gross inadequacy of facilities, equipments, instrument, inadequate instructors, lack of funding coupled probably with the low sensitivity of administration to facilities and equipments that are inadequate. Students are trained only on available facilities that are as absolute as age, for aspects of their responsibilities in vocational and technical education. In most other colleges, the facilities and equipments are either grossly inadequate, or where few are available they are not installed and put to use or that the equipment are not there at all or that these equipments are put out of use because of our maintenance culture. As a result, what we turn out as graduate in most of our N.C.E. programmes are unskilled personnel who is adequately not governed with the a-z of the contents of the course he has chosen to study. For example, mechanization and immigration in agriculture may be taught through the pages of textbooks in our Colleges of Education that cannot afford the facilities for the practical. Also in Auto-Mechanics, Foundry, Electronics Communication Technology and Computer Science may be taught through text books, pictures or models where available as most schools do not even have these equipment/materials/ machines/ tools etc, to teach these subjects

effectively nor do they have the workshop to house them.

It may not be a surprise to observe a student with a distinction in agriculture at the NCE level who has never touched a tractor or seen a spraying equipment or able to formulate a feed for cow. These are the teachers that are teaching vocational programmes in the nation's secondary schools. The result is that it should therefore not be surprising also to observe a high school grade who obtains a distinction in Agriculture Science in the West African School Certificate (WASC) but cannot distinguish between a rice plant and a grass or a cotton plant and a pigeon peas.

I want to conclude the above observation that the major problem of the abandoned colonial system of education may not be seriously that of the curricular or syllabus but that of the delivery system and assessment technique.

Training vocational and technical education teachers through the universities

In Nigeria, the training of vocational technical teachers at the university for the award of bachelor degree and further higher degree in the areas of the vocational and technical education has not received any impressive support from the University administration. Only few university across the country offer this programme at the under graduate and graduate level in Nigeria. The entry requirements is usually a minimum of five credit passes in the relevant areas and the training period is usually a minimum of four years for the award of a Bachelors degrees and a minimum of 18 months for the award of a masters degree while the PhD degree lasts for a minimum of two academic sessions.

This category of teacher is suitable to teach at all levels of vocational and technical education programme. At this level, the teacher should possess the much needed skills, knowledge, attitude and competence needed for effective transfer of instruction.

Amongst the few universities that offer this programme in Nigeria, only the University of Nigeria Nsukka and the Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, have made some efforts to train few Vocational and Technical Education Teachers in the areas of Agriculture, Technical, Home Economics, Business Education and Computer Education in Nigeria. They have fairly equipped workshop with absolute facilities anyway, and about 50% manpower needed to teach this programme. Only the University of Nigeria Nsukka, until recently, offers this programme at the Masters and Doctorate Post graduate level respectively.

Other Federal and State University:- University of Benin, Benin-City, University of Uyo, Delta State University, Abraka and the Ambrose Alli University Ekpoma amongst others are just struggling to have this programme rooted with attendant problems like lack of workshop, facilities, equipments, tools/machines and inadequate teachers to man these various areas. Most of these schools are doing all within their disposal to curb or

reduce these problems while others are stagnant and do not have the effrontery to improve on their present state of affairs.

The implications of these are teachers, who do not have enough manipulative skills, knowledge and techniques required to adequately teach the young ones who want to be vocationally and technically oriented.

BASIC ISSUES TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE PREPARATION OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

The major issues in teacher preparation in the Universities, Colleges of Education and Polytechnic are:

- i.) How relevant are the curricula or the courses taught to the needs of students in the Secondary/Technical/Vocational School/ Colleges? That is, there must be some relationship between the Vocational/Technical programmes in Secondary Schools and that of the Universities, College of Education and Polytechnic.
- ii.) How far are those programmes reviewed and who are the reviewers?
- iii.) How much knowledge of the needs of the students and the national technology do the reviewers possess? How often do they improve themselves?
- iv.) How are these programmes evaluated to ascertain that they are appropriate or well equipped to meet the requirements of the teachers they are to train? Who accredit them and who obtains the reports for programme involvement?
- v.) What type of work experience or practice are the students' teachers exposed to before they graduate? Who evaluate such programme and how correctly evaluated are such programme?
- vi.) How often are field teachers evaluated to ascertain that they are current with changes and innovations in technology? What new innovations do they acquire? Where do they acquire such new programmes and who instruct this new programme to the teachers? How competent are these instructors?
- vii.) Who determines what to teach and how much research in education does he possess?
- viii.) How much of these research efforts does he include in his programme and how often?
- ix.) Who approves this programme and how knowledgeable are they about the prevailing situation in the schools and colleges the proposed programme is to serve?
- x.) How are the students evaluated and how often are they improved through in-service programme to meet changes in technology?
- xi.) Who provide the facilities? How adequate and functional are these facilities and how are they maintained?
- xii.) How competent is the instructor in the knowledge and use of these facilities for effective instruction?

PROBLEMS OF TRAINING VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN NIGERIA

Poor societal perception: This is seen in the general apathy shown by the people being caused by the age-old attitude towards the teaching profession in the society. In the past, the Nigerian society has looked down on vocational and technical education teachers and those who practice it are never do wells. This attitude has continued to institute a stumbling block to the progress of implementation.

According to Gambo (1980) there is still a strong tendency towards white-collar job as a result of low status associated with most kind of vocational and technical education. Despite government efforts to establish a sound vocational programme, impact has been made in terms of improving the status. It was because of this cold attitude towards vocational and technical education that a matter relating to its good implementation is often ill treated. It was in the light of this attitude that Ozoro (1982) stated that, some decision makers did not think it was sufficiently important to deserve funding.

The author is of the view that most parents, teachers and policy makers want their children to be Medical Doctors, Accountants, lawyers, Good politicians, Computer Scientist and of course Engineers without thinking of being Teachers. More still, some of us that are teachers are never proud to be one or have never wanted to be, but become teachers because of many adverse reasons. The attitude of societies, communities and individuals alike towards vocational and technical education programmes needs to be changed if improvement is expected in this area.

Funding problem: The vocational institution in Nigeria face severe financial problem today because the Industries and individual organization who are the main consumer of the Vocational product are non-chalant about supporting and financing Vocational projects and programmes. These being the case, vocational and technical education do not have enough funds needed to execute developmental project and programmes. It should be known that unlike the liberal act and other general education, vocational and technical education is highly capital intensive and it required huge sum of money to run.

Most of our teachers cannot make any scientific or technical inventions since most of our institutions do not have the equipment and where some of these equipments are available, there is shortage of personnel since competent ones choose to go to the industries to work for better pay.

A lot of capital outlay is required to procure the necessary equipment, machines, tools, facilities and other consumables, which are needed to be stocked in workshops or laboratories for effective instruction. The absence of which may result in the collapse of fully implementing the programme. The financial problem is also making it difficult to expose teachers and instructors to

more training and retraining programmes. The government has not been fair enough with its funding policy on these programmes and unless this attitude is changed, the programme will not only drag or remain stagnant, but will be gradually be phased out from the schools curriculum.

Inadequate physical/material resources: In vocational and technical education programmes, buildings and well-equipped workshops and laboratories are of paramount importance, unfortunately, this is not always so in most of our schools: primary, post-primary and tertiary institutions. In most tertiary institutions that offer this programme, the author observed that engineering workshops are used for training vocational and technical education teachers and funny enough; the instructors are also engineering based instructors who do not have any pedagogy skill. Let me quickly point out that engineering and technical education are different areas, as one cannot be substituted for the other for maximum efficiency. While the Engineers aims at the production of materials for use by mail, Technical Teachers aim at training man to effectively teach man in vocational based skilled subjects. It will be therefore wrong for instructors in engineering endeavors to teach Vocational based programmes as in the tradition of most institutions around.

Mal-administration: Most of the problems encountered in the field of vocational and technical education programmes in general are grossly caused by poor planning and administration. Madu (1980) noted that by far, the greatest obstacle to a rapid acquisition of Technology in poor countries could be traced to the type and quality of management system prevalent in these countries whereas in developed countries all managers private and public sectors are trained. Technical Managers in developing countries are essentially managers who have grown without any technical back ground or training.

It is quite evident that in Nigeria, those who know little or nothing about the ethics of vocational anti technical education programmes are meant to man such establishment. This has a lot of negative tendencies on the programme.

Insufficient and poorly qualified technical staff: The best of theories in education has opined that no educational system could rise above the level of the quality of its teachers. Technical teachers must be highly trained and acquire enough skills in other to make them capable of communicating their skill to others effectively. What presently obtains is that highly skilled vocational and technical education teachers are snatched by industries, which pay good salaries leaving few ones in the teaching profession that are grossly inadequate. This makes for most schools employing mediocre: artisans and technicians to man most sensitive subjects and the result of their product is unimaginable.

Suffice to say that while most departments in most

Higher Institutions are overstaffed therefore making for two or more lecturers to in man one course as it were, Vocational and Technical Departments in all higher institution in Nigeria and other developing countries are grossly understaffed making, for one lecturer to handle two or more courses which is a direct opposite of what obtains in many other departments in the same institution.

Gross neglect of vocational and technical education:

Vocational and technical education had been neglected for a long, time because of the negative perception of those who should project it and nurture it to maturity. This is obvious from their action words as well is they are inaction. For example, a few months ago one government agency published the distribution of some fund to the education sector- universities, polytechnics, Colleges of Education, secondary and Technical Colleges. Predictably, the Technical Colleges were rated much less than secondary schools. Also in the university setting, in the allocation of funds to faculties and departments, Vocational and Technical Education are usually treated least in this allocation even by those in the highest level of academic attainment. This is because of their low perception about this programme. At times it would be seen that the perpetrators of these acts do so out of ignorance, but it is difficult to explain it always in that simplistic manner because it is these same people who when it suits their fancy nature, talks glowingly about the importance of vocational and technical education. Then question is, who is fooling who? The negative perception held by society that vocational and technical education is for "drop out" or those who cannot think must change if this country is to benefit from the constant development in Technology and Engineering. This would change tile orientation of parents and students who now drift into Social Science based programmes because they are convinced that these are the only viable courses to pursue in the institutions of learning. Simply put, Adewumi (2000), opined that the reward system is skewed in such a way that nobody cares nowadays how to produce money through industry and hard work. What they perceive as ready money makers is more attractive to them than even the traditional noble profession such as Medicine, Law and Engineering. Nigeria has been described as a Nation in a hurry; she must therefore be prepared to pay the price. After all, the Yoruba adage has it that "whoever want to eat honey inside the rock must not worry about what happened to the blade of his axes".

Our general attitude toward the apathy of "quick wealth or the get-rich-quick syndrome" without hard-work or even the societies disposition towards wealth and wealthy persons irrespective of how these wealth were being acquired, must stop, if we must make positive Technological breakthrough in this society.

The school factor: The school itself has not helped in promoting and projecting the good image of Vocational

and Technical Education. For example, in August 2000, the management of Ambrose Alli University Ekpoma, under the leadership of Professor Denis Agbonlahor, ordered that most of the Technical based courses in the department of Vocational and Technical Education should be merged or harmonized with most related courses in the Faculty of Engineering and the courses manned by lecturers in the Engineering faculty. His reason was to reduce the cost of employing more lectures (full-time or part-time) into the department of Vocational and Technical Education.

Within the same period, the management of the University of Benin, Benin City headed by Professor Richard Anao, has also ordered same to the department of Vocational and Technical Education (UNIBEN). It however took the concerted efforts of experts and non-experts in this area to convince these authorities to have a change of heart. Today, though the programme are still being ran at their department in the various schools, it survival especially in meeting NUC accreditation requirements is threatening.

Let me state here that there is a significant difference between training Technical Teachers and Training Engineers, and also to quickly add that no two programme in the University at exactly the same (as believed by this administrators) otherwise they would be merged. The philosophy and objectives of Technical Education is completely different in form, shape, scope, structure and style with that of Engineering. For example, the University of Nigeria Nsukka, that has a well equipped Engineering Department workshop also have a completely separate but fairly well- equipped Technical Education workshop and they do not interchange neither man nor material in both departments. This is because there exist a sharp contrast even when the same machines and equipments may be involved between the methodology of training Technical Teachers and Engineers.

Government poor perception: Between 1981 to 1983 sophisticated machines tools and equipment were imported by the Federal Government of Nigeria from Bulgaria, Hungary Czechoslovakia etc with billions of Naira to most secondary schools across the States in the Federation for the take off of the 6-3-3-4 system of education which laid emphasis on Vocational and Technical Education. Most of these machines including Lathe machines, wood lathe machine, drilling machine, shaping machine, power saw, electric drill etc which depend on electricity to be operated were distributed to most schools without consideration for public or private power system that were not in most of these schools, neither were there workshops to house these items as most of them were littered on the various corridors or on the principals office, garage or in make shift classroom where they were generally left at the mercy of the weather and thieves, without being put in used as workshops has not been built to house these machines, in most schools across the country neither were teachers adequately trained to man this skillful areas before the consideration of its importation.

The result is that 25 years after, most of such machines, tools and equipment has not been installed in most schools and those that happens to survive the mercy of the school principals, Technology Teachers, students and thieves (who actually pilfer these items) are eventually rotting away. This is evidently, a right step in the wrong direction by the Government. Not only that these materials and machines are wasting away, the subject for which these items were imported: Introductory Technology and other Vocational and Technical based courses is hitherto on the verge of being phased out by most secondary schools in the state and beyond if it ever existed there. The few schools offering the subject now is doing so at God's mercy as a lot of problems has be-deviled the programme.

Training and re-training programme: Most Technical Teachers have poor training background owing to the problems encountered during the training process. Most technical teachers have never since their practice gone for re-training programme in order to keep abreast with the ever-dynamic technological innovation associated with the ever-changing needs of the society. This essentially would have been done through adequate re-training programmes: workshops, seminars, conference and higher school programmes. Any one who does not follow the dynamics of technology in this 21st century will be taken unaware. Most unfortunately, technical teachers do rarely attend such orientation programmes because of the high rate of funding, and the negative attitude of administrators coupled with government low funding policy for this kind of programme. All these discourage the teachers from participating in the re-training exercise.

REMEDIES

Following the problems usually encountered during the teaching/learning and training of vocational and technical education programme, the following remedies are made towards enhancing training and productivity. The remedies also foster reasons for adequate training of Vocational and Technical Education Teachers at various training level.

- i.) The negative attitude of many parents and students to Vocational and Technical Education should be (hanged by all and sundry, the government, educationist, teachers and students alike, should carry out a campaign or orientation programme towards enlightening the general public on the need for their children to be Vocationally and Technical, oriented in light of the prevailing economic circumstances of the nation and the unemployment rate which is on the increase. Vocational Education will aim to cater for all and sundry who are unemployed as they can earn a living, through their manipulative skills acquired.
- ii.) Government should be more concerned about the quality training of Vocational and Technical Education

Teachers Programme and encourage them with a lot of incentives. Seminars, Conferences, Workshops etc, should be organized for this category of teachers periodically so as to be acquainted with the ever-changing technological innovation. Also, other programmes that could complement the present Technical Teachers Training Programme. (TTTP) should be established and more persons should be given the opportunity to under go this TTTP at all levels, other scholarship programme (local and international) should be encouraged for technical teachers. Teachers in this area are grossly inadequate. This is not a problem of numbers; it is a problem of quality. The problem of getting enough quantity of the right quality. It is not a problem of finding willing-worm-bodies to keep order in the classrooms. The problem is to find enough who can teach vocational technical education subjects most efficiently and effectively.

iii.) Money or fund should be adequately injected into this system of Education if it must succeed. Although poor funding has been a major problem to our National Educational System, that notwithstanding, the author believe that for a country, to achieve a reasonable percentage in Technological breakthrough and be self reliant economically, socially, politically and otherwise, the institutions responsible for training such manpower must be given adequate priority as regards funding. Government should allocate more funds to these institutions by way of subventions. In most developed countries, such as USA, Japan, France, Germany, Britain etc, most Vocational and Technical Education institutions are Sponsored or Supported by industries, individuals, co-operate bodies or organizations in addition to government subventions to enable these institution execute their vocational based programme and research projects and also provide the needed physical resources adequately. Such idea should also be encouraged in Nigeria.

iv.) Vocational and Technical Education as a means of preparing for an occupational field must develop and maintain input standard. Students for example should not be placed in such programmes simply because they have failed in all other educational endeavour. No Vocational and technical Education activity will be effective, unless the students, the Teachers, equipment and supplies, instructional materials and the financing meet certain standards. The objectives must be related to the programme of instruction. The standard should neither be too low or too high for efficient result.

v.) The content of Vocational and Technical Education must be related to the requirements of the labour market. Agheta (1982) pointed out that Vocational training in Nigeria is defective because it lacks practical orientation and that it is in some cases unrelated to the needs of the employers. This could be corrected by setting up an advisory council for Technical colleges, polytechnics, Colleges of Education and University in which employers will be represented.

vi.) The preparation of Vocational anti Technical of mani-

pulative skills should involve a thorough grounding in safety, workshop or laboratory safety instruction for the prospective teachers during training and should include the appropriate workshop laboratory dresses to wear, the regulating of workshop or laboratory routine and the proper use of machine tools and other equipment. The aim of such instruction is to produce teachers who will be able to develop safety consciousness and the appropriate skills needed on the job in their student.

vii.) It is also recommended that the staff who will teach prospective Vocational and Technical teachers should be required to obtain the highest qualifications possible in the field. In other words, as educators responsible for teaching, - manipulative skills, such as Vocational and Teaching Education programme should be highly qualified and possess enough skills and knack.

viii.) The government and school administrators should provide good learning environment. Facilities, machines and other physical resources should be purchased, housed and used judiciously. All Vocational and Technical Education teachers should be acquainted with the principles and practices of using these physical resources most efficiently and effectively.

Recommendations

In view of the problem highlighted in the paper the author hereby recommends that:

i.) In order to make all teachers complement each other's effort in our march towards technological progress, prospective teachers of general education subjects in institutions which offer Vocational and Technical Education should have as part of their preparation programme a course in foundation of Vocational and Technical Education. This is to enable all teachers have a foundation knowledge of Vocational and Technical Education.

ii.) The Federal, state and local Governments should compulsorily make vocational and technical education subject a foundation programme in all primary and post primary institutions across the country. This is to enable all individual the opportunity to understand and appreciate the importance of this laudable programme to the development of every individual and the nation.

iii.) The Federal Government through the various state ministry of education should as a pilot study convert one secondary school in each local government headquarter to a vocational and technical secondary school where all the wasting and rotten physical resources – machines tools, equipments and materials provide by the federal government between 1981-1983 in all schools within each of this local government be collected from all the secondary school in this local government where they are not been used and judiciously put to use in this pilot vocational and technical secondary school. The basic differences between this kind of programme and the skill acquisition centres set up within some states is that the

students from this Vocational and Technical colleges will have the opportunity to be Technically and Vocationally oriented under a formal school system and have the opportunity to further their education if they so wish.

Conclusion

The qualitative and quantitative training of teachers for technology development should be the primary concerns of the government and the educational systems a whole. This paper recognizes the indispensable role of vocational and technical education and the qualitative role of teachers of this programme in the development of a nation. It highlighted the reasons for training of Vocational and technical teacher in Nigeria and various training organs and also the issues in teacher preparation. It also identified some problems militating against the effective development of vocational and technical education in Nigeria. Workable remedies, which is hoped to rectify most of the prevalent problems in vocational and technical education, were also advanced. Finally, the paper made some recommendations which when strictly adhered to will help the Nigerian society in achieving the much desired technological break through which is the mainstay in all developed and developing countries.

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Article

The interface between customary law and local government legislation in Nigeria: A retrospect and prospect

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An evolutionary examination of democratic governance in Nigeria throws up a lot of gap which metaphorically are in need of surgical operations. Not only are the existing statute almost a near departure from what obtains in practice, politicians and technocrats carry on as if all the grey areas that have constituted a cog in the operation of a just, equitable, accountable and democratic system are immutable to change. While customary law is recognized as the organic living law of the people at the grassroots level, the local government legislature do not have anything to do with this important lifeblood of the society. It is the state government that is very distant from the people that exercise the oversight functions over customary laws. Even in areas where local government and their legislature are bequeathed with oversight functions, the state governments still wields the big stick. Where then is the autonomy which each unit of government is supposed to exercise under a democratic system of government? This paper concludes with the fact that the legislature at the local government level should be strengthened, so that their bye-laws would become enforceable. In the same light, it is being advocated that there should be a harmonization of customary law with other laws in the states, so that these laws would be seen to be working at the two different levels of government.

Key words: Customary law, legislation, local government, democracy, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

The 1999 Constitution of Nigeria recognizes the existence of three units of administration and governance at the federal, state and local government levels. The federal constitution specifically recognizes "The system of local government by democratically elected local government council." This Constitution (1999) provides for the existence of a legislative council that operates through the use of bye-laws.

In the present democratic dispensation under which the federal system of government is operated in Nigeria, the existence of local government is the exclusive preserve of state governments. And just as there is the federal judicial service commission with an oversight functions over the chief justice of Nigeria and the Supreme Court, the court of appeal, the high courts and the attorney general of the federation, the state governments also exercises oversight functions over the state courts and customary courts. Interestingly, the customary courts exist in every local government but their control depends on powers of the state governments. The local government

legislature have very little or no impact on the operations of the customary courts. Even though, it is accepted that customary laws derive from the customs, traditions mores, religions and the organic institutions of the people, local government legislature do not have the powers to legislate sanctions, actions, and procedures into the conducts of customary laws.

This is where this paper draws its interest. It charts a course for a synergy where the legislative councils of local governments would find an alliance with the workings of the customary courts since the operative foundations and directions of customary laws springs from the customs and traditions of the people at the local government level.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Two terms need proper clarification here to place the usage of terms in this paper in their proper perspective. These terms are customary law and local government legislature.

Customary law

Hon Justice Narebor (1993) gave a definition of customary law to be;

“A rule of conduct which is customarily recognized adhered to and applied by the inhabitants of a particular community in their relationship with one another within or outside the particular community and which has obtained the force of law, in that non-compliance with the rule or custom in question attracts adjudication and possible sanction.”

The definition above bears close resemblance to that given by Allen (1939), while analyzing the Gold Coast colony native administration ordinance 1927. Said he;

“Native customary law means a rule or a body of rules regulating rights and imposing correlative duties, being a rule or a body of rules which obtains and is fortified by established native usage and which is appropriate and applicable to any particular cause, action, suit, matter, disputes and includes also any native customary law recorded as such...”

When the two definitions given above are seriously considered, it will be detected that customary law consists of customs accepted by people in a community as binding among themselves. Customary law according to Mukoro (2004), while speaking about the Evidence Act of Nigeria section 2, sub-section 1 of 1990 said that customary law is the rule in a particular area that has attained the force of law due to prolong usage. Both Elias (1977) and Badaiki (1997), see customary law as a body of customs, accepted by members of a community as binding upon them. Badaiki's position summarizes the position adopted by this paper. Said he;

“Customary law is rooted in the history, tradition and culture of the people that sometimes it is interchangeably used with custom”.

Local government legislature

This is the official rule making body of a political system. According to Robertson (2002), there is no theoretical reason why the legislative functions should be carried out by such a body, unless a prior commitment has been made to democracy as the source of legitimate rule making. In addition, even in non democratic societies, the position of the legislature still exists as the official law making organ of a government, and in this respect; the local government.

The legislature has become a standing body recognized by society and by the laws of the land as sharing with the executive or ruler the functions of policy and rule

making for the good of the citizenry. People in the legislature acts as representatives of the people. They get into the chamber of law and policy making through elections, appointments and or through inheritance.

In Nigeria, the local government legislature has existed in different guises. First, as an indigenous governance council under a paramount ruler before colonialism, which then metamorphosed into native authority system which became known as indirect rule? Even after independence in 1960, the traditional councils were still very much prominent (Dudley: 1981). In 1976, the National Reform carried out for the local government recognized the work carried out by the legislature as being under a traditional council. The pattern only slightly changed as from 1992 when election was now conducted into the local government councils just like the States and National Assemblies.

THE OPERATION OF CUSTOMARY LAW AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEGISLATURE IN NIGERIA

Customary law

Customary law is rooted in the history, tradition and culture of the people. It is the organic or living law of the indigenous people of Nigeria, regulating their lives and transactions. It is organic in that it is not static; it is regulatory in that it controls the lives and transactions of the community subject to it. It is said that custom is the mirror of the culture of the people.

It is the evidence Act of the Laws of the federation of 1990 that has given the greatest teeth to the existence of customary law in Nigeria. Section 2(1) of the Evidence Act considers customary law as “a rule which, in a particular district has from long usage obtained the force of law”.

Furthermore, customary law should be in existence at a relevant point in time and enjoy assent of a particular community whose members accept it as law. To qualify as customary law, it must according to Park (1963) be “existing native law and custom and not that of bygone days”. The observance must be a binding obligation capable of being enforced.

Another way through which customary law operates in Nigeria is that it is elastic because it changes from society to society and from custom to custom. In this light, it is usually unwritten. This point was corroborated by Allot (1970) when he said:

“First, the law is unwritten. There is no written memory of the edicts and judges; they exist only in the mind of those who administer and those who are subject to the customary law. There is no pondering over legal principles, no juristic analysis, no criticism or refurbishing of old precedents all of which depend on written texts which the justice may scrutinize at leisure.”

The cosmopolitan nature that many traditional societies are now assuming in Nigeria, has made many customary laws to be put in writing. In many of the court rooms, judgments are now recorded. But that does not mean that the sources of these laws are not the recollection of elders and others whose traditional roles enables them to have special knowledge of the customs and traditions of the people. The purpose for the recording now serves as a reference point particularly in environments where cultures have blended into one another.

The way things are presently, customary laws can be ascertained before the courts in two ways: by proof and by judicial notice. Section 14(1) of the Evidence Act (1990) provides that;

“A custom may be adopted as part of the law governing a particular set of circumstances if it can be noticed judicially or can be proved to exist by evidence. The burden of proving a custom shall die upon the person alleging its existence.”

A breakdown of this connotes that if a custom is not judicially noticed, the party asserting that it exists has to prove its existence by evidence. The evidence act does not automatically apply to all judicial proceedings in or before courts and this raises the issue whether proof of customary law in customary courts is required by law. Judicial notice is the second method of ascertaining customary law. According to the evidence act of 1990;

“A custom may be judicially noticed by the court if it has been acted upon by a court of superior or co-ordinate jurisdiction in the same area to an extent which justifies the court asked to apply it in assuming that the persons or the class of persons concerned in that area look upon the same as binding in relation to circumstances similar to those under consideration.”

The expression the “same area” suggests that judicial notice cannot be taken in one culture group and apply it to another culture group. In a nutshell, it can be argued based on the present circumstances that customary law satisfies the attributes of law. This is because, it is a norm of obligations made by a legal authority, for which there is enforcement by organized agencies for the purpose of serving certain functions as social control, disputes settlement and so on (Badaiki: 1997).

The validity of application of Customary Law: All rules of customary law are subject to certain general tests of validity before they can be enforced. There are three such tests. The first is that the customary law is not repugnant to natural justice, equity and good conscience. The second is that it is not incompatible either directly or by implication with any law for the time being in force. The third is that it must not be contrary to public policy.

The Repugnancy Test: The repugnancy test of the evidence Act of the laws of Nigeria states that a court should not enforce as law a custom which is repugnant to natural justice, equity and good conscience. Therefore, no customary, law should obstruct the rules of natural justice like the right to be heard, liberty and freedom of association.

Incompatibility with Local Enactments: Although it has been established that both statutory enactments and customary laws are sources of law in Nigeria, the “incompatibility test” has undoubtedly ranked local enactments above customary law. This means that customary law which is not compatible with any existing enactment ought not to be enforced by the courts. The argument is that existing customary laws must not be incompatible with any written law (Obilade, 1991).

Public Policy Test: This means that a custom shall not be enforced if it is contrary to public policy. The idea of public policy here implies the principle of judicial legislation or interpretation founded on the current needs of the community. Anything that offends morality is contrary to public policy. That is moral values and ideas which are prevalent in a society as a way of preserving its interest. Where a transaction is contrary to the policy of the laws or public policy, the law refuses to enforce or recognize it on the ground that it has a mischievous tendency so as to be injurious to the interests of the state or the community. This law is predicated on the interest, be it welfare, safety or advancement of the society at large.

Making and application of Customary Laws: Although various communities exist within the boundaries of particular local governments, such local councils do not have authority to make laws that are customary in nature for the communities. The local governments only make bye-laws for the smooth operation of the local councils. These bye-laws are not binding on the customary courts.

In contrast, the various state governments within which local governments exist, makes laws for the courts that operates at the local government level. The question to ask therefore is why can not the local government legislature make laws for the customary courts that exists within their territory?, since the state legislatures are doing same for laws that has to be applied within the jurisdiction of the state?

Another major hindrance to the application of customary laws at the local government level is that customary law mostly deals with matters of land, debts, torts, family, succession and matrimonial matters. The problem of conflict between different systems of customary law now features because of the disappearance of rigid geographical divisions between tribes and the corresponding growth of mobility among the population. Consequently, it is now established that many communities have sizeable number of non indigenes living within them. This is where the functions of the local government legislature should

cover cases of land disputes, family matters, debts, torts and matrimonial matters for the customary courts to adjudicate on.

Another point that has to be made here concerns the codification of laws in Nigeria. A critical appraisal of the customary law reveals that it is riddled with internal conflicts. This, to a very large extent compounds the problems of judges whose unenviable duty it is to reconcile the seemingly irreconcilable conflicts. Added to this is the flexibility and uncertainty which characterize customary law. The repugnancy doctrine and proof of customary law in courts have not helped matters either. The vexed question therefore is; should Nigeria's customary law remain in this state of uncertainty? Or should it be codified. This issue of codification will give credence to the works of the local government legislature. The legislature is on ground and closest to the people at the community level. They are therefore in the best position to take over customary law matters for the courts.

Merits and Demerits of Customary Laws in Nigeria

- (a) Customary laws are flexible and easy to amend to suit the situation at hand.
- (b) People's cultures and traditions are given recognition
- (c) It gives assurance to the unlettered and illiterate as he sees his culture being used to adjudicate cases.
- (d) Customary laws keep our traditional rulers and knowledgeable people in cultural matters very busy. This gives them recognition and role to play in the society.

Demerits

- (a) Customary laws are not written and cannot be defended in competent law courts.
- (b) Some customary laws are barbaric in nature which may not be fair when implemented in new environments or urban centre.
- (c) They are mostly not democratic since they originate from mainly autocratic tendencies.
- (d) Always too sectional in outlook and therefore can not convey universal applicability.

The operation of the local government legislature

In the Nigeria federal system of government, the local government legislature is provided for in the constitution. Members of the legislature re called councilors and they are democratically elected for specific period of terms. As elected representatives of the people, they are empowered to make bye-laws. Bye-laws which also mean local government laws are that body of law or enactment made by the local government to govern the conduct of the people living within the local government area. The 1999 Constitution of the federal Republic of Nigeria together with other statute books like the 1976 local government reform and the Handbook on Local Government

Administration, prescribes very specific areas within which local governments can make bye-laws. Local governments in Nigeria can only make bye-laws over the control of motor parks, marriages, divorce and custody of children, liquor license, control of drumming, bicycle lic-ense, markets, slaughter slabs, control of livestock's, registration of marriages, prevention of road obstruction etc.

What has to be pointed out with the Nigeria by-law system is that it is sterile, because they lack enforcing agencies or enforcement authorities. For laws to be effective, they must have the powers of arrest, detention, prosecution etc. To say the least, these requirements are lacking in Nigeria local government bye-laws. The absence of this enforceable instrument of authority has really whittled down the powers of the local government legislature. To say the least, local government does not and can not control the customary laws and courts that exist within their territory of operation. Bye-laws made by the council only become enforceable only through the voluntary volition of citizens and through the support given by state enforcement agencies like the police.

In practice, whatever the local government legislature does must not run contrary to state government legislation and where it conflicts with the state-laws that of the state take precedence.

Functions of the Legislature in Local Government

- (a) Making of bye-laws for the good and governance of the local government.
- (b) Deliberating on matters of state and national importance as it affects the local government.
- (c) Overseeing the activities of the executive arm of government.
- (d) Confirming the appointment of political appointees made by the executive.
- (e) Approving funds for the activities of government, that is, budgets.
- (f) Exercising investigative powers over the activities of government, that is, acting as the watchdog over citizens rights.

Merits and Demerits of Bye-Laws in Nigeria

- (a) Bye-laws take care of every citizen in that local government irrespective of the background and nationality.
- (b) Bye-laws are documented and could be referred to when the need arises.
- (c) They are not subject to easy change or amendment for the sake of it.
- (d) Bye-laws are superior to customary laws because of government backing and the procedural nature of its making.
- (d) It is law made by democratically elected representatives that takes the interests of the generality of the people into consideration.
- (e) Bye-laws are rigid and written which makes them very difficult for easy manipulation.

(g) It exhibits a better foundation that is based on international standards rather than for its being titled toward ethnic affinity and culture.

Demerits

- (a) Bye-laws are not easily amended because of the procedure involved.
- (b) The process for making bye-laws is cumbersome and time consuming.
- (c) It has little or no respect for the maker(s).
- (d) The judiciary has to come in when the need for interpretation arises.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CUSTOMARY LAW AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT BYE-LAWS

Some prominent scholars in the fields of local government law and customary law in Nigeria have tried to build a relationship between the two institutions at the local government level. The positions of Yakubu (1999) and that of Eregba and Agbro (2005), align with each other. They are summarized below:

- (a) Local government laws (Bye-laws) are written while the customary laws are not codified. Their mode of enforcement is also different.
- (b) Customary laws vary from one community to the other, depending on the prevailing tradition and customs.
- (c) While customary laws are very flexible, those of bye-laws are rigid and therefore can not easily be changed.
- (d) While bye-laws are static and constant, customary laws are dynamic and fluid.
- (e) Customary laws are somewhat inferior to bye-laws since they can be set aside by courts of higher jurisdiction.
- (f) While bye-laws originate from the people and it is civil in nature, customary laws are based on customs and tradition and therefore may not have universal acceptability like bye-laws.
- (g) While customary laws are subject to change over time due to many variables, local government laws are difficult to change because of the procedures involved.
- (h) While bye-laws are documented, customary laws are not documented and they are linked to autocratic tendencies.
- (i) Customary laws can rise and fall with its political leaders or originators. While bye-laws do not rise and fall with political leadership. Bye-laws are made through procedures and by constituted authority.
- (j) The study of modern law will not be complete without a discussion of customary law. In the same vane, most of the traditional rulers who are custodians of the people's history had a lot of in-road into the affairs of local government authorities during the periods of pre and during colonialism.

THE PROSPECT AND WAY FORWARD FOR CUSTOMARY LAW AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEGISLATURE

In the drive to reconstruct a workable future for customary law and local government legislature in Nigeria, it is here asserted that most of the customary laws in Nigeria have become outdated, obnoxious and irrelevant, especially considering the plural nature of the Nigeria society (Nwabueze, 1982). To give customary law a facelift, the challenges of asking for autonomy for the local governments has to be faced (Oyovbaire, 1982). As a dynamic modern society, the conflict between customary laws and the co-existence of customary law with other laws has to be settled. This is where the powers of the legislature at the local government level have to be strengthened. It is here advocated that the legislature at the local government should be able to legislate on laws that would be respected and enforced by the state in the various communities in a local government within a state. Even the powers of enforcement of its laws should be given the local government. And if possible a working relationship should be established between the organs of the state and that of the local government so that the new and desired powers for local government legislature would be seen to be working.

A new wave should be established for the codification, integration and unification of customary laws in Nigeria (Elias, 1969; Azinge, 1991). This should be done by bringing the legislature at the local governments to work with the legislature at the state level in conjunction with the state judiciary so as to be able to harmonize their laws and for the laws to be seen to be working at the two different levels of government. The cases of countries like Tanzania, Ghana, Ethiopia, Ivory Coast and Malagasy (Badaiki, 1997), are easily cited as examples in Africa. Maybe, the method on how they went about it should be studied and adopted in the Nigerian state.

At the local government level, there is the clear absence of legal department which is a major problem in local government legislation. Most councilors are not learned and hence are not properly grounded in the act of law making. To bring a human face into the local government law, a legal department should be created to oversee this area, just as it is at the state level with the Ministry of Justice. Also, it is here advocated that proper training should be given to councilors or should have been acquired before the job of legislation is embarked upon. Government should design very potent seminar/workshop or training programmes for councilors and make sure they attend. Comprehensive provisions of customary law, legislation and lawyers trained in the annals of the law like statutory interpretation is urgently required for running the local governments in Nigeria.

The enforcement of bye-laws has often proven to be problematic as not only do they lack the powers of enforcement, where they exist, they are carried out haphazardly. Another problem is that people often considers

the closeness that they share at the Local Government level which often times affects the law itself and its enforcement. Understanding the act of governance will remove all those inordinate considerations. In this respect, only the socio-economic, legal and development considerations will underlie the making and enforcement of legislation at the local government level.

Conclusion

The relationship that should exist between customary law and local government legislature is very fundamental and critical for the survival of Nigeria's democracy. For one, it decentralizes governance and creates room for the observance of the rule of law, thus giving rise to an egalitarian society. The legislature plays a central role in the survival of the presidential system of government. This is because, not only is it an arm of government, it lays the foundation and builds the structure which leads to the achievement of the good life for the executive and the judicial arm of government. Both customary law and local government bye-laws are products of the people's customs, beliefs, principles and tradition. They logically therefore have to work together as one entity to ensure that there is unity of purpose in the existence of local government. But the present state of customary law shows that it is not yet fully developed. It is necessary according to Badaiki (1997), to undertake a "scientific and systematic study of the customary laws of the various culture groups in the country". Such a gigantic task should involve not only the local, state and federal government through the various Ministries of Justice and Judicial Departments, but also the Universities and Nigerian Law School using a consortium of experts in law, history, sociology, anthropology, religion and customs. The culture groups as well as their community elders must be involved and carried along in the project.

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Article

Waste management towards sustainable development in Nigeria: A case study of Lagos state

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This paper discusses a key dimension of Wastenomics – that of addressing the sustainable waste management practices and education.

Key words: Waste, development, Lagos state.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reviews the waste management practises and the issue of sustainable development in Nigeria. It was discovered that mainly, private sector participation, highway managers, local government and Lagos State Waste Management Authority are responsible for the collection and disposal of all types of waste generated in Lagos State. While in term of solid waste, only six (including existing and new) dumpsites (erroneously refer to as landfills) exist in Lagos State, while all the closed dumpsites are still being used illegally among several other illegal dumpsites that adorn the landscape.

It was also discovered that most of the industries if not all in Isolo Industrial Environment of Lagos State, for example has no pollution abatement programme for their effluent, during the course of study, it was also discovered that Lagos Lagoon alone is estimated to absorb 10,000 M³ of industrial effluent daily.

It was also found that, waste disposal habit of the people, corruption, work attitude, inadequate plants and equipment among others are militating against effective waste management to attain sustainable development in Nigeria as a whole. Data generated by the study shows that the method adopted by these agencies was found to be ineffective and fall short of international standards in waste management practises and sustainable development.

The finding of this review will be useful to researchers, government stakeholders and professionals working in the area of waste to energy, recycling, material recovery and climate change.

WASTE MANAGEMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The end of the 1980s saw a radical reappraisal of our concerns over resource availability and use, the environmental consequences of resource exploitation and the relationship between the environment, poverty and economic change.

This re-appraisal has given rise to a new approach to environment and development issues - an approach which seeks to reconcile human needs and the capacity of the environment to cope with the consequences of economic system. This approach is called sustainable development.

Sustainable development is an implied development without destruction, it is the judicious use of non-renewable resources for the present and future generations, which are non-renewable resources, must be used at a judicious rate, neither too fast nor too slow and to ensure that the natural wealth that they represent is converted into long-term wealth as they are used.

In Nigeria we succinctly put it as sustainable development without jeopardizing future development, meaning that in our efforts to explore and exploit the natural resources to serve us, there is an obvious paradox evident in the need to ensure economic development, while protecting the environment.

It is important to note that there must be a balance between levels of development and the stock of natural resources, that is, development must be at a level that

can be sustained without prejudice to the natural environment or to future generations.

Therefore if there is to be sustainable development in waste management in Nigeria, the availability of land (for landfill), human resources, plant and equipment and other tools including capital must be readily available. We need to protect future for the next generation by cleaning up our environment of all types of waste, taking into consideration both physical and population development of the state.

As such waste management must mean the collection, keeping, treatment and disposal of wastes in such a way as to render it harmless to human and animal life, the ecology and the environment generally.

Waste

The federal environmental protection act (1988) does not define "waste", however Waste as the term implies is any solid, liquid or gaseous substances or materials which being a scrap or being super flows, refuse or reject, is disposed off or required to be disposed as unwanted, this is Environmental law, the term assumes it's ordinary literal meaning unlike in the real property Law, When "waste" is used as a term of art, having meaning completely different from its ordinary meaning.

One of the few statues in Nigeria, which attempts to define waste is the Lagos State Environmental Edicts 1985, there in Section 32, waste is define as follows:

Waste includes:

- i.) Waste of all description.
- ii.) Any substance, which constitutes scrap materials or an effluent or other unwanted surplus substances arising from the application of any process.

The United Kingdom's Environmental Protection Act 1990, re-enacting an earlier U.K statue, took this statutory definition a step further in section 75(2), it defines waste in these terms:

Waste includes:

- i.) Any substance which' constitutes a scrap material or an effluent or other unwanted surplus substance arising from the application of any process and
- ii.) Any substance or article, which requires to be disposed of as being broken, worn out, contaminated or otherwise spoiled.

One thing to notice is that none of the above definitions of waste give "value" to the elements considered. There is no suggestion that the items, which constitute a waste, do not have value or is intrinsically useless. The word "unwanted" which appears in the definition although it introduces its own problem, does not necessarily, import a value element for a substance or material that may be

unwanted notwithstanding that it has some value.

THE ISSUES OF WASTE COLLECTION AND DISPOSAL

Domestic waste management, collection and disposal have always been a universal problem. According to studies, it was noted that for years, the major problem in Israel (especially in Ramat Hovar) was the accumulation of tens of thousands of tons of organic wastes. Also in the U.S until the 1970's Federal Agencies had little authority to regulate hazardous and solid disposal often took in an unsafe manner at landfills or in inclined lagoons, with some wastes simply dumped on the ground or in surface waters.

Refuse and domestic waste will not constitute a strange sight to Lagosians whose streets are littered with tons of garbage from animal to human carcasses. At present, private sector waste disposal operators diligently visit homes and carry away refuse bags, load them into waiting trucks and cart them away for final disposal. "That is good" the residents say. They however worry that a lot of littering goes, on in the environment and the streets and avenues may have been ignored and not cleared.

Studies have revealed that household account for about half of the solid wastes generated, that is, by weight in the third world cities, which includes Lagos. It has also been noted that domestic waste disposal management has received considerable attention not only in Lagos State but Nigeria generally. Despite this laudable attention, collection, disposal processing, treatment, recycling and utilization have defied solution. For instance in Lagos State, the estimated daily generation is about 764 tons in all the 20 local government area including the 37 development areas.

The major problem caused by wastes to the environment is pollution characterized by various types of solid wastes which include paper, textile plastic, metals, glass, bone, wood, vegetal matter and food remnant of multiple consistency.

It has been pointed out that the generation of waste materials is a problem that is not peculiar to Lagos alone. This problem is prevalent the world over as noted earlier. This problem is not peculiar to the third world alone but cuts across the industrialized countries of the world where the pollutant effect of domestic and industrial wastes have caused considerable concern to environmental scientists. Our problems emanate from solid waste essentially. There are wastes from discarded materials generated from domestic and community activities or from industrial, commercial and agricultural operations.

Major classes of solid wastes

Municipal solid wastes generally can be classified in terms of three major sources of generators: residential, commercial, and industrial. Sometimes, institutional sources are separated from commercial sources and, thus a fourth source is referred to as institutional. In the traditional scheme of classification, residential (domestic) solid waste consists of household garbage and rubbish, or refuse. The

The garbage fraction is mostly in the form of wastes derived from the preparation and consumption of food (e.g., meat and vegetable scraps). An alternate term commonly used to describe the garbage fraction is "putrescibles." In the traditional scheme, all wastes not classified as "garbage" are classified as "rubbish." The major constituents of rubbish include glass, metal and plastic wastes, yard and garden debris, wastepaper and paper waste;

It is against this backdrop that this chapter intends to review the impediments to effective and efficient waste management for sustainable development in Lagos State.

The major effects of waste management on the quality of life

Environmental effects: The major environmental effects include air pollution, which includes odour, smoke, noise, dust, etc. Waste pollution – pollution from disposal site via flooding because of blocked drains and land degradation.

Health effects: This includes: flies which carry germs on their bodies and legs and also excrete them; mosquitoes breed in stagnant water in blocked drains in favourable location in cans, tyres etc. that collects rain water; Rats: rat's spreads typhus, salmonella, leptospirosis and other diseases they cause injuries by biting and spoil millions of tons of food. The refuse workers also faces some hazards which includes: parasite infection and infected cuts resulting from skin contact with refuse, other includes hazards on disposal sites; are injuries from glass, razor blades, syringes, tissue damage or infection through respiration, ingestion or skin contact.

PERCEIVED CAUSES OF THE INTRACTABLE WASTE PROBLEM

There are many perceived causes of the intractable waste problem in Lagos State among which are:

- i.) Waste disposal habit of the people.
- ii.) Attitude to work.
- iii.) Lack of adequate equipment, plant and tools necessary for waste disposal and collection.
- iv.) Corruption.
- v.) Overlap of function of the state enforcement and waste management agency.
- vi.) Population effect.

Waste disposal habit of the people

Ignorance coupled with poverty may be adduced to the habit of most people in Lagos State especially in the densely populated areas of the state. It beats one hollow to see a man defecating in broad daylight on the side of the Highway or a woman with her wrapper pulled up doing her thing on the sidewalk or gutter in full glare of the

public or where a man or woman parks his or her car and throw waste on the street, then one begins to wonder the reasons for these dirty habits of our people.

Nigerians are permanently accustomed to dirt. Evidence of this can be seen everyday by way of indiscriminate discharge of garbage into drains and at times on the highways

In a survey carried out by Lagos Waste Management Authority (LAWMA), which is rested with the responsibility of providing facilities for refuse collection, in all the streets within the state does not have adequate refuse collection bins in most of the streets in Lagos State. Hence the indiscriminate dumps of waste on the streets. Also, the frequency of carting away the refuse was not regular where the public refuse bins are found.

In another survey carried out, it was succinctly put that the volume of municipal waste piled up (for disposal) will be influenced by nearness to disposal sites, accessibility transportation facilities street layout, composition of wastes methods and individual attitude. Our individual attitude to waste disposal in Lagos state leaves more to be desired.

A situation whereby a landfill that has been closed to the public is still being used as a dumpsite calls for questioning. Also where waste is placed on the road median, gutter side, inside gutter and roadside does not augur well for effective waste management.

Despite the facts that illegal communal waste dumps indiscriminately located in public places have been officially cancelled yet several illegal refuse collection points, were indiscriminately created by residents which pose health hazard and loss of environment aesthetics.

Attitude to work

In Nigeria employee productivity is low due to certain factors including sociological factor, which is felt in the manifested lack of a sense of belonging in an organization, and the tendency by employees to perceive a job as another's business.

This negative attribute to work has negatively impacted on the waste management efforts of the state government poor attitude to work, poor coordination and inadequate communication among workers and the institution saddled with solid waste management responsibilities due to bureaucratic impediment and administrative hitches have resulted in chaos, confusion and ineffectiveness in delivery of many urban public services.

Inadequate vehicles, plant and equipment and tools necessary for waste management

Waste disposed or deposited at designated points of collection has to be transported either to the transfer loading station where sorting is done or to the incinerator facility or sanitary landfill or the final disposal point. It was further noted that for effective and efficient collection system, there must be enough and well maintained equipment such as trucks tippers, pay loaders, bulldozers,

road sweepers, compactors and others. In Lagos State municipal solid waste transportation, collection and disposal has been epileptic, since the state realized its responsibility to the environment.

A lot of problems such as inadequate number of vehicles, lack of spare parts, dearth of fund, poor technical know-how, poor maintenance practices, insufficient funding and lack of motivation has bedevilled the agency responsible for the disposal and collection of waste. The total numbers of vehicles required in the 20 local government area of Lagos state was 757, while the Lagos State Waste Management Authority, just received 100 brands new waste compactors.

The heaps and stretch of refuse which adorn our roads pollute the environment and disfigure the landscape are nothing but the result of inefficient waste collection and disposal management method.

Corruption

Corruption is a canker worm that has eaten deep into every fabric of the Nigerian society. This we may not deny except to our collective demise and peril. The collapse in most of Lagos State Waste Management Authority infrastructure (in the past) in the state may allegedly be traced to this menace of corruption.

It has also been reported in some instances that market women have had to bribe the Lagos State Waste management agency operatives (PSP) before waste could be removed from market place. Also truck pushers and scavengers have been known to bribe officials before they can be allowed to dispose their waste at designated points, this has led to illegal dumpsites springing up at different points of the state creating bottleneck to the already chaotic situation of waste management

Overlap of function of the enforcement agencies

Achieving sustainable development is inextricably linked to the promulgation and establishment and enforcement, regulations, legislation and control criteria on environmental management and pollution control, but an overlap in the agencies responsible for effective enforcement of the various laws may create problems for effective waste management.

A situation where you have Lagos State Waste Management Authority that is saddled with the responsibilities of waste collection and disposal grappling with local government authorities, Lagos State Environmental Protection Agency, the Police and other enforcement agencies in the state may not argue well for effective enforcement and sustainable waste management.

For us to have effective waste management and sustainable development in terms of waste collection and disposal effort in Lagos State, the enforcement mechanism should preferably be left with only one organisation where many agencies must be involved, their role must

be clear-cut and well spelt out.

The enforcement of environmental laws in Nigeria generally has been problematic. The management and regulation of the environmental Laws has been beset by a host of problems, and has met with very limited success. These problems that hinder the enforcement of sanction on violators of the environment are political, social and economic.

It is therefore clear that any effort towards a sustainable legal framework for successful enforcement, avoidance of overlap of environmental laws must come to terms with these issues, as a positive step towards the protection of the environment through effective waste management.

Population effect on waste management

Population growth has always affected waste generation, collection and invariably disposal due to population growth and higher standards of living.

The population of Lagos state rose from 1,443,569 in 1963 to 5,685,981 in 1991 and to 6,947,191 in December 1996. It is probable that the present population of Lagos state has reached the 21 million mark. This has impacted negatively on both the environment and waste generation in the State.

Lagos State, which is the most densely populated state in Nigeria due to its commercial activities, the quality of waste generated in the state is in proportion to population size- as population increases so also waste generated also increases.

With many other cities in the urban developing world, cities in Nigeria (especially Lagos) are faced with the twin problems of population increases and rapid expansion. These phenomena have no doubt brought increasing strain on urban infrastructural facilities. One area in which this strains has become obvious is in waste management where the existing system appears to be incapable of coping with the mountain load of waste generated and heaped on the surface.

In conclusion, population growth goes hand in hand with increased pollution and environmental decay.

WAY FORWARD FOR WASTE MANAGEMENT IN LAGOS STATE TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Some of the major problems confronting and militating against an effective management and sustainable development of waste collection and disposal in Lagos state have been identified in this paper to include among others:

- i.) Population growth.
- ii.) Waste disposal habit of the people.
- iii.) Attitude to work (of those rested with the responsibility of collecting and disposing the waste).

- iv.) Lack of adequate equipment and plant and other tools necessary.
- v.) Corruption.
- vi.) Overlap of function enforcement agents.

The entire above highlighted problem cannot allow for effective management and sustainable development. Therefore it is against the background that there is an urgent need to address the effective waste management system to be adopted for a sustainable development.

MITIGATING MEASURES

Expanding recycling programmes can help reduce solid waste pollution but the key to solving severe solid waste problems lies in reducing the amount of waste generated. It was noticed that only the landfill system of waste disposal is being generally adopted in Lagos State. Whereas in other places for example, there are several methods of waste disposal used to ameliorate and mitigate the issue of population effect on waste management. Such systems that can or may be adopted are:

- i.) Recycling
- ii.) Bio treatment
- iii.) Incinerations
- iv.) Neutralization
- v.) Secure sanitary landfill
- vi.) Composting

Also international cooperation should be sought to learn how other countries have effectively managed their waste collection; handling and disposal. The state government should seize the opportunity to apply for assistance in an effort to mitigate the looming disaster posed by population explosion in the state in terms of waste generation and disposal

Remediation through education is also necessary. People should be educated on the need to reduce the amount of waste generated. The Lagos government should fund LAWMA to provide adequate collection bins in most areas of the metropolis and hinterland to forestall the wrong habit of throwing waste anywhere and everywhere, creating illegal dumps and doting and adorning the major streets of the state with wastes.

A sustainable development strategy action plan using a consensus-building approach should be formulated between government and other stakeholders. These should include national government the private sector, academics, environmental planners and experts, and non-governmental organizations to produce, an action plan document that may last 20 years. This document shall be published and made available for public consumption and fully implemented by all concerned.

As earlier mentioned, the waste disposal habit of the people may change if government stopped paying lip service to the serious issue of waste management. The availability and nearness of disposal sites will greatly

enhance and improve the habit of dumping waste "anywhere and everywhere". Research and development into areas of better waste handling method may also go a long way to assist in elaborating and interjecting the situation.

Nigeria has very little or nothing to showcase for as her achievements in the area of proper waste management. Heaps of garbage is also commonplace along major roads, riverbanks, and ravines and in excavated areas, particularly places excavated to obtain sand for road construction.

In States where there is organized refuse collection, such as Lagos; the disposal of such wastes is usually an open dumpsites, located not far from living areas. Such dumpsites (called landfills) are not provided with environmental safeguards, and the leachates from them percolate freely into streams and the groundwater system

Industrial effluents

With the exception of a few places, Nigeria cannot pride herself over having a functional sewage system. Industrial effluents of all types (both toxic and non-toxic) are discharged freely; into, surface and groundwater sources. Waste is allowed to pile, up before it is ordered to be cleared with military dispatch and automatic alacrity. This leaves room for corruption and does not allow for effective waste management.

In developed countries, industries are compulsorily made to discharge all it effluents into only license on-land disposal sites, where such effluents are treated prior to re-use, recycling or discharge into streams or other approved places.

There are no such controls in Nigeria and where they exist they are not enforced and most industries discharge raw, untreated and highly toxic liquid effluents into open gutters, drains, streams, lakes, estuaries and lagoons. For example the effluent from the Aswani Textile Manufacturing Factory and other industries around the area of Isolo are of Lagos State are only discharged on the major road leading through the area.

This contributes to the continuous wearing of that section of the road year, round. Rendering the road sometime impassable especially on the path of the effluent despite this, market women and men troop to this place every Tuesday of the week to buy and sell not mindful of the great danger locking around.

To most Nigerians wastes is simply a nuisance, full stop. They hardly give serious thought to tile polluting effects of wastes or their deleterious effects on human health. Increase in urban population and 'blind', haphazard industrialization has contributed a great deal to the generation of wastes in Nigeria. In the municipal areas o f Lagos State, more solid wastes are produced than the generators can effectively cope with or manage. The situation of unmanageable wastes in the cities appears to worsen with perceived increase in the income of the

inhabitants. The slums and the shanty neighbourhoods, as expected, receive little or no waste disposal services.

URGENT SOLUTION FOR WASTE DISPOSAL SITES

We concentrate on two types of waste disposal sites: Landfills and Open dumps. A landfill is differentiated from an open dump in that the landfill is an engineered design, consisting of a variety of systems for controlling the impact of land disposal on human health and safety and on the environment. An Open dump is an uncontrolled system and has not been the subject of engineering design. This is the type of waste disposal been adopted in Lagos State in generally but commonly refers to as "landfill".

For the purposes, a waste disposal site is generally defined to consist of that portion of the site wherein wastes are buried, as well as any surrounding property within the boundary of the site, the surrounding property may serve as a buffer, support landfill-related operation and facilities (e.g., maintenance) or unrelated activities (e.g., recycling depots), or contain access routes and roadways.

REQUIREMENT FOR SETTING UP OF LANDFILL IN LAGOS STATE

Acceptable definitions of a modern landfill are based on the concept of isolating the landfilled wastes from the environment until the wastes are stabilized and rendered innocuous as much as possible through the biological, chemical, and physical process of nature. The main differences among definitions of a landfill involve the degree of isolation and the means of accomplishing it. Isolation includes prevention of water from entering the landfill, as well as isolation of discharges directly from the fill to the environment.

Three basic types of practices and requirements for a landfill:

- i.) Consolidation of wastes into the working face; compaction of waste to conserve land resources; design and operation of the fill to control settlement, to optimize the chemical and biological processes (e.g., for landfill gas recovering), or both;
- ii.) Covering the waste with cover material on daily basis to control the risk of hazards from exposed wastes.
- iii.) Control or prevention of adverse environmental impacts wastes disposed on land to soil, water, and air resources and of their subsequent impact on public health and safety.

A landfill must meet the above three key conditions regardless of stage of economic development of the country in which the landfill is located. However, meeting the three conditions may be technologically and economically difficult or impractical in Lagos State. Therefore, the

short-term, or immediate, goal should be to meet the conditions to the extent possible under existing circumstances. The long-term goal should be to eventually meet all three of the conditions. This approach is recommended since the benefits associated with a modern sanitary landfill are realized only to the extent that a land disposal facility fully meets the three basic conditions. The most important condition is the prevention of negative impacts on the public health and the environment.

In conclusion, knowledge of the quantities and characteristics of the wastes to be landfilled is fundamental to the proper design and operation of a landfill. Among other things, these parameters influence or control many aspects of the landfill system over its lifetime, including the annual rate of filling, the required volumetric capacity of the fill, production and characteristic of gas and leachates, and environmental impacts.

The role of scavengers: The role of scavengers is very important in the planning, implementation, and operation of land disposal sites in Lagos State. First, the occurrence of scavenging between the point of waste generation and the disposal location influences the quantities of waste that will be disposed, therefore this aspect of scavenging must be taken into account during the process of estimating waste quantities and characteristics in Lagos State.

Secondly, scavenging is a widespread occurrence at existing land disposal in Lagos State though this is opposed in most developed countries and is to be expected at new disposal sites unless policies and/or programs are implemented to prevent the practice.

Scavenger are normally part of the socio-economic structure, their displacement from a disposal site can have many direct and indirect consequences. While unsupervised and uncontrolled scavenging is detrimental to the health and safety of the scavenger, as well as personnel operating the facility, the exclusion of scavengers from disposal sites is not necessary if their activities are managed and controlled.

Scavengers help in the recovering of valuable resources that would otherwise be disposed as waste, the reduction of problematic materials entering a landfill and the subsequent adverse effect that they have upon landfill operation and performance, for instance whole tyres, toxic materials etc. and the reduction of the quantities of materials destined for land disposal in order to conserve resources, e.g., land, and water and air quality.

Reason why Lagos State adopts open dumps: In the case of developed nations, the degree of isolation considered necessary to protect the environment and human health and safety usually is much more than would be technically and financially practical in many developing countries including Lagos State. In the case of many developed countries, the high level of containment requires a complex and expensive engineered sys-

tem. Therefore the main reason why open dumps is adopted in Lagos State is due to the technical, financial, complex and expensive engineering system involved in setting up a sanitary landfill.

URGENT TIPS TO ATTAIN BEST PRACTICES

i.) In term of population, there is an urgent need for action plans and education in order to monitor and control waste expected in the state. There should also be a room for international co-operation towards achieving the action plans.

ii.) Expanding recycling programmes through the activities of scavengers among others (Waste-to-wealth).

iii.) Land fills management and control; Waste-to-energy programs can be generated through the land fills (Generation of Methane Gas).

iv.) There is need for purchase of updated equipment; there is an urgent need for well trained staff, vehicles, trucks, tipper, pay loaders, bulldozer and road sweeper, which must be backed up with well stocked maintenance store provided for spare parts for all equipment.

v.) There is a need for an organised refuse collection both from residential and industrial estates. There must be a disposal site in each street and avenue nearest to the sources of waste, which must be accessible by everyone and the collection should be daily and regularly.

vi.) The support of private sector and NGO's is also required most especially in the area of organising maintenance workshops and enlightened programme, which should include grassroots participation and input.

vii.) The Federal and State Government should properly fund the various agencies responsible for effective and safe waste management and make it the pivot of the agency in the various states to be responsible for collection and disposal of all types of wastes.

viii.) There is a need for at least one domestic waste incineration plants in each local government council constructed with a daily waste treatment capacity of at least 3000 tons, which can generate electricity through incineration so as to recover the energy out of the waste.

ix.) There is need for more effective and up to date domestic waste transfer stations.

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