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The Effect Analysis of Principal Leader Competencies towards Quality Tomorrow's Schools in the Twenty First Century.

(Principal leader Competency Study of Quality Educational Management Services)

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Abstract

This study/research focuses on how to describe The Effect Analysis Of Principal Leader Competencies Towards Quality Tomorrow's Schools In The Twenty First Century In Indonesia. The study used qualitative and quantitative methodologies to collect valid and reliable data to meet the objectives of the study. As specified by the ToRs quantitative data was collected through detailed and large-scale surveys of principals Leader Competencies. Qualitative data was collected through one-day field visits to schools and district education offices. During these visits more detailed information was collected to address the study objectives and key issues that emerged from the analysis of the quantitative surveys. Data was collected using Key Informant Interviews(IIK), Focus Group Discussions (FGD), Structured School Observation (SSO) and Document Review and Analysis. Data was checked for validity using Cronbach alpha and analysed using the SAS statistical package. Frequencies, means, standard deviations (where relevant) were calculated for all items. Ratings were disaggregated and analysed against a set of independent profile variables: The results of this Study/research are: “ there is positive influence principal leader Competencies Towards Quality Tomorrow's Schools, it means that getting better principal leadership Competencies will be better too give Effect to Quality Tomorrow's Schools In Indonesia.

Keywords:Principal Leadership, Competencies ,Quality Management ,Tomorrow's Schools.

1. Introduction

In an Era marked by Globalization and the Nitizen phenomenon of globalization in the 21st century, namely the occurrence process of changing relationships between Nations and between countries without being bound by the limits of political or ideological geonational geosocial. Whole world tend to become one and form interdependence without recognizing any clear boundary of nature the boundary. Therefore Strategic Plan of The Ministry of National Education, now the *Ministry of Education and Culture* (MoEC), gives priority to the development of the professional competencies of school and madrasah principals to ensure improved quality in the implementation of school education programs. Principal competencies were defined and articulated in the National Education Standards (NES) and Ministerial Decrees No 13/2007 about Standard of school principal

Islamic school principal.

International research findings indicate that the quality of educational leadership has an impact on the quality of educational outcomes. For this reason, during the current Strategic Plan period, the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) have placed significant emphasis on building the competency and capacity of principals and supervisors through the development and implementation of new approaches to recruitment, appraisal and Continuing Professional Development (CPD).

These priorities were consistent with Presidential Instruction No. 1 of 2010 (INPRES), which focused on the empowerment of MoEC and MoRA school/madrasah principals, through provision of professional development programs.

In the world of work, the competence needed to know what type of job is right for someone. If competence upon an employee had known then the agency has been able to help the personal development of employees through training or specific training. In addition, the competency of an employee is able to be a guide for organizations to determine the extent to which he is able to present them and provide optimal work for the institution.

Competencies of school leadership is very helpful of institutions to describe how the performance of one's principal. This is of course related to the knowledge, skills, and abilities a person working on a particular field of work. Competence represents an important dimension of the work for oneself principals. Well, of competencies that these institutions seem to be more aware of how a responsible, solve problems, and transfer the information to others / teacher associated with the implementation of the tasks instructed by his superiors.

Professional competence of the principal/Islamic school as listed in Ministerial Decrees No 13/2007 were grouped into five dimensions that two of them have more than one element, namely: Personality Dimensions: behave with integrity and act asa role model of professional leadership. Managerial dimension; program planning, implementation and evaluation; development and organizational effectiveness, human resource management and management information. Entrepreneurship dimension, Supervision Dimensions and Sosial Dimensions. In essence, competence are used to plan, assist, and develop a person's behavior and performance.

Not only that, through the leadership competencies of an employee work / school principal and subordinate agencies can know the strengths and weaknesses of employees (Anderson, Ones, Sinangil&Viswesvaran, 2005).

In addition, the excellence of a nation is not only measured and relies solely on its natural resources owned by the nation, but also seen on the availability and benefits of human resources (HR) quality, namely educators educated and able to face the challenges in line with changes in the changes that occur in all areas of human life, especially in the development of the life of the era of globalization. In connection with the education in the school has an important role and strategic and has a very decisive factor and prepare qualified human resources.

In order to improve the quality of education in the school Principal as Manager needs Improving competency in order goodness implementation tasks better.

Therefore, in order to create the school of tomorrow's school required professional competence held by the principal. In connection with the necessary basic studies regarding the level of competence of school / Islamic school principal in this case the study is intended as an information and guidance to prepare Sustainable Professional Development program (SPDP) future. This information has been gathered through the implementation of Basic Studies About Competence leadership school / Islamic school Principal to the creation of a superior school quality future of the 21st century and it is intended to anticipate the pace of growth and development of school and face the challenges of globalization.

2. Literature Review

When entering the world of work, we as a prospective employees are often expected to have certain competencies over the term of the work which we entered. It is becoming a reference for the company/institution to know the ability of our work as a prospective employee. Not only that, through the competence that we have more companies figure out what position are suitable and appropriate for us. Not into the raw reference that the competence of the most important things to have an employee, but as a potential employee of the institution we need to know approximately what kind of competence is generally desired institution

Spencer, McClelland & Spencer, 1994. Competence can be interpreted as individual characters that can be measured and determined to demonstrate the behavior and performance of a particular job in a person. Thus, competence is a guide for institutions to demonstrate appropriate work function for an employee. Competence relates to attitudes (what is said and done someone) that shows a person's good or bad performance. A lot of studies and research that discusses the competence in the world of work as a school principal particularly in educational institutions.

Competence: an ability to execute / perform the job / task based on skills and knowledge, supported work attitude demanded by the job. Competence demonstrated the skills / knowledge that are characterized by professionalism in a specific field as something that is important, as the seed of the field.

Competence is the performance of the underlying individual characteristics / behaviors in the workplace. Performance at work is affected by: Knowledge, abilities and attitudes; as well as the working style, personality, interests, fundamentals, values attitudes, beliefs and leadership style of the principal.

Spencer and Spencer, 1993: 9; to create tomorrow school / school superior-quality 21st century competencies required of school leadership is a cornerstone of the basic characteristics of a person and indicate how to act / behave / think, equating the situation, and support for a long period of time. Some types of characteristics of school leadership competencies that are expected as follows: (a) Motif: something that is consistently thought / wanted person who caused the action. Motif encourages, directs, and chooses behaviors towards actions / specific purpose. (b) Properties: physical characteristics and consistent responses to situations / information. Reaction speed and sharpness of eye a fighter pilot competency physical characteristics / ready for used (c) The concept of self: attitudes, values / person's self image. Confidence is the belief that they can be effective in almost every situation is part of the self-concept of a school principal. (d) Knowledge: information that belongs to someone in a specific field. Knowledge is a complex competence. Scores on tests of knowledge often fail to predict performance for failing to measure knowledge is and skills in ways that are actually used in the work. (e) Skills: ability to do physical tasks / specific mental. Mental competency/cognitive skills including analytical and conceptual thinking.

In an educational institution organization management of human resources (HR) based competency is needed to support the achievement of the desired objectives. Here are some of the stakeholders interested in the leadership competency-based human resource as follows:

School principals for managers necessary competencies; 1) Flexibility (flexibility): the desire and the ability of managers to change managerial structures and processes where necessary to carry out organizational change strategy. (2) Change implementation (implementation changes): the ability to communicate the need for organizational change leadership will change to subordinates, and change management skills. (3) Entrepreneurial innovation (innovation entrepreneurship): motivation pioneered and surpassed by generating new products ahead of its competitors, and in providing services and production processes more efficient. (4) Interpersonal understanding (to understand the relationship between humans): the ability to understand and value the input of people Another distinct. (5) Empowering (empower): managerial behavior, to share information, in participate to collect ideas subordinates, encourages the development of workers, delegate responsibility importantly, provide feedback, coaching, expressed positive expectations of subordinates, and appreciate.

Tomorrow, s school is not just a guarantee of quality control because only see the product, the results of a national study or national examination (UN), which examines the cognitive basic skills in mathematics and languages with mangabaikan aspects of the acquisition of learning other. Parameter excellence must also guarantee the quality that is looking at planning, process, until the learning outcomes based on quality standards. Even the future of the superior schools already fused and have a culture of excellence that perform continuous improvement is referred to as Total Quality Management in Education .

3. Purpose and Scope of the Research/ Study

The purpose of the **Research/** study was to:

1. Assess the level of competence of school principals based on the competencies in Ministerial Decrees No. 13/2007 and the distribution of their competencies against agreed variables

2. Develop a profile of the attributes of school principals to inform future Continuing Professional Development /CPD programs
3. Analyse the future Continuing Professional Development/CPD needs of school principals
4. Determine the extent to which Ministerial Decrees No. 13/2007 have been implemented by districts
5. Assess the impact of the 2010 Interim Presidential Staff Strengthening Program **Presidential Instruction** /INPRES on participating school principals.to develop Tomorrow.sschool inthe future..

4. Methodology and sampling

The method used in this research through quantitative and qualitative data collected from multiple sample of supervisors, principals, teacher, and head of the Department of Education and / or the Office of the District Ministry of Religious Affair (MORA) of 55 districts through a very detailed survey / detail .While the dataqualitative collected through a series of field visits that as many as 88 schools and 19 Department of Education / Office of the District MORA entire Indonesia.Data about the competence of the head of school given in a manner similar to that used for reporting on school leadership competencies in several provinces in Indonesia.

Data about the competence of school principals obtained from the superintendent, principals, teachers, and heads of district education offices for each of the six dimensions of competence obtained from the principal: (personality / character, Managerial, Supervisory, Entrepreneurship, and Social,) each competency indicators in each dimension. For each indicator, the principal, Supervisors, teachers and principals were asked to rate principal competency on a four point scale:

1. Not yet Capable (Belum Mampu)
2. Basic Level of Competence (Cukup Mampu)
3. Capable/Proficient (Mampu)
4. Very Capable/Very Proficient (Sangat Mampu)

Quantitative and qualitative data gathered through a number of populations and samples; supervisor, the head of school/madrasa, teachers, parents, and the head of Department of Education/Office of *Ministry of Religious Affair* (MORA)district in seven regions/cluster in Indonesia: Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan, Nusa Tenggara, Sulawesi, Maluku, and Papua

5. Finding and Result

Based on the analysis in the evaluation of the principal's competency assessment showed higher yields than their own competence assessment by the headmaster; and this difference was statistically significant for all the indicators of competence for Managerial Dimensions, Entrepreneurship, supervision and teaching and counseling. Competence school / Islamic school principals rated highest for Personality and Social Dimensions and lowest for Supervision dimension both for the principal or headmaster. A general overview about the competency

assessment by the head of school/madrasa by region. Unlike the assessment supervisor school/madrasah, in this case there is only a slight difference in the valuations across the region.

Self Rating Ccompetence by the head of school/islamic school in General slightly lower than it valuations given by Superintendent of schools/madrasah and teachers for all dimensions except for competence and social Personality Dimensions. This pattern is similar to the competency assessment for school / Islamic school supervisors.

The National Standards Board For Education (BSNP) National Standards contain five competencies for principals – Personality, Social, Managerial, Entrepreneurship and Supervision. In response to a request from MoEC, a sixth competency, Teaching and Counselling, was included in the survey, as principals are required to undertake some teaching and also should act as leaders of teaching and learning. One of the shortcomings of the present standards for principals is the relative minor focus placed on the instructional leadership role of principals. The inclusion of the sixth competency dimension partly addresses this problem. Indicators for the Teaching and Counselling dimension were derived from the National Standards Board For Education (BSNP) Teacher Standard.

a. Principal Competency

Principal self-ratings of competency were generally slightly lower than the ratings provided by supervisors and teachers for all competency dimensions except for Personality and Social. This pattern was similar to ratings for supervisor competency.

MoEC principal self-ratings of competency were higher than MoRA principal self-ratings and these differences were statistically significant for all competency indicators for Managerial, Entrepreneurship, Supervision and Teaching and Counselling dimensions. Principal competency was rated highest for Personality and Social dimensions and lowest for Supervision for MoRA and MoEC. Figure 31 provides an overview of principal self-ratings by region. There was little difference in ratings across regions.

Principal of school/ Islamic school were asked to identify what they think is the most important competencies for school / Islamic school principal. Despite all the competencies identified by the school / Islamic school principal, but the most frequently identified competences are Managerial and Personality / Character.

Managerial chosen because of the need for school / Islamic school principal to manage school / Islamic school principal effectively, the main functions of a head of school / Islamic school principal as it is considered by most of the school / Islamic school principal who chose this dimension. Those who choose Managerial commented on the impact exerted by the effective management practices towards the improvement of the school and "empowers staff to provide optimal performance."

Performance management process has allowed the school leadership experience and knowledge gained from the work of individuals can be used to modify the purpose of the organization / institution schooling in Indonesia.

A number of major issues emerging from the analysis of the principal's leadership competencies of school / Islamic school, each described as follows:

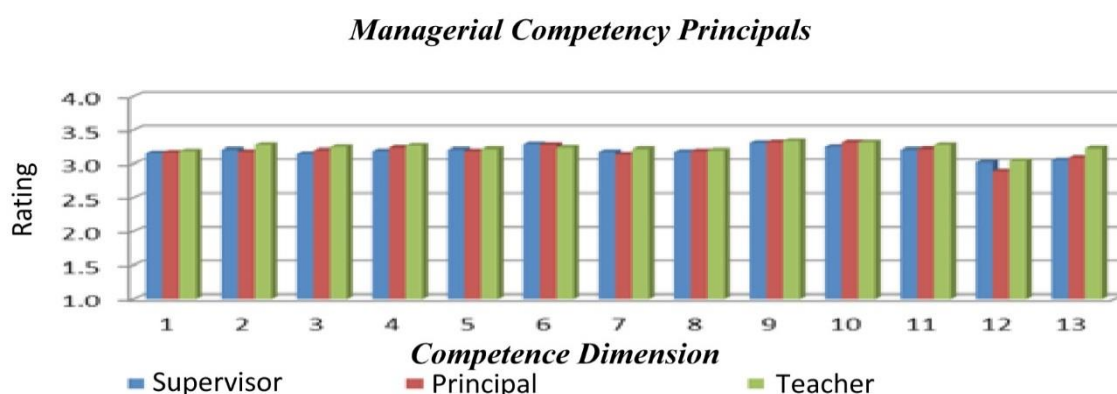
b. • Dimensions Managerial Competence

Managerial competency is the major dimension of the National Standards Board For Education /BSNP Standard for Principals with sixteen (16) individual competency indicators. For the purposes of the survey these were analysed and reduced to thirteen (13) by combining some individual indicators. This was necessary to reduce the complexity of the survey.

Principal self-ratings for each of the indicators for this dimension were slightly lower than teacher and supervisor ratings of principal competency for most indicators. Self-ratings by MoRA principals were lower than MoEC principals on all competency indicators. While the ratings for all but one indicator for MoEC principals fell in the *Capable/Proficient* category, for MoRA principals, five indicators fell into the *Basic* category.

The indicator that was rated lowest by both MoRA and MoEC principals was Indicator 12 – *The ability to manage ICT for school organisation and management*. ICT issues also emerged in other dimensions as an area for improvement for principals.

Figure -1 Ratings of Competency – Managerial Competency Principals- All Group



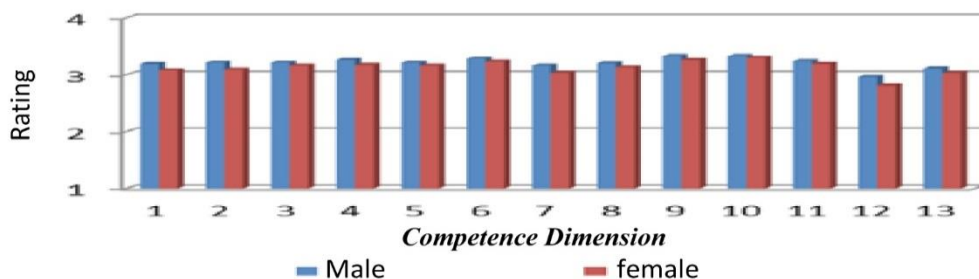
The indicators That had the lowest self rating competency and that feel into the basic range Were:

- Indicator 1 The ability to analyse school/madrasah needs and priorities
- Indicator 2 Ability to develop school/madrasah plans
- Indicator 7 Managing school/madrasah physical resources
- Indicator 12 The ability to manage ICT for school organisation and management
- Indicator 13 The ability to monitor and evaluate school programs and use the information for planning and school improvement

Principal self-ratings of competency were analysed by profile variables of sex, school type, location of school, school accreditation level, and public or private school were conducted and revealed important differences.

MoEC and MoRA female principals rated themselves lower on all competency indicators for this dimension. In fact the ratings of MoRA female principals fell into the *Basic* category for all but two indicators. In particular the rating for Indicator 7 – *The ability to manage the school’s infrastructure and physical recourses* – was much lower for women than men.

Figure-2: Managerial Self-Ratings by Sex – MoRA Managerial Competency Principals



This pattern of responses for male and female principals was repeated for Entrepreneurship and Supervision dimensions indicating that female principals need particular assistance in these dimensions.

Analysis by principal's highest educational qualification found that the higher the qualification, the higher the self-rating of competency. For MoRA principals the analysis showed that only principals with S2 degrees had self-ratings in the *Proficient* range for all competency indicators.

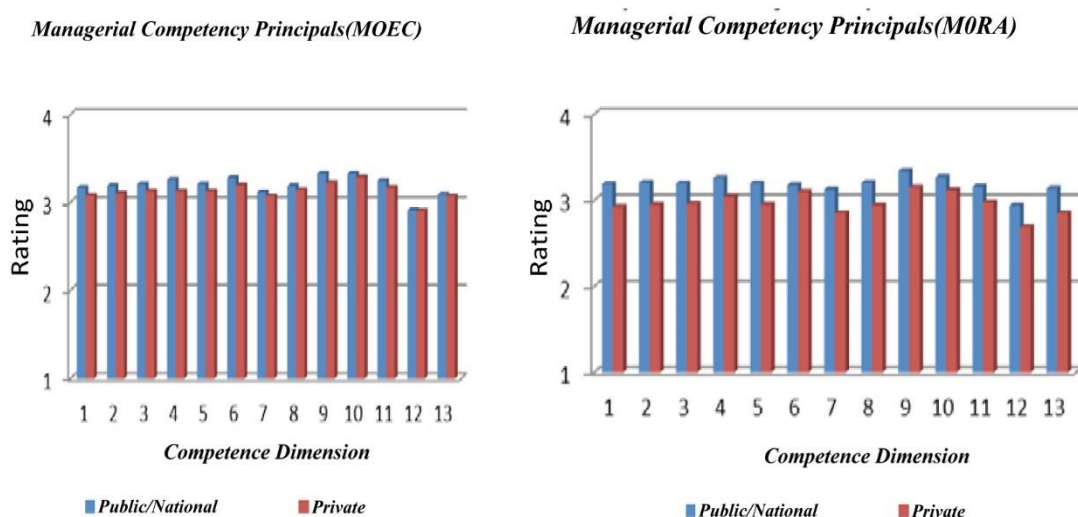
These differences in self-ratings were statistically significant and were repeated for Entrepreneurship, Supervision and Teaching and Counselling competency dimensions.

The findings were very similar to those for supervisors and reinforces the need to target future CPD to particular groups of principals and may also have implications for selection and licensing of principals..

School status, public or private, is an important variable that has a significant influence on the self-assessment, in particular for the headmaster. Principals self rating of the competence of the head of the private school/islamic school for Managerial dimension is lower than the assessment given by the head of school/madrassa. For the head of the madrassa assessment given much lower in all indicators of competence and get into the category quite capable for almost all indicators of competence. The pattern of results is repeated for all the indicators of Entrepreneurial dimension of competence, Supervision, and teaching and counseling.

This has special relevance of the results for Religion Ministry due to the large percentage of private islamic school in the sample and in the population. The findings are very important for the selection, performance management and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for school / private Islamic school principals. There is a strong correlation between the level of school accreditation and self-assessment of competence by the school / Islamic school principal as follows

Figure -3 Principal Self-Ratings Of Managerial By School Status



There was a strong correlation between level of school accreditation and principal self-ratings of competency.

Two other factors had an important effect on principal self-ratings of competency for Managerial – school accreditation level and location.

For both MoRA and MoEC there was a positive correlation between school accreditation level – A, B or C – and self-ratings of competency for Managerial. The higher the school accreditation level, the higher the self-ratings.

It is important to note that for MoRA, self-ratings for all Managerial competency indicators fell into the Basic range for principals of schools/madrasah accredited at Level C. For MoEC, all but two indicators fell into the Basic range for principals of Level C schools.

This was not unexpected and provides further information to support the validity of the survey and its findings. This pattern of self-ratings was repeated for Entrepreneurship, Supervision and Teaching and Counselling.

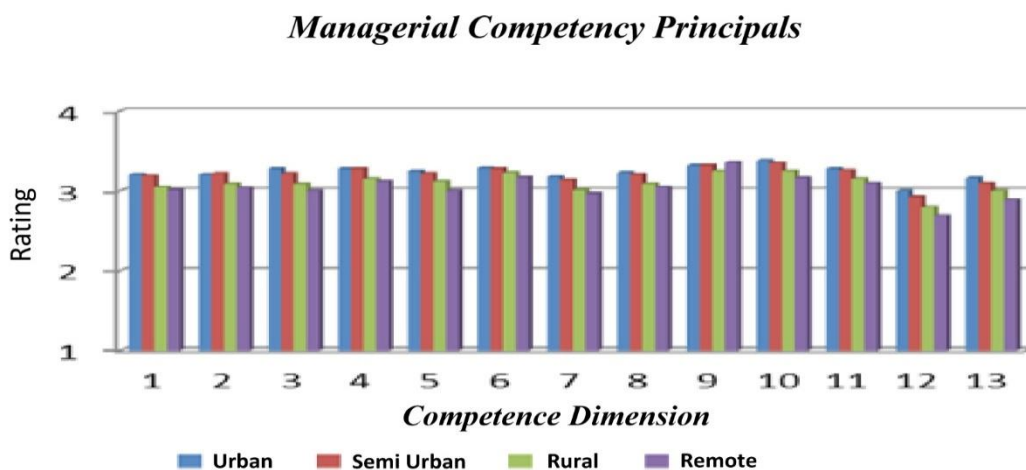
Location of the school – urban, semi-urban, rural and remote – also had an effect on self-ratings of MoEC and MoRA principals for the Managerial dimension.

While the self-ratings for principals of urban and semi-urban schools were similar, self-ratings of principals in rural and remote locations were significantly lower on most indicators. In particular, remote area and rural principals were less competent in:

- Managing ICT
- Managing physical resources
- Managing and planing the curriculum and school learning programs
- Monitoring andevaluating schoolsperformnce and using the results for improvement.

- The negative impact of location was greater for MoRA principals.

Figure -4. Principal Self-Ratings of Managerial by Location



This pattern of findings was repeated for Entrepreneurship and Supervision.

In addition to providing self-ratings of competency principals were asked to indicate whether they had prepared and maintained a number of key documents required by a number of other BSNP Standards. This information provided further evidence of managerial competency.

The findings, which are presented in another table, show that most principals maintained most key documents, except for longer-term school plans. This was a particular issue for MoRA principals where thirty one percent (31%) indicated they did not have longer-term plans. In addition, nine percent (9%) of MoEC principals and fifteen percent (15%) of MoRA principals did not have school financial management guidelines.

It is also of concern that a small percentage of schools/madrasah did not have other key documents, including a School Curriculum document (KTSP) or Annual Work Plan.

These findings, together with self-ratings of competency, indicate that, for particular groups of principals, there is a need for their further development and for improved performance management by supervisors to improve principal competency in the Managerial dimension.

c. Entrepreneurship Dimensions

The Entrepreneurship dimension comprised five competency indicators concerned with innovation, creativity, motivation and problem solving. They are presented below.

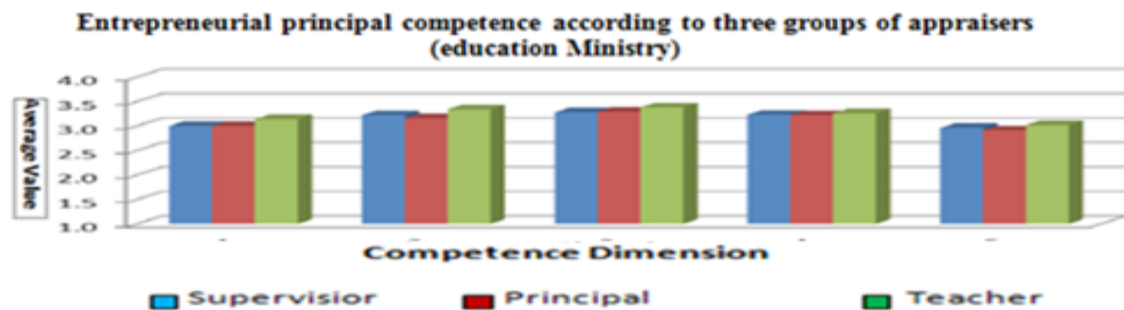
Entrepreneurship Indicators

1. Ability to create innovations for the development of the school/ Islamic School/madrasah
2. Ability to strive and work hard to create/build a successful school/ Islamic School/madrasah
3. Ability to motivate themselves to lead the school/madrasah in accordance with the prescribed duties and functions

4. Ability to find the best solution to school problems
5. Ability to motivate students to learn entrepreneurship and apply an entrepreneurial spirit in efforts to support students

For this dimension, principal self-ratings were either equivalent to or lower than competency ratings given by their teachers and supervisors of Their School/Islamic School.

Figure-5. Ratings of Competency for Entrepreneurship – All Groups



As with other dimensions, MoEC ratings of competency were higher than MoRA ratings for most indicators. However, self-ratings for both groups of principals were lower than their self-ratings for the Managerial dimension.

For principals MoEC, self-ratings for indicators 1 and 5 fell into the *Basic* range.

MoRA principals also rated indicators 1 & 5 in the *Basic* range together with indicators 2 and 4 although the latter two approached the *Proficient* range.

For both groups motivating students to learn entrepreneurial skills and developing innovations to improve the school appeared to cause concern for principals. The findings about self-ratings for these two indicators were reinforced by ratings provided by teachers and supervisors which also fell in the *Basic* range.

Private school/madrasah principals ratings of competency in this area were much lower than those of public school/madrasah principals. The impact of school status was particularly noticeable for MoRA madrasah principals with ratings falling into the lower part of the *Basic* range.

Figure - 6. *Principal Self-Rating for Entrepreneurship – MoRA*
Entrepreneurial Competence Principal



School accreditation status, highest educational qualification and location of the school all had an impact on self-ratings of competency for Entrepreneurship.

The other factor that affected self-ratings of competency for Entrepreneurship was type of school. For both MoEC and MoRA, but particularly for MoRA, vocational high school principal ratings were higher than for other groups. This may reflect the fact that vocational school/madrasah principals are required to build stronger links with the business community and to develop more innovative, employment oriented programs for their students and schools.

This finding was reflected in comments by vocational high school principals in the qualitative field studies. This is discussed in more detail in the next section of the report.

d. Supervision Dimensions

The Supervision dimension, which comprised three competency indicators, received the lowest levels of competency ratings across all indicators, particularly for MoRA principals.

In addition, for MoEC principals, this was the only dimension on which supervisor ratings of principal competency were lower than principal-self ratings.

Ratings on all indicators for both principals and supervisors fell into the *Basic* range for Ministry of education and culture (MoEC) and Ministry of Religious Affair (MoRA) indicating that this is an area which requires significant improvement.

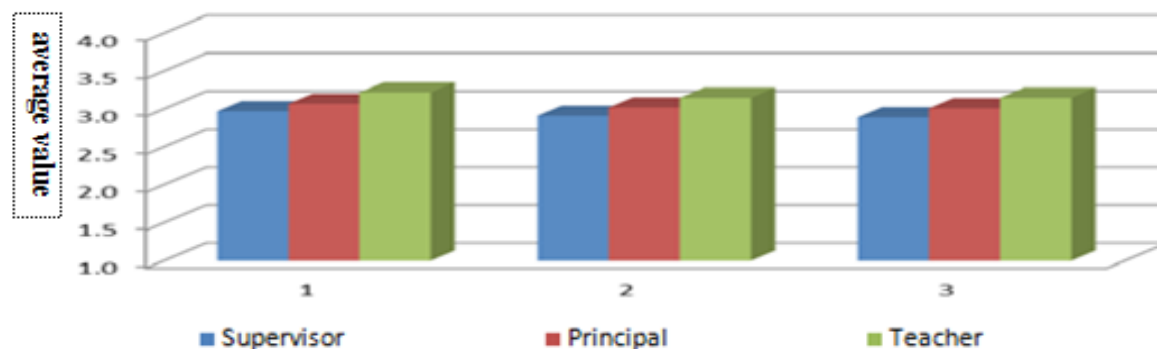
Supervision Indicators

1. Ability to develop programs of academic supervision to improve the capabilities and professionalism of teachers
2. Ability to implement academic supervision program using appropriate methods and techniques
3. Ability to follow up the results of supervision to improve teacher professionalism

Note. Supervision dimension for principals was rated lowest by principals and their supervisors and fell into the Basic range

Figure-7. *Ratings of Principal Competency Supervision Dimension – All Groups*

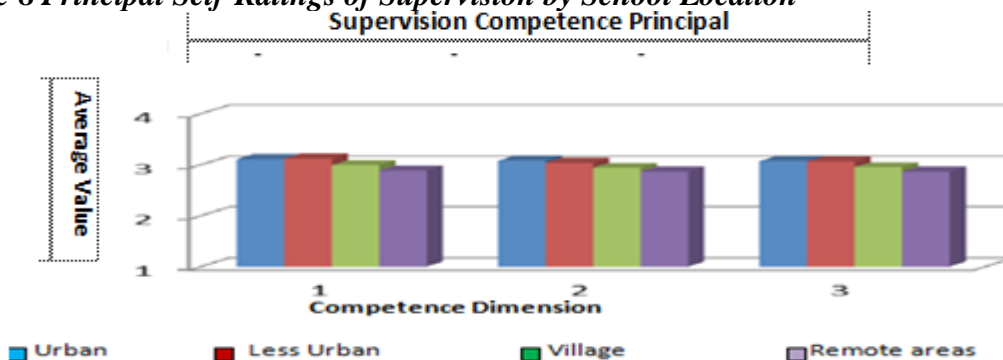
Principal supervision of competence according to three groups of appraisers ministry of education



Analysis by sex, principal qualifications, school status, school accreditation level and school type repeated the pattern of findings for Managerial competency. That is:

- Female principals rated themselves as less competent than males
- The higher the qualification level, the higher the principals' self-ratings of competency
- Private schools/madrasah principals rated themselves significantly less competent than did public school/madrasah principals
- The lower the accreditation status, the lower the rating of competency
- Schools in rural and remote location had lower self-ratings of competency than principals of other schools/madrasah.

Figure-8 Principal Self-Ratings of Supervision by School Location



To obtain further information about principal competency on the Supervision dimension and to help validate survey self-ratings, principals were asked if they maintained relevant records of staff and academic supervision as required by the National Standards Board for Education (BSNP) Management Standard. The findings indicated that a considerable number of principals, especially MoRA principals, did not maintain appropriate documents further indicating that the Supervision dimension is an area requiring urgent improvement.

• Personality And Social Dimensions

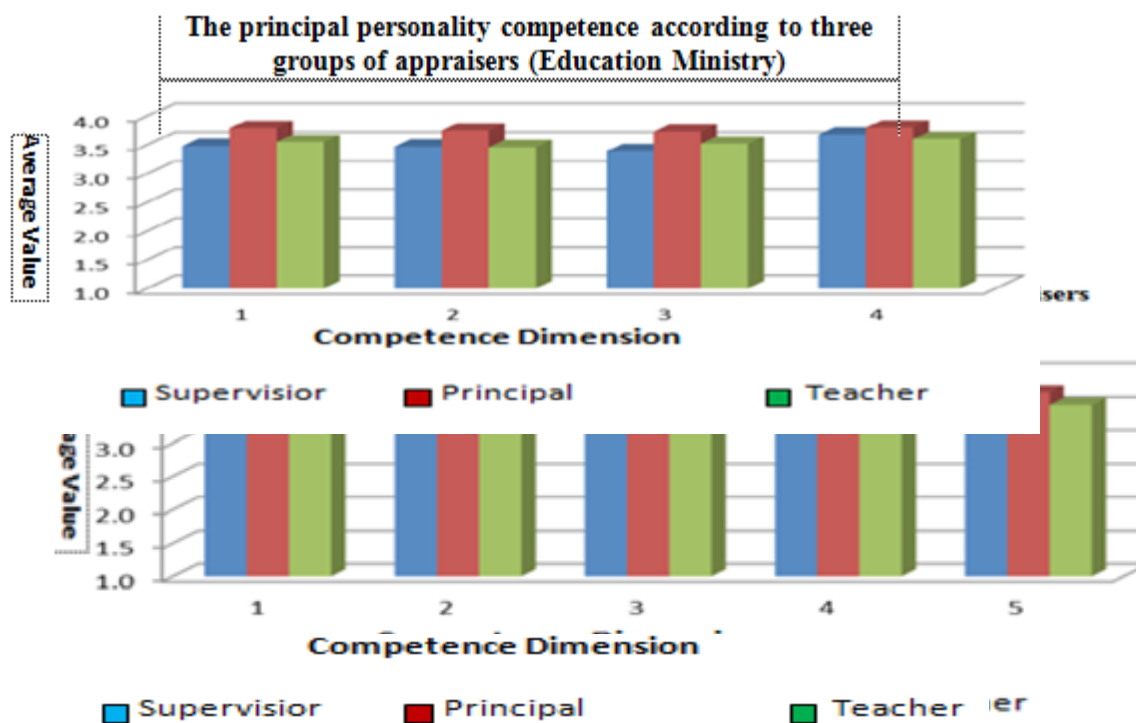
Competency ratings on all competency indicators for both dimensions that were provided by principals, their supervisors and a sample of their teachers fell into the *Capable/Proficient* category ..

For almost all competency indicators on these two dimensions principal self-ratings were higher than teacher and supervisor ratings. The mirrored the pattern for ratings of supervisor competency on the same dimensions. MoRA and MoEC ratings were very similar for all groups of respondents.

The only competency indicator for which MoEC and MoRA principals gave a lower rating than other groups was Indicator 3 on the Social dimension – *Showing concern and empathy to different groups* although the ratings remained in the *Capable/Proficient* range.

Note : Principals rated themselves highest on Social and Personality competency dimensions.

Figure-9. Ratings of Competency – Personality Dimension Principals



e. Continuing Professional Development /CPD For School Principal

As with the quantitative findings principals that participated in INPRES commented positively on the program and the impact on their capacity as principals. The following comments reflect their views about the impact of the program.

In terms of **Presidential Instruction** /INPRES methodology participants stated that the more practical and active methods were more effective. While lectures were important they were often too long and became tedious according to a number of participants. They said that more active learning methods should be used in the face-to-face components of the programs.

These comments are in line with the findings from the surveys where principals indicated that they benefited particularly from the mentoring and on the job learning activities such as action research.

Principals identified a number of areas for their future Continuing Professional Development (CPD). Managerial competency was mentioned frequently as principals said this was essential for their work. For the same reason supervision was also seen as an area for future development. Generally the areas for future Continuing Professional Development/CPD matched the areas principals identified as requiring further development.

Note : Effective for the management of the school, especially for the principal who wants to learn and develop at the school for the benefit of teachers and students (Agama)

- *Very useful, because face-to-face training in LPMP Province , immediately enabled me to guide teachers in creating lesson plans, syllabi, instructional media, and new teaching methods. These activities then add insight and change in schools, and teachers are passionate again when they started a new teaching method.*
- *This training provides materials for principals for conducting supervision and assessment to assist their quality improvement efforts*

6. Discussion

Discussion of Findings and Implications for policy and practice with regard to each of the five objectives of this study. As a result, additional studies that have provided comments on broader issues relating to National Education Standards, and possible areas for research and studies in the future. Although this chapter is arranged so that any findings with regard to the purpose of the study has been discussed separately, but stressed that all issues raised in the chapters are inter-related and issues emphasized at one field has implications against other fields.

National standards for Education-/BNSP, consists of five competencies for school/islamic school principal – personality, social, managerial, entrepreneurial and supervision. In response to a request from ministry of education, the sixth competency, namely teaching and counseling, are included in the survey, because the school/islamic school principal were required to do some teaching, and also he should act as the leader of the process of learning and teaching. One of the weaknesses of the current standard for the principal is relatively small given the focus on instructional leadership role of principal. The inclusion of the sixth dimension of competence is partly reconsideration of the issue. A variety of indicators for the dimension of Teaching and counseling are taken from the standard of teachers.

a. School/islamic school Principal Competence

Principal self-ratings of competency were generally slightly lower than the ratings provided by supervisors and teachers for all competency dimensions except for Personality and Social. This pattern was similar to ratings for supervisor competency

MoEC principal self-ratings of competency were higher than MoRA principal self-ratings and these differences were statistically significant for all competency indicators for Managerial,

Entrepreneurship, Supervision and Teaching and Counselling dimensions. Principal competency was rated highest for Personality and Social dimensions and lowest for Supervision for MoRA and MoEC.

A core function is the supervision of the principal in all countries and the education system. International research indicates that human resources management is also a field in which the principal felt underprivileged most. Findings from this study has implications policy and practice of the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) . School/islmic school principal percentage.

There are three indicators in which the principal (Ministry of religious) rate themselves quite capable. One of them, an 7 indicator, education ministry also rated themselves quite capable.

b. Teaching Learning & Indicators

- First indicator, the ability to understand learning theories and principles of education in their field of expertise
- Second indicator, the ability to develop creative teaching methods in order to make the pupils can achieve their potential
- Third indicators, the ability to use information and communication technologies for teaching and learning.

Information and communication technology seems to be a significant issue for school/islmic school principal because they also have concerns about their capacity to use information and communication technology for the purpose of administrative and school organization.

Analysis based on a variety of factors such as gender, qualifications, school status, level of school accreditation and school locations produce similar findings with findings for the dimensions of managerial, entrepreneurial and supervision. However, the influence of a variety of variable is not as large in dimensions of Teaching and counseling when compared with various other dimensions.

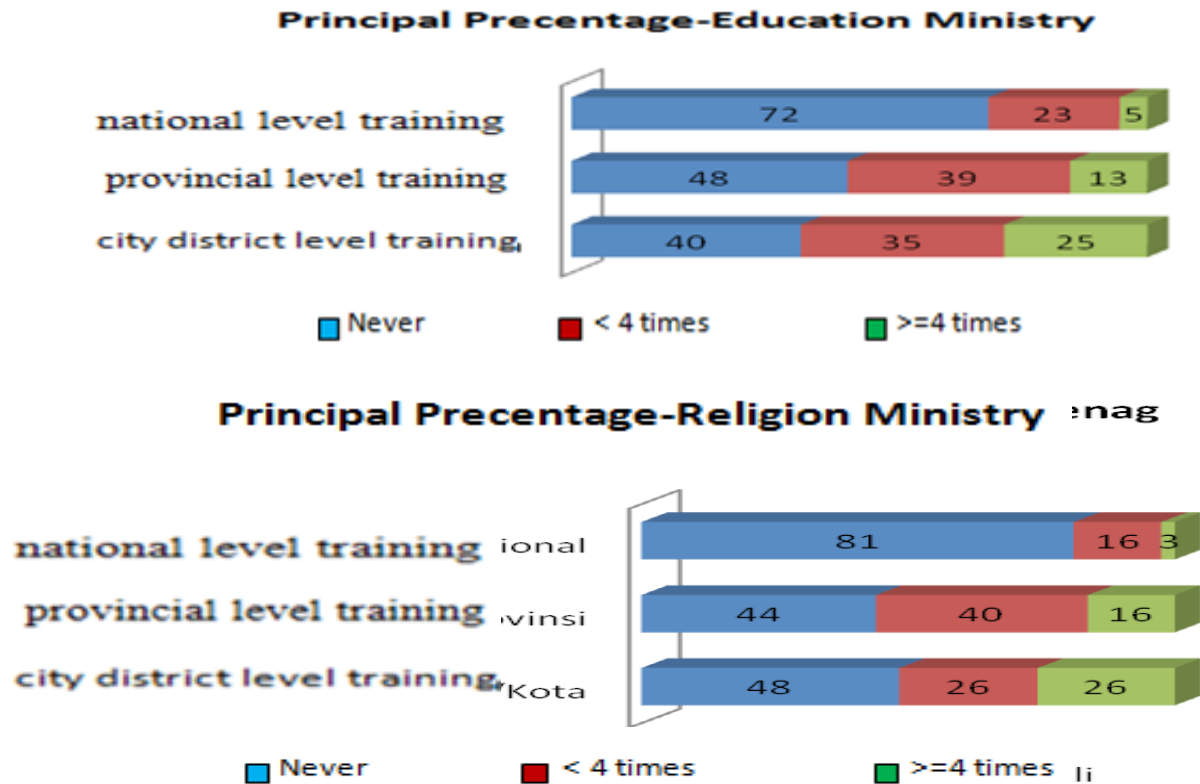
A number of key issues emerged from these analyses of principal competence. They were:

1. On specific competency indicators rural and remote school principals generally rate their competency lower than urban or semi urban principals.
2. Principal competency is rated lowest on Supervision competency dimension and using ICT for management and teaching and learning purposes.
3. Level of principal qualification and school status (public or private) were significant variables for Managerial, Entrepreneurship, Supervision and Teaching and Learning for MoEC principals. The higher the qualification the higher the ratings of competency
4. Female principals rated their competency lower than males on Managerial, Entrepreneurship and Supervision.
5. The principal of school their competence rate is higher than the principal of islamic school for dimensions of managerial, entrepreneurial, supervision and teaching and counseling and the difference is statistically significant.

c. Principal CPD Priorities

A quantitative study of the related participation in training is the priority for the CPD principal

Figure-11. Number of Times Principals Participated in Training



The future CPD priorities for principals were investigated in two ways. First, the analysis of the ratings of competency gave important information about the areas which should be targeted for future CPD support. Second, a separate section of the survey asked principals to identify their priorities for future CPD. And assessments given by the school/islamic school principal and the chief Ministry of religious district areas that become top priorities for professional development in the future.

Findings from ratings of competency indicated that high priority CPD areas for MoEC and MoRA principals should be for:

- Supervision
- ICT for administration and teaching and learning
- Motivating students to develop entrepreneurial skills
- Some particular aspects of Managerial competency including medium term planning
- However, principal and heads of district office ratings of high priority CPD needs revealed additional areas where principals needed further training. They were:

MoEC and MoRA Additional CPD Priority Areas

- Leadership development and cooperation with parents (Personality)
 - Transparent governance procedures and systems (Personality)
 - Financial and resource management (Personality)
 - Curriculum management and development (Managerial)
 - Management of teaching and learning (Managerial)
 - Innovative leadership (Entrepreneurship)
 - Using new and more effective teaching and learning methods (Teaching and Learning)
- Provides a summary of CPD priorities for principals based on the ratings of competency and their ratings of CPD priorities

Table: CPD Priorities– for Principal

The Areas of Focus Of The Target Group

Competence Dimensions	Focus Area	Target Group
Personality	Leadership development and cooperation with parents Procedures and transparent governance /management system	All schoolprincipals
Managerial	Management and curriculum development. Teaching and learning Management ICT for management and administration Monitor and evaluate school programs and use the information for planning and repair schools	All schoolprincipals
Supervision	Develop academic supervision program to increase the ability and professionalism of teachers Implement the academic supervision of the program by using the right methods and techniques Methods to follow up on the results of supervision to enhance the professionalism of teachers	All school/islmic schoolprincipals
Entrepreneurship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Innovative Leadership • Motivate pupils to develop entrepreneurial skills 	All schoolprincipals
The teaching and Learning	Use of new teaching and learning methods are more effective and creative Use ICT for teaching and learning Understand the theories of learning and the educational principle in their field of expertise	All schoolprincipals

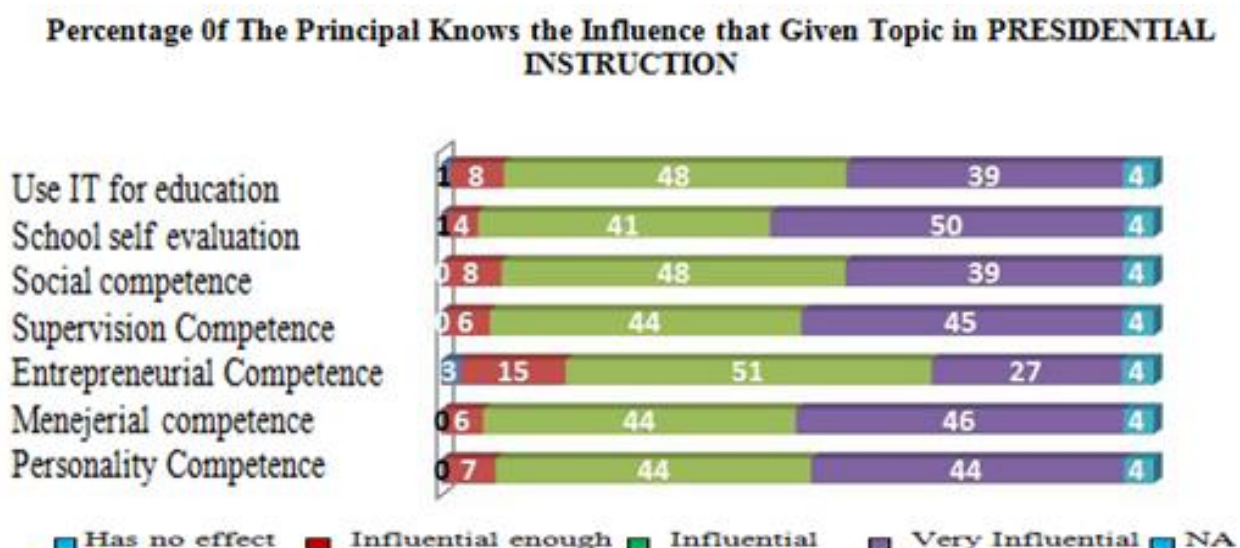
d. Impact of Presidential Instruction /INPRES Training – Principals

In this sample 1,387 MoEC principals and 172 MoRA principals participated in INPRES staff strengthening training. For MoEC principals, self-ratings of competency for all competency indicators in Managerial, Supervision, Entrepreneurship, and Teaching and Counselling dimensions were higher for principals who had participated in INPRES training. This suggests that INPRES training had a positive impact on the capacity of MoEC principals.

The findings for MoRA were more variable, with the Supervision, Entrepreneurship, Teaching and Counselling and most indicators in Managerial competency dimensions showing higher ratings of competency for INPRES participants. For MoRA INPRES training had no apparent benefits for their capacity to use ICT for administrative purposes.

Principals who participated in INPRES training were also asked to rate the impact of the INPRES training on their effectiveness as principals. The findings are presented in Figure 12

Figure-12. Principal Self-Ratings of Influence of INPRES Training on their Capacity to Implement their Roles as Principals



These findings also indicate that principals benefited from participating in INPRES supporting findings from the comparison of self-ratings of competency of principals that did and did not participate in INPRES training. The findings also indicate that the area of least benefit was for Entrepreneurship and, for MoRA, using IT for education.

Teachers were also asked to rate the impact of the INPRES training on the capacity of their principals and their ratings followed a similar pattern to those of principals. However, while teachers felt that the training had had a positive influence on their principals their ratings were less positive about the extent of the influence.

Principals who participated in INPRES training were also asked to rate the effectiveness of the training methodologies used in the training program.

e. The Effectiveness Of Training Methods Of Presidential Instruction – Assessment Of SchoolPrincipal.

The results indicate that each of the training methods was considered to be reasonably effective, although the second two-day face-to-face assessment and reporting workshop received lower ratings of effectiveness than the other methodologies. As with supervisor findings it is of some concern is the relatively high percentage of not yet completed or N/A ratings for MoRA principals. A review of completion rates for MoRA and MoEC principals may be necessary to clarify this issue.

f. The challenge in creating Tomorrow ' s School in Twenty first century

In the Era of the Nitizen this education system allows organizing independent education run by school for still being in the corridors of the national curriculum. The school curriculum called the 2006 Curriculum or Curriculum unit level education (KTSP) is now already quite adequate because there is freedom in developing the curriculum in accordance with local needs and based on a school (School building) which at this time perfected/developed be 2013 Curriculum. thatdevelopment can serve as the idiosyncrasies in each school. Distinctiveness or uniqueness that built independently by the school in the form of a curriculum of local cultural, religious, linguistic, arts, and science and technology (science and technology).

i. The Education System and Curriculum

In general schools in Indonesia is still oriented emphasize the "output", results of the study with high marks in academics, as a result of the demands of the Government in implementing national examination (UN). Consequently, the process of learning in general emphasis on activities that train students to get high scores with a lot of effort working on problems such as drills and memorization. But learning is a process to acquire knowledge and use it in everyday life. In other words, the end result of education not only on the acquisition of academic learning, but also for the formation of behavior, social sensitivity, and spirituality. Therefore, the learning process must be the establishment refers to the process without forgetting the high learning results. The combination between the process and the results of which should be made one of the hallmarks of the school in the future. Approach to teaching that is centered on the teacher, "teachers center", should be changed to "children center". In accordance with the demands of the curriculum of 2013 at the moment. On "children center" students is the subject is not an object. The teacher acts as a facilitator and motivator in the learning process. Students are given the opportunity to state my opinion, reflect, and reconstruct the thinking individually or through discussions accompanied by courage responsible. This paradigm suggests that teachers no longer be the only learning resource centre or source of knowledge so teachers should utilize the existing environment in order to support the process of learning how to be effective.

ii. The Quality Of Educators And Educational Personnel

Educational personnel of the school are those who are qualified as educators, managers, and support personeleducation. Educators in charge of mercncanakan, executing, and assessing and developing the learning process. School administrators in charge of managing and leading educators and support personnel in all schools. School support personnel are those who are tasked with supporting the Organization of the learning process in schools.

Produce educators include teachers, counselors, principals and other designations in accordance with his. In General, the educational personnel of the school in charge of carrying out planning, learning, supervision, training, management, assessment, supervision, technical services and librarianship, research and development of practical things that are needed to improve the quality of the learning process. Energy education is the soul of the school and the school is simply a their vessels. Therefore, the educational effort is key for the successful development of the school.

Given the importance of the role of produce educators for the development of the school, then the school must: (1) have sufficient educational personnel sufficient number; (2) have adequate qualifications and capabilities in accordance with the assigned level of education; (3) have a high level of compliance, in the sense of ability that is owned by educational personnel in accordance with the assigned areas of work; and (4) have the ability to work high.

Every educational personnel shall be obliged to: (1) keep the good name of the private institution, profession, and position in accordance with the trust given to him; (2) carry out educational who became her responsibilities; and (3) improve the professional ability of intellectual capabilities which include integrity, personality and social interaction in both the work environment and in the community. With regard to this last grain, the school must provide the conditions and services for the development of produce educators. As a consequence of the obligations to be assumed, then produce educators are entitled to the protection of the law, career coaching, a decent income, appreciation, and the opportunity to use school resources to support the smooth running of its job.

7. Conclusion and Recommendation

From the explanation above, the research results can be concluded that: "***Principal Leadership Competencies have a positive impact Against the creation of Quality Tomorrow's Schools in the 21st century in Indonesia.***" *Tomorrow's Schools* can be realized with regard to democratization, participation/ community participation, with the principle of transparent and accountability in the conduct of the school. In addition the school program development process must involve stake holders/the citizens of the school consisting of school principals, teachers, school staff, students and parents of students, community leaders, religious figures and involves the world of business and industry. Besides the education service agencies and related institutions to support programs for the advancement of quality school of the future.

To see the positive impact of competence principal leadership against the Quality tomorrow's School of the 21st century can be seen through some of the indicators of success of the criteria as follows:

- There is commitment and support from the top management to be easy for doing the performance management principal.
- Conducting performance management process can be adapted to the actual work of the Organization and how the performance is generally manageable.
- Performance management can provide added value in the form of short-term results or longer-term development.

- Performance management process can work flexibly to local environmental needs/special.
- Performance management process is ready to be accepted all interested parties as a natural component of good management and practice work.
- Stakeholder organisations involved in the design, development and the introduction of performance management. It is composed of top management, line managers, workers, and individual States/representative workers.
- Performance management leadership principal runs good, transparent and honest work and fair.
- Managers and team leaders take action to make sure there is a shared understanding is usually about the vision, strategy, goals and values of the organization.
- Performance management process understand the community interests in the Organization and appreciate the needs of the individual.
- Performance management process used the manager and team leader for helping people feel valued organization.
- Leadership competencies, performance management process the principal objectives of the Organization and help resolve the individual. Individuals and teams are given the opportunity to convey the views about what they can accomplish.
- Performance management focus on the development of people and the consideration about the support that they need. There is a competency framework, especially for organizations with full involvement of all interested parties. Performance management skills training given to team manager, team leader and workers in General.
- The purpose and implementation of the performance management and its benefits for all interested parties, communicated extends and the effectiveness of performance management is monitored and evaluated constantly.
- The opinions of all stakeholders be informed about how well its schema goes on and the action taken as needed to improve processes.
- Performance management process is integrated with strategic and business planning process, so that performance management does not add any new jobs, but are fixing what has been ordinary.
- Islamic principal there are extra issues i.e. provide leadership in religious schools and in the community. This aspect was stressed by a number of the principal. This general comment is given by the principal.
- Managerial, social and personality are most often mentioned as areas of strength and this is in accordance with the judgment given by the head of school/madrasah in the quantitative survey. As for the comment about madrasah School Superintendent/field of their strength, the dimensions selected by the principal in accordance with the dimension that they think is most important for their roles.

- Response from the principal, teachers, supervisors, and parents to the field of what is to be reinforced by school/islamic school principal turned out to be more complicated. Whereas the Supervision as predicted and entrepreneurship (to the principal) are identified as areas requiring further development; Principal more often choose the same dimensions for improvement such as the dimensions of their choosing as a factor of strength.
- Assessment of teachers, parents and school superintendent against the power of the head of the school of their great fit with an assessment of the principal.
- Findings regarding the competence of the leadership of the principal both qualitative and quantitative surveys, and of all the respondents, consistently that the power of the principal is in the dimension of managerial, social and personality in order to support the creation of superior quality school/Quality tomorrow's School in the 21st century.

a. Recommendation.

Principals needed CPD support for their educational leadership roles. Things urgent and important to do school are:

- Improve the quality of schools
- Regeneration of the management committee of the school
- Development of entrepreneurial skills in schools
- Improve the academic and character education
- Training for school development activities and financial management
- Improved budget transparency
- Increase cooperation between the parents with school
- Repair and upgrade school facilities and infrastructure
- Additional teachers and BOS funds for kindergartens
- Require regular funding from the government
- Increase the number of hours of study
- Lack of facilities and infrastructure
- The absence of an effective medium to evaluate the performance of principals
- Improve the quality of teacher training in managing the learning more interesting

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Efficacy of Cognitive Behaviour and Client Centred Therapies on Social Adjustment among People With Leprosy

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Abstract

This study examined the relative effects of cognitive behaviour and client centred therapies on social adjustment of lepers in south-western Nigeria..The quasi-experimental non-randomized pre-test, post-test and control group involving 2 x 3 factorial design was adopted for the study. One hundred and fifty (150) leprosy patients were participated in the study. The data collected for the study were analyzed using descriptive Statistics, ANCOVA and Scheffe post-hoc analysis. The results revealed that cognitive behaviour and client centred therapies were all effective in assisting lepers to develop high and positive social adjustment. On the basis of these findings, it was recommended that Government at various levels should appoint well trained counselling psychologists who are ready to work in practical counselling situations among the patients and patients should see the leprosy as any other disease which could be contracted by anybody and that if they are able to handle their experiences positively, they would still enjoy life with rewarding experiences.

Introduction

It has been discovered that no part of psychology has grown faster than the area which deals with human happiness or unhappiness with human motivations, frustration conflicts and readjustment. The indices of a person's social adjustment includes his intrapersonal and interpersonal coping experiences, such as the way he perceives interest, values, dignity, purpose and worth in life. Olofintoye (2007) opined that social adjustment refers to the state of coping or relating with others in one's environment. Adeyoju (1998) observed that social adjustment deals with how and why people differs in their responses they have learnt to frustrating social situations such as marriage, pregnancy and child birth, entering the world of work, changing residence, failures and successes. Social adjustment within this context is concerned with persons who are living and acting in their social situation. Maltade (1992) submitted that social adjustment is the process one engage in when a specific situation arises while Lazarus and Folkman (1981) believed that social adjustment is a constantly changing cognitive and behavioural effort to manage specific external and internal demand that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person. Social adjustment refers to an individual general adaptation to his environment and the demand of life such as the way he relates to other people that is interpersonal behavior, handle his responsibilities, deals with stress and meets his own needs and life satisfaction. It is important to understand that social adjustment however defined is not a one-way process in which the individual conforms to the dictates of others, but rather a two way process for it includes the ability to be oneself, hold on to one's own and make reality adapt itself to one's requirement and needs, nor does it imply a state or condition of contentment or peace of mind because life itself is changing. (Jonathan 1991).

The problem of social adjustment of lepers is not an issue which can be neglected because the social implications of having leprosy are very serious which deserves the immediate attention of higher authorities and researchers.

Also, for smooth and successful functioning of any society, it is essential that all the groups in the society (leprosy patients inclusive) should be made to carry out their responsibilities very well. If leprosy patients are not provided full opportunities to play their role properly, and their social problems are not deliberately solved, they become the passive part of the society and this circumstance ultimately affects the whole functioning of the society. The social adjustment problem in the life of these people affects the peaceful functioning of the whole society.

It is a common phenomenon to observer that the society generally forms unfavourable attitude towards leprosy patients and this attitude affects lepers' social adjustment and because lepers have not been adequately equipped with the knowledge of cognitive and client centred therapies, lepers themselves develop wrong perceptions about the disease. The lepers perceived that they can never get any opportunity to show their worth. Consequently most of the lepers adopt beggary attitude, or become permanently dependent on their families and society. The result is that their existence becomes nothing but a burden for the family and society and if nothing is done about their situation, they might not be able to enjoy social life, for lepers generally develop hostile and deviant attitudes in themselves. Most lepers do not consider themselves suitable for specific social gatherings and social activities in which they can perform well like people without leprosy. It is amused that these types of attitudes ultimately keep the social aspirations of lepers at a lower level thus leaving little chance for their social development. Taking into account the above mentioned difficulties of lepers, the researcher is tempted to ask the question: would cognitive

behaviour and client centred therapies have any relative effects on the social adjustment of lepers in south west Nigeria?

The study was specifically designed to find out the efficacy of cognitive and client centred therapies in ameliorating the general emotional instability and social anxiety of lepers. Not that alone it would evaluate the relative effectiveness of cognitive behavior and client centred therapies in reducing the emotional disorders and socially perceived incompetence of subjects with a view to alleviate their poor social adjustment.

METHOD

Design This study adopted an experimental research. A 2 by 3 factorial design was adopted. In the design, the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable were examined. The participants were randomly assigned to three groups. The first group was treated with cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT). The second group was given the client centred therapy (CCT); while the third group served as a control. There were two tests – pre test and the post – test. The two experimental and one control groups are therefore represented schematically below:

O ₁	X ₁	O ₂
O ₃	X ₂	O ₄
O ₅	–	O ₆

Where

O₁ O₃ O₅ – represent the pre-test

O₂ O₄ O₆ – represent the post-test

X₁ – treatment with cognitive behaviour theory

X₂ – treatment with client centred theory

– – No treatment for control group.

The diagrammatical expression of the treatment strategies indicates that the experimental groups A1 and A2 were pre-tested before the treatment, and tested again after the treatment. For the control group A3, no treatment was administered but subjects were also given the pre-test and the post-test.

Population

The target population for the study comprised of all lepers in the six South Western States of Nigeria. The states are Lagos, Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Ekiti states.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The sample consists of 150 lepers from three States: Oyo, Osun and Ondo. Simple random sampling technique was employed to select these three States out of the six States in the zone. A total number of one hundred and fifty (150) patients were involved in this study. The social adjustment scale (SAS) was administered on all the lepers in the three States selected for the study and only lepers who scored 34 to 84 in the (SAS) Social Adjustment Scale, used for the study were selected for the study. These were subjects who scored low on the SAS and were viewed to need the treatments for social adjustment. The scores from the first administration of the SAS

were taken as the pre-test scores for the lepers. Fifty (50) lepers were purposively sampled, (made up of 25 males and 25 females) with low social adjustment scores in each of the three States selected for the study. Thereafter, simple random sampling technique was used to designate lepers in Ogbomoso leprosarium in Oyo State as those in experimental group 1. They were treated with cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT), lepers in Iwo leprosarium in Osun State which were treated with client centred therapy as those in experimental group 2. Lepers in Akure leprosarium in Ondo State served as those in the control group. Lepers in this group did not receive any therapy. Lepers in each State (now referred to as each study group) were post-tested in their respective leprosarium at the end of the treatment.

Instrument for Data Collection

For the purpose of this study, Social Adjustment Scale SAS which was developed by Wiggins (1966) was adapted for the study. Hassan (1986) established the validity of Wiggins's scale by administering the scale to some social isolates and to some student's union leaders at the university of Ibadan, there was significant difference between the scores of two groups as reflected in a t-test of 3.06 with $df = 32$. To further establish the validity of the present instrument, it was concurrently administered to a randomly selected 50 lepers that were not included in this study by the researcher. The responses to the items were subjected to Pearson Product Moment Correlation. A co-efficient of 0.76 was obtained.

Wiggins (1966) reported reliability co-efficient of 0.78 for the scale. The test-retest reliability co-efficient, with two weeks inter-test interval on 'normal' subjects at the university of Ibadan yielded a coefficient value of 0.77 (Hassan, 1986) All these show that the scale is a relatively stable measure of social adjustment.

Procedures

The treatment procedures presented under the two experimental groups and the control groups guide the administration of the scale.

The procedures for administering the instrument and collecting data for this study were in the following three phases namely:

- Pre-treatment Phase
- Treatment Phase
- Post-treatment Phase

Pre-treatment Phase: Three treatment phases were formed in three leprosaria that were selected for the study (2 experimental groups and 1 control group). With the permission of the director of the social welfare and the leprosarium management in the three states already selected for the study, the investigator discussed the purpose of the study with the subjects. The subjects were sensitized on the need to cooperate with the investigator. The selected subjects for the study were subjected to a pre-test using the Social Adjustment Scale to establish the baseline data of the subject and to identify those that are deficient in the social adjustment.

Treatment Phases: Based on the treatment packages. Eight sessions were used to conduct the treatment. The counselling sessions were run once a week for the experimental groups and for duration of ninety minutes per week for seven weeks. The selected samples were groups as follows.

Cognitive Behaviour therapy (Ogbomoso) Group A₁ (treated)
 Client Centred Therapy (Iwo) Group A₂ „
 Control Group (Akure) Group A₃ notreatment

The two experimental groups (A₁ and A₂) received the cognitive behaviour therapy and client centred therapy respectively. The therapy consists of (i) the presentation of the rational for cognitive behaviour therapy and client centred therapy, (ii) analysis of social adjustment in rational terms, teaching clients to modify their self-talk, self-direction and finally (iii) home assignments.

The home assignments were discussed by participants and analyzed in subsequent sessions. These assignments are intended to sensitize participants in developing the awareness of their social adjustment situations as best as they could. Also, the home assignment was to stimulate the subjects so that they could learn to apply, analyse, synthesize and evaluate situations in social adjustment. The experimental groups went through these processes for seven weeks. No treatment was given to A₃ which is the control group.

Post-treatment Phase: After the completion of the training programme, the SAS was administered on all the subjects in the experimental and control groups. The scores from this administration of the instrument constituted the post-test scores.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data collected were analyzed using means, standard deviation, bar charts, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) the hypotheses was tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results are presented in two parts based on the general question and the hypothesis that guided the study.

Descriptive Analysis

Is there any difference in the social adjustment of subjects in the experimental and control groups?

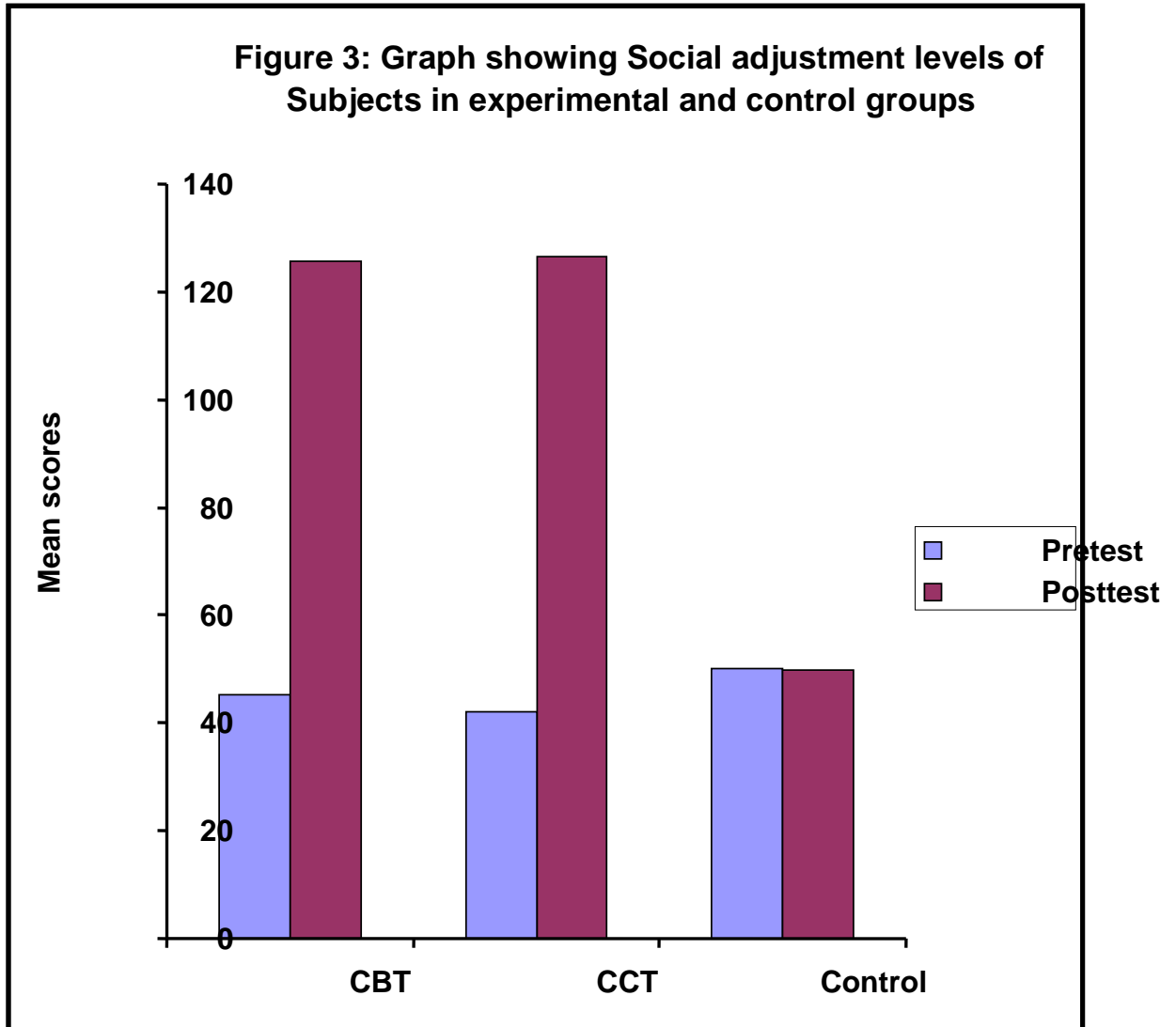
The mean scores on the social adjustment of subjects before and after treatment in each of the experimental and control groups were obtained. The results are presented in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Analysis Showing Social Adjustment Scores of Subjects in Experimental and Control Groups

GROUPS	N	Pretest		Posttest	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cognitive Behaviour Therapy	50	45.30	4.01	125.76	13.99
Client Centred Therapy	50	42.18	9.39	126.46	9.16
Control	50	50.06	3.05	49.94	2.26

Table 1 and presents the social adjustment mean scores of subjects in the experimental and control groups. The results show that subjects in the CBT, CCT and control groups had pretest mean scores of 45.30, 42.18 and 50.06 respectively. After the treatments subjects in the CCT group obtained the highest posttest mean score of 126.46 on social adjustment while those in CBT and control group had posttest mean scores of 125.76 and 49.94 respectively. The data show clearly that there were differences in the Social Adjustment Scores of subjects in the two experimental groups. The post-test scores were substantially higher than the pretest scores. The

social adjustment scores for the control group remained almost the same. (50.06 at pre-test and 49.94 at post-test). The results show clearly that there is a difference in the social adjustment of subjects in the experimental and control groups



H0

There is no significant difference in the social adjustment of subjects in the experimental and control groups.

In order to test the hypothesis, mean scores of subjects on social adjustment level before and after treatment in the CBT, CCT and control groups were subjected to statistical analysis. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used. The pretest scores were used as the covariate in the analysis. The results are presented in Table 2

Table 2: ANCOVA Showing Social Adjustment Scores of Subjects in the CBT, CCT and Control Groups

Source	SS	Df	MS	Fcal	Ftable
Corrected Model	193491.467	3	64497.156	678.977	2.60
Covariate (pretest)	83.587	1	83.587	.880	3.84
Group	160161.402	2	80080.701	843.029	2.99
Error	13866.773	146	94.992		
Corrected Total	207360.240	149			
Total	1729038.000	150			

P < 0.05

Table 2 shows the effect of treatment on social adjustment level of subjects. The result shows that F cal (843.029) is greater than F table (2.99) at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is significant difference in the social adjustment of subjects in the experimental and control groups. To determine the pair of treatment groups that exhibited the significant difference at 0.05 levels of significance, scheffe posthoc test was applied. The result is presented in table 10.

Table 3: Scheffe Posthoc Analysis of Treatments and Social Adjustment of Subjects

Treatment Groups	CBT	CCT	Control	Mean	N
CBT			*	125.76	50
CCT			*	126.46	50
Control				49.94	50

*Mean difference is significant at 0.05 levels

Table 3 shows that there is significant difference between the social adjustment mean scores of subjects exposed to CBT and the control group. Similarly, the mean difference between subjects in the CCT and the control is statistically significant at 0.05 levels. However, the mean difference in the mean scores of CBT and CCT subjects is not significant at 0.05 levels

Table 4 Multiple Classification Analysis of Treatment and Social

Adjustment of Subject

Grand mean = 100.72					
Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Devn'	Eta	Adjusted for Independent + Covariate	Beta
CBT	50	25.04	0.21	23.81	.40
CCT	50	25.74		17.76	
Control	50	-50.66		-41.86	
Multiple R ²					
.161					
Multiple R					
.401					

Table 4 shows that subjects exposed to CBT had the adjusted posttest mean score of 125.76 while those in the CCT and control obtained adjusted posttest mean score of 126.46 and 49.49. This implies that both CBT and CCT constitute effective - counseling therapies for enhancing better social adjustment of subjects.

Discussion

Social adjustment is very important to human living. It is essential to individuals who seek to live meaningful life and it is also a necessity for self-realization and a vital tool for intra and inter-personal relationship. The study centers on how cognitive behaviour and client centred therapies could be used among lepers in south-western Nigeria. Improvement was mainly observed and achieved among the subjects exposed to the training techniques.

The affirmative answers to the questions raised as presented in table in respect of this study provide ample evidence that, there were substantial differences in the mean scores of treated subjects when compared with the mean scores of their control counterparts in the control group. The observed differences therefore could be attributed to the effects of the treatment. The result corroborated the findings of many other studies that have been empirically established.

The results of the findings indicated that there is significant difference in the social adjustment levels of treated participants and the control group. The two treatments had succeeded in enhancing the social adjustment of Lepers. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected; as it was found out that both cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) and client centred therapy (CCT) had significant impact on the social adjustment of the subjects in the two groups. The effectiveness of the two therapeutic measure could be attributed to the fact that the two methods have been thoroughly researched upon and therefore easy to practice and master by the participants.

The finding also corroborates the findings of Beck (1991) Landenberger and Lipsey (2005) who affirmed the effectiveness of CBT. Kazantis and Deane (1999) also justified the effectiveness of client centred therapy as an effective therapeutic measure in behavioural change.

The result could be due to the deep interactions that occurred in free and conducive environment devoid of interference during the treatment sessions which had helped and encouraged effective participation during the treatment sessions and the participants were encouraged to ask questions, all these could be considered as part of the explanations for the success of the two therapies.

The result of the scheffe post hoc analysis following the significant effects of the treatment as shown in table 10 reveals that there was no difference in the adjusted Social Adjustment scores of the participants exposed to CBT and those exposed to CCT groups. There was no gainsaying that both CBT and CCT were very effective in the enhancement of social adjustment. This finding corroborates the studies of Lipsey, Chapman and Landenberger (2001); Lipsey and Landenberger (2003) which reveal that cognitive behaviour therapy was effective as a treatment measure. The effectiveness of CBT was further established by the result of the meta-analysis on different studies which Landenberger and Lipsey (2005) gave on the positive effects of CBT. In a similar vein Sadiku (2000) also affirms the effectiveness of cognitive therapy for alleviating the problem of low concept of self in his subjects. Also Baldwin (1987), Bozarth, (1998) and Brodley (1998) all agreed that client centred therapy (CCT) was very effective in behaviour change.

Implication for Counselling

The study has some implications for the people with the leprosy, non-governmental organizations, counseling psychologist and the society in general. The study obtained from this study has demonstrated the relative effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour and Client Centre therapies in the enhancement of social adjustment of the patients.

The findings from this study have great multi-dimensional implications for counseling psychologists, non-governmental organizations, medical personnel who handle patients in clinics, patients themselves, as well as government at various levels. This is because the social problems that confront lepers is the direct concern of the entire society. By implication, counseling is a must for every leprosy patient and this must be professionally handled.

Recommendations

Results findings from this study demand urgent attention by all concerned including counseling psychologists, non-governmental organizations government at various levels, patients and the general public. This is because the study has revealed a lot with respect to social adjustment problems which leprosy patients face.

On the basis of these findings, it was recommended that Government among other things should appoints well trained counseling psychologists who are ready to work In practical counseling situations among the patients and patients among other things should see the leprosy like any other diseases which can be contracted by anybody and that if they can handle their experiences squarely and positively they would enjoy life with rewarding experiences

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Adoption of Health Care Practices by Smallholder Farmers in Cattle Farming and the Influencing Socio-economic Factors in Kelantan State, Malaysia

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to find out the perception of smallholder farmers of Kelantan, Malaysia on health care practices in cattle farming and to explore the adoption of best health care practices done by them. The socio-economic factors of the farmers influencing adoption level were also studied. A stratified random sample of 240 cattle farmers of Kelantan was selected as the respondents of this study. A questionnaire including questions regarding eleven health care practices in cattle farming and socio-economic characteristics of the farmer were used as a tool for data collection during face-to-face interviews. Descriptive statistics including means, frequencies and percentages were used to determine the adoption levels. Correlation coefficients were estimated to determine the extent to which selected socio-economic characteristics influenced the adoption of health care practices. Prevalence of cattle disease in the study area was also recorded. Findings showed that their animals were infected mostly with “foot and mouth disease” (FMD) along with other diseases. The severity ranking of diseases in Kelantan is FMD>Brucellosis>anthrax > abortion>rinder pest. The adoption level in health care practices is low (mean score = 3.4) and it is influenced by the socio-economic variables of farmers e.g. farmers’ income ($r = 0.005^{**}$) and farmers education level ($r = 0.0001^{**}$) had highly significant correlation at $p < 0.01$; farmers’ age ($r = -0.0268^*$) and family size ($r = -0.121^*$) had negative relationship at $p < 0.05$; and types of breed they own ($r = 0.247^*$), purpose of breeding cattle ($r = 0.143^*$), cattle farming as main occupation ($r = 0.399^*$) and farmers’ sharing in training course ($r = 0.035^*$) had influenced positively at $p < 0.05$ in following best health care practices. There was no influence of farm size, number of cattle and current knowledge in health care practices. The study also revealed that

feeding calves during early stage and vaccination against foot and mouth disease are used by the farmers. Use of these information by the extension workers of the Kelantan state to improve their adoption level in health care practices have been emphasized.

Key words: Adoption level, health care practices, cattle farming, socio-economic variables, Kelantan state, extension workers

Introduction

The demand of milk and beef production is increasing in Malaysia due to the changes in eating habits as well as increase of Malaysian population. Malaysian zoonotic pathogens that infect zoo animals, wildlife and livestock hosts are also emerging day by day (Morse, 2004; Jones, 2008). Animals originating from infected animals (for example with Foot and Mouth Disease) will produce diseased animal as well. On the other hand, exporting disease free animals from Australia and New Zealand are expensive. Alternatively, animals can be imported from Southeast Asia, e.g. India, Myanmar and Thailand with less cost but these countries recorded high cases of FMD annually (Abdullah et al, 2014). Therefore, to solve this problems it is important to develop disease-free own animals through good health care practices. The adoption of good health care practices in cattle farming may be influenced by the socio-economic characteristics of the farmers (Boyazoglu and Nardone 2003). Sufficient information on this aspect is not available in Malaysia. With these ends in view this study was conducted with the following objectives: i) to determine the perception of small holders in cattle farming in Kelantan, Malaysia; ii) to explore the level of adoption of good health care practices by the farmers, and iii) to find out the socio-economic characteristics of the farmers influencing the adoption of good health care practices.

Materials and Methods

Data were collected using early-prepared questionnaire from 10 districts of Kelantan e.g. Kota Bharu, Tumpat, Pasir Mas, Machang, Tanah Merah, Pasir Puteh, Jeli, Gua Musang, Kuala Krai and Bachok. From each district, three villages were selected randomly according to population density of the villages. Altogether 240 cattle farmers of the study area were included in the study. The lists of cattle farmers for the 30 villages were obtained from the section of animal breeding, Department of Veterinary Services (DVS), Kelantan, Malaysia and constituted the accessible population of the study. The questionnaire included the questions related to current knowledge on good health care practices, as well as socio-economic characteristics of farmers and their effects. Validity of the questionnaire was justified by a group of experts and reliability was tested by conducting a pre-test with 30 cattle farmers. Modifications were made in the questionnaires as per information of pre-test and data were collected during August 2014 until June 2015. The adoption level was divided into three categories - low, medium and high. When the farmers adopted less than four practices out of selected 11 practices is regarded as low adoption (value is 0), those adopted from four to seven practices are regarded as medium adoption (value is 1) and those adopted more than seven practices are regarded as high adoption (value is 2). The respondents were selected randomly from each village. This technique gave every farmer in each village an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample. Descriptive statistics including means, frequencies and percentage were used to determine the level of adoption in health care practices Partial Correlation Analysis was used to determine the

relationship between socio-economic characteristics and adoption level of the farmer (Johnson and Wicherm, 2002).

Results and Discussion

Prevalence of cattle diseases in Kelantan

More than 48% of respondents of the study reported that their animals were infected with FMD disease. The FMD is a highly contagious disease of cloven-hoofed animals, especially in cattle, sheep, goats, swine and other ruminants. It is reported that in Peninsular Malaysia, the farmers' cattle was infected with diseases like rinder pest, brucellosis and anthrax by 5.83, 5.42, 2.5%, respectively (Table1). The farmers experienced reproductive diseases e.g. abortion (4.2%), malnutrition (2.92%), genetic abnormalities (2.08%) and traumatic diseases (0.8%) in their farms in Kelantan. Only 2.5% of respondents found their cattle infected with dystocia. Dystocia is one of the reproductive problems which cause death in both fetus and sometimes the dams (Hussein and Zaid, 2010). Fetal dystocia occurred mainly due to oversize, mal-disposition, monsters and large sized male fetuses (Noremark, 2009). Among the farmers 2.5% respondents have seen many diseases in their infected cattle like FMD, brucellosis, abortion and other diseases. The severity ranking of diseases in Kelantan is FMD>rinder pest> brucellosis> abortion> malnutrition.

Table1. Disease severity ranking of the cattle in Kelantan

Disease	Respondent		Ranking
	No. of farms	%	
Foot and Mouth Disease (FMD)	116	48.3	1
Rinder pest	14	5.83	3
Brucellosis	13	5.42	4
Anthrax	6	2.5	
Reproductive diseases	4	1.7	
Abortion	10	4.2	5
Malnutrition	7	2.92	6
Genetic abnormalities	5	2.08	
Traumatic	2	0.8	
Dystocia	6	2.5	
Combination of diseases	6	2.5	
No disease	52	21.25	2
Pooled	240	100%	

Majority of the farmers, smallholders in particular, have limited knowledge of farm management especially in biosecurity systems. They believe that the vaccination provides perfect disease protection but they do not have a disinfection system at the farm gate.

Socio-economic characteristics of cattle farmers of Kelantan

The results in table 2 indicate the socio-economic characteristics of cattle farmers with the frequency distribution, means and the standard deviation of the respondents. The mean of farmers' age is 51.44 (SD =13.04). However, 14.17% of the farmers were below 35 years of age, 29.17%

were in between 35-50 years and more than half of respondents (56.66%) were older than 50 years.

Table 2. Socio-economic characteristics of cattle farmers with the frequency distribution, means and the standard deviation of the respondents (N = 240)

Socio-economic variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean Score	Standard deviation
<u>Age (years)</u>			51.44	13.04
<35	34	14.17		
35-50	70	29.17		
> 50	136	56.66		
<u>Farm size (hectare)</u>			29.59	171.28
<25	214	89.2		
25-75	16	6.7		
>75	10	4.2		
<u>Farmers education level</u>			1.37	0.573
Illiterate 0	3	1.25		
Primary 1	180	75.0		
Higher Secondary 2	48	20.0		
Diploma 3	9	3.75		
University 4	0	0		
<u>Number of cattle</u>			13.03	23.88
<10	157	65.4		
10-19	47	19.6		
20-29	15	6.25		
≥ 30	21	8.75		
<u>Family size (number)</u>			5.56	2.605
<3	29	12.1		
3-6	117	48.8		
7-10	70	29.1		
>10	24	10.0		
<u>Sharing in training course</u>			0.13	0.332
Yes=1	30	12.5		
No=0	210	87.5		
<u>Cattle farming as main occupation</u>			0.25	0.434
Yes= 1	57	23.75		
No= 0	183	76.25		
<u>Type of cattle owned</u>			1.029	0.6158
Local cattle= 0.5	86	35.83		
Cross breed= 0.7	32	13.33		
Improved cattle= 1	49	20.42		
Combined cattle= 2	73	30.42		
<u>Current knowledge in health care practices</u>			0.85	0.878
0= Lack of knowledge	103	42.9		

1= Weak knowledge	80	33.3		
2= Medium knowledge	47	19.6		
3= High knowledge	10	4.2		
4= Very high knowledge	0	0		

The mean of farm size was 29.59 hectares (SD = 171.28). The most of the respondents (89.2%) had their land less than 25 hectares, 6.7% had between 25 and 75 hectares of land and 4.2% of respondents had more than 75 hectares. In case of farmers' education level, the mean score was 1.37 (SD = 0.573). Only 1.25 % was illiterate, 75% of the farmers were with primary education, 20% were with higher secondary level and 3.75% with diploma, but no farmer was a university graduate. The mean number of cattle owned by the farmers is 13.03 (SD = 23.88). About 65.4% of respondents possessed less than 10 heads, while about 19.6% had between 10 and 19 heads, only 6.25% of farmers had between 20 and 29 heads, 8.75% had more than 30 cows. It was also found that 12.1 farmers had less than three members in the family, while nearly a half of them have three to six; more than quarter of respondents had seven to ten, only 10% of farmers with more than ten persons. In term of farmers sharing in training course in health care practices, mean score 0.3 (SD=0.332), the findings of this survey showed that majority of Kelantan cattle farmers do not attend in animal husbandry training course, which might cause decrease in adoption level. In case of types of cattle they owned, among the respondents 96.01% had beef cattle, 3% had dairy cattle, while around 1% had both types of cattle, beef and dairy. The majority of the farmers (76.25%) were with cattle farming not as a main occupation, while 23.75% practiced cattle farming as a main occupation. It is also obvious from table 2 that about 35.83% of respondents owned local cattle, 13.33% owned crossbreed, while 20.42% kept improved breeds and only 30.42% of the farmers possessed different breeds of cattle. Data in table 2 also indicate that about 42.9% of farmers have no knowledge in health care practices, while 33.3% have low knowledge, only 19.6% of them have medium level, and 4.2% have high level of knowledge in cattle farming.

Table 3 presents the adoption levels of farmers in health care practices. Among the cattle farmers, 12% followed predetermined main practices in health care of cattle. It is clear from table 3 that 68.75% of farmers practiced in feeding calves during early stage. It might be due to the farmers' believes that the milk of cows is the share of the calves exclusively. In the health care practices, 67.92% of the respondents used vaccination against FMD, 53.33% used medicines in anthelmintic treatment practices, 47.92% of respondents called veterinarian for treatment of their sick animals, 37.92 % of farmers used anthelmintic treatment regularly, 37% called veterinarian to solve dystocia problem. Among the farmers 14.58% practiced vaccination against brucellosis, 4.2% vaccinated against rinder pest and 3.33% vaccinated against anthrax disease. Only 1.25% of the respondents culled their cattle when it has incurable disease. Almost 71% of the respondents followed this practice, which might be due to the advice of DVS officers. Sit is an important disease in the livestock and being a common disease between humans and animals i.e. zoonotic disease, which has high impact in livestock industry. Only 6.25% of respondents practiced no vaccination against different diseases (Table 3). The ranking of diseases which are mostly vaccinated is FMD>Brucellosis> No vaccination> anthrax >rinder pest.

Table 3. Adoption of different health care practices by the cattle farmers of Kelantan

Best health care practices	Applied		Not applied	
	No	%	No	%
Vaccinate against FMD disease	163	67.92	77	32.08
Vaccinate against rinder pest	10	4.2	230	95.8
Vaccinate against brucellosis	35	14.58	205	85.42
Vaccinate against anthrax	8	3.33	232	96.67
Use of herbal medicine in anthelmintic treatment	8	3.33	232	96.67
Use of chemical in anthelmintic treatment	128	53.33	135	46.67
Regular use of anthelmintic treatment	91	37.92	149	62.08
Calling veterinarian for treatment of sick animals	115	47.92	125	52.08
Calling veterinarian for solving dystocia problem	89	37.08	151	62.92
Culling dairy cows with incurable diseases	3	1.25	237	98.75
Feeding of calves during early stages	165	68.75	75	31.25

Relationship between socio-economic variables of farmers and their adoption levels

It is to be mentioned that the explanatory socio-economic variables were used to test the relationship between socio-economic characteristics of farmers and their adoption level. It was observed that four variables e.g. farmers' income and farmers' education level had highly significant ($P < 0.01$) correlation, while seven variables e.g. farmers' age, family size, purpose of cattle rearing, types of owned breed, cattle farming as main occupation and sharing in training course had significant ($P < 0.05$) correlation with farmer's adoption in health care practices. Non-significant relationship was noted in farm size, number of cattle and current knowledge in health care practices with farmers' adoption. The positive correlation of farmers' income with respondent's adoption of health care practices indicates that the farmers' income is an important variable, which influences in the adoption of health care practices by the farmers. This result is in agreement with Boz (2014), Al-Hassan et al. (2013) who reported significant relationship between the farmers' income and their adoption level. It is because of the fact that a new or modern technology is costly. Anim (2011) also reported that high cost of a new technology might affect the farmers' decision to apply the technology to get extra benefits. Van den Over and Segeren (1997) in Mozambique reported that low adoption of new best management practices and other modern agricultural ways influenced the transfer of technology. They also observed that there was significant correlation ($P < 0.0001$) between adoption of new agriculture practices in the cattle disease management with their education level.

Table 4. The relationship between socio-economic variables and farmers' adoption level in health care practices

Socio-economic characters	No. of pairs	Correlation coefficient (r)
Farm size	241	1.000 ^{NS}
Farmers income	241	0.005 ^{**}
Farmers education	241	0.0001 ^{**}
Farmers' age	241	-0.0268 [*]
Number of cattle	241	0.069 ^{NS}
Family size	240	-0.121 [*]
Sharing in training course	240	0.035 [*]
Purpose of cattle rearing (beef or dairy)	240	0.143 [*]
Types of breed owned	241	0.247 [*]
Cattle farming as main occupation	241	0.399 [*]
Current knowledge in health care practice	240	1.000 ^{NS}

Adoption level of farmers in health care practices

Low level = 0 (136 respondents or 56.7%),
 Medium level = 1 (101 respondents or 42.0%),
 High level = 2 (3 respondents or 1.3%)
 Mean of adoption level= 3.4

* = Significant at 0.05 levels (1-tailed), **= Significant at 0.01 levels (1-tailed), NS = Non significant

It may be because the education level which made the farmers to understand the benefits of new technology and helped them to access to information system, which influenced in making decision (Rahman, 2003). Warriner and Moul (1992) also reported that adoption of Conservation Agriculture practices was correlated positively with farmers' education level. Other variables examined to determine its influence in farmers' adoption in best health care practices and the age of respondent was negatively correlated. It is hypothesized that younger farmers are more likely to adopt health care practices. The outcome of this study is at agreement with the result of Teklewold *et al.* (2006), who indicated that decision in adoption of a new technology by the farmers is influenced by his age. Kiruiet *al.* (2010) and Okello *et al.* (2012) found that there are significant correlations between adoptions of a new agriculture practices in the cattle farming with the age of respondent. The data in table 4 also pointed out that education level is very significantly related to the farmers' adoption. Education is an ordinal variable, therefore the farmers were grouped into five categories namely i). illiterate = zero, ii) Primary = one, iii) Higher secondary = two, iv) Diploma = three and v) university graduate = four to measure farmer' education level.

The variable of purpose of rearing cattle (beef and dairy cattle) mentioned in table 4 indicated a significant correlation as well between the adoption level of farmers and this variable. It might be because of the fact that the demand for meat and milk is increasing day by day in Malaysia, which influenced the adoption level. Types of cattle breed rearing (local, cross breed, improved breeds and combine breeds) is also positively correlated to the farmers' adoption level. It might be due to reason that these breeds need high quality of practices in feeding, breeding and animals' health. This result is supported by Boz (2014). Many part-time and full-time farmers joined the cattle farming practices as their occupation and the farmers' adoption of good health

care practices in cattle farming increased. Berg (2013) reported that the adoption of new technology in the form of Napier grass trap crops was significantly higher amongst farmers who relied only on farming as a main source of their income. In this study there was a significant correlation ($P < 0.01$) between adoption of cattle disease management with their education level. It also may be due to the fact that the education made the farmers understood the benefits of new technology and helped them to access to information system, which influenced in making decision (Rahman, 2003). Similar reports were also made by Warriner and Moul (1992).

Correlation between family size and adoption of health care practices was -0.121 ($P < 0.05$) which indicates that when farmer had a large family size his adoption level was low. The sharing in training course had positive influence at $P < 0.05$ in adopting the-improved technology in Kelantan state. This finding agrees with Koirala *et al.* (2015). Dillon *et al.* (2015) also reported that farmers' sharing in training course was positively related to adoption of the practices.

Conclusion

Findings of this study indicated that 56.7 % of farmers had low level of adoption that mean more than a half of respondents in study area did not apply best health care practices due to different reasons such low level of education, low family income, bigger family size, not sharing in training course, majority of the farmers are older than fifty etc. In conclusion, the bad scenario of smallholder farmers in Kelantan, Malaysia in adopting good health care practices is due to the fact that the farmers of Kelantan do not follow the modern technology of health care practices.

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The Evaluation of “The Derbent Organization” of the Ottoman Empire with an Organizational Management Perspective: A Historical Research

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Abstract

The basic aim of this study is to analyze a historical organization by using modern organization theory instruments. In the frame of this, the Derbent Organization of the Ottoman Empire has been investigated, especially to get lessons for current problems from a historical institution. As the change or the improvement of all types of organizations emerged very rapidly, intensely and radically in the previous century, still the history presents beneficial knowledge that could lead the future. The example or experience of the Derbent Organization of the Ottoman Empire reveals an successful interregional security implementation that can be used or benefited to improve current practices. This is an historical research, so just the library sources used to get data or information.

Key Words: Derbent organization, Ottoman Empire, Management, Historical research

1. Introduction

Human should live and work together in a society to satisfy her/his needs and maintain her/his life. Human is born as a member of an organization and this organization is family. Family is the basic organization which is found by human. Human becomes a member of larger organizations during its growing process and finally finds herself/himself in the organizational web of society. Organization is a system of division of labor and coordination which provides the realization of work which a human can not succeed by herself/himself. Human achieve her/his purposes by integrating his attempts, knowledge and abilities as a group in a frame and advantages of an organizational structure (Koçel, 1984: 37).

Today, organizations have more importance than ever for human, particularly, it has more complex dimensions. It is hard to achieve success for organizations because of this complexity, and the continual change of the organizational environment which causes ambiguousness (Dinçer 1992: 3). Therefore, organizations play a very important role in human life. A society without any organizations can not be imaginable. Accordingly, people maintained their lives by founding organizations in all ages of the history. The reason for setting up organizations is needs of human. As, people can satisfy their needs easier, faster and cheaper through the medium of the organizations, which they can not achieve themselves. For example, a person can not take out a car herself/himself from mud which it is stucked in, but five man can move it from that position if they integrate their energy. This perspective reflects that organizations are the societal institutions which are established by people for the purposes of them that can not be accomplished alone. Thus, there will be organizations whenever human exists. Today, billions of people are working to produce goods or services in all over the world; and millions of people managing these businesses. Hence, all these activities are implemented in a collaboration of economic, social, cultural, religious and political purposes which called as “organization” (Hicks, 1979: 23). Human is born in an organization, live, work, study, have fun, pray and finally die in organizations. Therefore organizations have a very important role in lives of the people. In relation with this, one of best known Turkish-Islamic scholar at the history and the founder of the historical Akhi Organization of Turks, Ahi Evran (1236-1329) pointed out that, humanity needs cooperation for success. Ahi Evran was also suggesting to cluster in an area for the small business owners of his age. Again, he was insisting on forming cooperatives to achieve common interests (Bayram, 1986: 176). This idea can be related with today’s shopping centers. It is interesting that, the importance of clustering was known about 700 years ago to construct common infrastructure.

Organizations are very important for people, for, human open his eyes, grow and live in an organization. On the other hand, organizations are unique. Every organization has a distinctive culture which includes, communication web, systems and procedures, missions and visions, stories, myths (Terzi, 2000: 9). This is the basic rule of life and it expresses how human depends on an organization.

2. The Subject, Importance, Purpose and Contribution of the Study

The subject of this study is the “Derbent” Organization which was established by our ancestors, the Ottomans. The Derbent Organization needs to be searched because of its functions as protecting caravans and trade routes against bandits, acting and operating as an internal security organization because of absence of these, and it also has a role of being an instrument of housing or settlement policy of the Empire. As, Spain struggling with ETA, England fighting against

IRA; Turkey has been battling with PKK outlawed terrorist organization for thirty years. Turkey has been separating a significant part of its budget for this conflict. It can not be said that the high technology of transportation, communication, and unmanned space vehicle of 21st century satisfies the needs of this struggle. Yet, Ottoman Empire succeed in protecting caravans and trade routs against bandits in the Balkans, and in the Middle East while its capital in Istanbul, without benefiting from these types of technical instruments. Hence, when we face terrorist activities of the PKK we can understand the importance and the function of the historical Derbent Organization. The question of this study is that; “are there any lessons which can be taken from the Ottoman experience of the Derbent Organization.” The Derbent organization is one of the major institutions of the Ottoman Empire which kept it strong (Akdağ, 1955: 27-51). As it is needed to take the bow back for shooting an arrow, looking to the history will give many valuable lessons that can lead future so, worths to be focused. The history of nations or communities are like a laboratory working continuously. If this laboratory analysed perfectly, it will be seen that “history” does not remain just in the past, but it exists currently and it will be in the future (Refik, 2004: 79).

In order to analyse the Ottoman Empire exactly, it is essential to identify all its social, economic, administrative, scientific institutions. These organizations transformed the state form a tribe to a world state. The history of Ottoman institutions originates from the far old ages. From this perspective, Ottoman establishments came form the Central Asia Turkish communities and the Islam civilization (Bulbul, 2009: 5).

As the topic is historical, so the research is qualitative which was benefited from the historical sources. Searching for the past events and facts or identifying the relation of the subject with the history makes the process a “historical research”. Every research topic has a short or long background. Therefore, a historical topic can be a subject of any researcher (Ural and Kılıç, 2011: 18). This study has a view of management and organization to a historical event.

3. The Ottoman Organizations about Business

The States and governments are based upon organizations. It is obvious that, without organizations, a state can neither operate nor sustain. On the other hand, if these institutions can not respond to needs of people (Bülbül, 291: 1; Çağatay, 1981: 12; Parmaksızoğlu, 1989: 57-58), or the environment, then, the society can not improve itself; and as a result the state collapses.

The Akhi organization, The Derbent organization were among those which were established by the business owners of Ottoman Empire, that were mainly migrated from Central Asia, and competing with Greek businesses in Anatolia (Çağatay, 1981: 3; Hamitoğulları, 1986: 139). The Mongolian invasion forced them to leave some civilized cities of that century (14th cent.) in Central Asia like: Taskent, Buhara, Semerkant, Merv. The Akhi organization of business owners or artisans was the main bodies of Ottoman’s production.

The Ottomans, as a military state had developed many methods to accomodate its military personnel except war times. Accordingly, Timar, Has, and Zeamet were among the systems to distribute the land of the Sultans’ to people, and make them prepare soldiers for the wars (Danışman, 1972: 16-17; Yıldız, 2006: 41-42). This practice had also another dimension that, these were the only ways to cultivate the land for Ottoman Society; because, the ownership of Ottoman land was belong to only the dynastic family.

The Military tradesmen were the tradesmen who were providing the materials for Ottoman Army. Accordingly, these were the organizations which were joining to the military's raid into other countries; and they were producing, repairing, and selling food, clothes, drink, and equipment that were needed by the soldiers. Then, the state was subsidizing these tradesmen with the "military akça" (military money) or "raid pocket money" (Yıldız, 2006: 41-42). As it can be seen, the Ottomans' war operations were very complicated including the contribution of many organizations.

Waqfs (foundations) were not for-profit establishments which support the society when required, and respond public needs. In the Ottoman Era, these were founded by rich Ottomans, who have a desire to contribute social developments (Kazıcı, 1985: 18). These waqfs were focusing on human without discrimination; and, the state was providing equity in the country also with them. Again, epidemics and crimes, which could be seen as a result of poverty, were being prevented through these foundations (Gerçik, 2011: 17-18). All of these can be as the response of practice to the changing societal needs in those centuries.

4. The Definition of Derbent and the Characteristics of a Derbent Organization

The organization which was tasked to defend strategical passes and roads on the mountainous areas of the Anatolia and the Rumelia of the Ottoman Empire was termed as the Derbent and its people was called as Derbenter. Both Muslims and Christians were charged as Derbenters. For instance, at the term of Sultan Suleyman many Christians were tasked in Hungary. There were changeable number of guards in the Derbents, depending upon the size of organization. They were joining to invasion, or military campaign. The derbenters who were not a part of deployment, were paying "akce" as compensation to Derbenters who became a part of war. Derbent guards were cultivating in the land which was reserved to them; and also they were partially or completely exempted from taxes. They were taking money fee from caravans or passengers, but, they were paying compensation to the people who were robbed (www.turkcebilgi.org/bilim/osmanli-tarihi ; 19.03.2012).

The Derbents were serving at the castle like patrol points to secure crossovers, gates, or bridges. The person who was dealing with this job was called as the Derbenter (or "derbentci"). Basic tasks of a Derbenter were to provide security at the roads and mountain passes, provide road maintenance and guidance. In addition, this organization had other tasks as, to open unmanned or deserted areas for settlements, and act as a security organization. The Derbenters in a Derbent was among one hundred and five hundred, reflecting the size of the organization. Reliable or trusty individuals were chosen to employ as Derbenters. They were working in farming, agriculture or cattle breeding, and they rarely had firearms (Yıldız, 2006 : 43). It can be seen that the organization was multifunctional, so had externalities. This type: of institutions made the Ottoman state more effective in all areas under its control. On the other hand, this multifunctional structure is a consequence of the lack of inhabitant of Ottoman rural. The Derbenters tried to respond all of the needs of caravans or passengers.

The word "derbent" comes from Persian to Turkish. This has two syllables: "der", which means crossover or gate; "bent", which means to keep. In dictionaries, it is defined as the crossing point between to mountains; straits, or small castles at borders (Turkish Dictionary, TDK, 1992 ; 358). The Derbent like organizations can be seen in the past Turkish states. For example, the "Ribat" in Secjuq Empire, and the "Tutkavul" in Ilhanli Sate had the same functions with the

Derbent (Keçici, 2008: 45). Organizations effect their environment and also they are effected by their environments as social institutions. For instance, one of the most important organizations of Ottoman Empire the “Akhi” was effected by another Empire institution the “Futuvva”, and took its many characteristics (Çağatay,1981: 18), the Derbent organization was effected by the “Tutkavul” organization of Ilhan State. The Derbent organization was active in the ruling terms of Sultan Murat II (1421-1451) and and Sultan Mehmet II (1451-1481) of the Ottoman State (Orhonlu,1990: 18). The word of “derbent” and it practice or application demonstrates the level of cultural and structural interaction between the Ottoman State and its neighbours. In a way, it reflects regional entegration, in terms of implementations.

The Derbents were founded at important road crossings, mountains passes or gates. There were no police or gendarmerie organization, so all of the security were provided by the Derbents at that age. The Derbenters were guaranting life and property security of the people using that pass or crossing, otherwise they were forced to compensate the loss (Orhonlu, 1990: 13). The Derbents were established especially at the deserted or unmanned areas of the country. This area could be near of a village or it could be far away from a village. These organizations were located in the junction points of important trade and military routes and mountain passes. A junction point or a central area were satisfying the conditions or the necessisities to be a Derbent. Another characteristics of a Derbent organization was its contribution to the state and the society; in other words, to the “miri” and “reaya”. Places responding these necessities were chosen as the Derbents its community were appointed as Derbenter (derbentci). The other suitable areas which were chosen to establish Derbents were bridges and crossing points of rivers. The people among the villagers who were living in the areas near the bridges which were constructed on unpassable rivers were appointed as Derbenter with condition of protecting passengers or caravans. Derbenters were doing their jobs at the towers or cottages that were constructed on that strait or pass. Accordingly, three or four people or more if needed, who were chosen from a Derbenter village, were peeking surrounding area from a tower or cottage that were built on a high hill (Orhonlu, 1990: 10-13).

5. The Hierarchy of the Organization and its Characteristics

The Derbents as organized institutions began to emerge from the term of Sultan Murat II (1421 – 1451), at the Ottoman Empire. The hierarchy of the organization was including the following levels: “basbug” was the head of the organization; the head of right and left columns was named as “aga”; there was a rank of head of division, and also “zabitans” as officers and as enlisted man the “nefers”. Moreover, for the managerial jobs of the Derbent Organization there was “muhtari derbent” as a head of the managerial staff and imam as responsible person for religious affairs and religious law (Orhonlu, 1990: 24). The hierarchy of the Derbents shows similar characteristics with current military or police organization structures.

The significant point of that organizational structure was that the mass of the levels which was consist of maximum a hundred personnel. On the other hand, when the job owner died, the job was passing his son, in other words it was a hereditary occupation. Moreover, one of the interesting characteristics of the organization was the ban on the Derbenters about firearms. Although the location of the organization was the rural areas the holding fire arms were forbidden to the members (Orhonlu, 1990: 24).

Today, transportation has advanced to very high level. Accordingly, it is possible to carry auxiliary equipment from any point to anywhere in the world just within hours. Thus, many firms have a mission like “to serv ninety nine percent of market without delay” (Dinger, 1991: 58). At the old ages or centuries, in which there were no motor vehicle, long and exhausting journeys were lived with caravans that were consisted of camel, horse, and mules. Sometimes, journeys with caravans lasted for months. At that point, all those caravans were secured by the Derbent organization, in the Ottoman Empire. If Derbenters couldnot arrested criminals, they paid fees themselves. Therefore, they can be called as “the Ottoman insurers”. It was an matter of honour for Derbenters to protect roads. Insurance premium were paid by the state, but the risk was taken on by Derbenters. Hence, caravans were travelling in security. Thus, robbing and raping were not seen at Ottoman roads (Ekinçi, 2008: 9). Contingencies special to ages or centuries formed the characteristics of the Derbents.

6. The Types of the Derbent

The Derbent Organization can be analyzed by separating it into groups (Halaçoğlu, 1988; 95; Orhonlu, 1990: 24-36):

a) Castles as Derbents: The castles which were established on important passes, gates and roads should be accepted as Derbents. These castles were on the most dangerous passes, gates or roads. For example, the Caber Castle on the river Euphrates and the Misis Castle on the Ceyhan River were Derbents like these (Orhonlu, 1990: 24). There were Derbents on the border regions which were transformed as castles afterwards. There were castle series on the pilgrimage to Makke. There were precautions to protect pilgrimage caravans from attacks during the hadj season. For that reason, the people who were on the roads to Mecca were registered as the Derbenters. The hadj caravans coming from the Istanbul and other areas of the Anatolia were meeting in Aleppo. The caravans gathered in Baghdat, Domescus, Aleppo, and Cairo were administrated by a temporary organization (Orhonlu, 1990: 25).

b) Derbent Facilities as Large Charitable Foundations (Wagfs): There were many charitable foundations which were founded to cultivate the fertile soil of the Ottoman Empire from the early ages of the state. By the help of these charitable foundations large firms and irrigation facilities were constructed in farming or agriculture sector. For example, a large facility were established in the Eskiil district of Konya under the name of Karapinar which was a very dangerous village. The establishment consisted of a mosque, a soup kitchen, a bath, thirty nine shops, two mills, and; the costs of these facilities were met from the incomes of eighty four villages and fields which was almost eleven thousand money (Orhonlu, 1990: 28).

Moreover, hans as large commercial buildings and caravansaries were being used as Derbents. These establishments which were constructed on trade routs near a “menzil” had very important functions for economic and social lifes of their ages. Hans and caravansaries were different in terms of shape and volume and these buildings were built in important road intersections of the Ottoman Empire. They were constructed to accomodate and relax traders and passenger during their travel. Hans and caravansaries were allowed the Derbenters to do their jobs, especially in specific hard and dangerous conditions (Orhonlu, 1990: 36).

c) Derbents on Bridges: Some bridges were constructed on passes of rivers that were on the way of caravan roads, and this shows that they had a Derbent character. The bridgers

appointed to these bridgers were assigned for Derbents. They were doing maintenance and protecting bridges (Orhonlu, 1990: 36).

7. The Derbents and the Tasks of the Derbenters

The Derbents and tasks of Derbenters can be analysed in three groups (Orhonlu, 1990: 65; Ersoy, 2008: 51). These are;

a) Provide Security on Roads and Paths as a Gendarmerie force. This security is about the order of the rural areas. There was no other internal security organization of the Ottoman Empire except military forces at the borders. This was the responsibility of the “Subasi” and “Yeniceri” military organizations of the state in the cities, but in rural areas there was no responsible institution. The derbent organization was responsible in the borders of the Derbent areas. The most important task of the Derbent organization was to fight against Bandits and protect region from their attacks. It was a way of acting as a gendarmerie. There were never firearms with them like gun while they were doing their jobs; but they were allowed to use other types of the arms like knives (all cutter tools). Rarely, they were allowed to use guns especially in very dangerous areas (Ersoy, 2008: 51).

b) Provide Maintenance to Roads and Protect Them. In those ages, the transport vehicles on the roads were the mounts (animals as camel, horse, mule, monkey), hansoms, lorries, and other types of wheeled transportation vehicles. The roads were unadoptable. The shapes of were even different because of the need of maintenance. On the other hand, the main roads as from Istanbul to Baghdat, Istanbul to Erzurum, Iran and Caucasus, and also from Istanbul to Syria, Egypt, Arabia, Iraq (to Baghdat and Basra) were continually used by the Ottoman military so they were all in good condition. The reason for this was that, before the military mobilization the main roads were put under maintenance by special personnel. At the same time, ancillary roads were extremely unadoptable, and they were put under maintenance by the Derbent Organization (Ersoy, 2008: 51).

c) The Derbents that were Established to Jollify Uninhabitant Areas. The Derbents were especially founded in uninhabitant areas, this benefited to jollify these areas as well. Therefore, these areas were transformed as suitable lands for farming and agriculture. As a result, by this way, unemployed were employed, infertile, stagnant lands were used. Finally, this process contributed to the productivity (Ersoy, 2008: 51).

8. The Weakening and the Collapse of the Derbent Organization

All of the systems as mechanical, biological, and social systems face with the entropy, so the social organizations as well. Certainly, biological and social systems would survive from entropy by adopting the environment which provides negative entropy. Ibn Haldun, the famous sociologist, wrote in his book the “Mukaddime” that, the life of an organization looks like the life of a man, it ends after some ages; so the states as well (Haldun, 1990: 431); as a result of entropy. The reason for this is, organizations are like living organisms. As the aim of a living, for instance, human is to live a healthy life (Koçel, 1984), organizations also target to survive in life, struggling with illnesses, they should adapt themselves to the changing environment and recruit new members, continuously (Şişman, 1994: 39).

The most important resource of any organization is the human resource. This principal or rule is important for the Derbent organization as well. Therefore if the human resources of an organization weakens then the organization loses strength, and the process of collapse begins, inevitably. This decline process, began in the Derbent organization because of the loss of its functions. While it was a very beneficial, efficient and effective organization in the first terms of its life cycle; it lost its contribution ability, became a dysfunctional organization after a term of misuse or corruption. People began to use this organization to avoid taxes. Being a member of the Derbent organization emerged a way of avoiding taxes and this started the decline of this institution. The process of collapse of the Derbent Organization gained momentum with the beginning of the decline of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman people tried to be a Derbenter to avoid rising war term taxes. As all other institutions of the Ottoman Empire lost their characteristics and then collapsed, the Derbent organization had gone out of history (Danışman, 1972: 32-36).

The survival of the Derbents was depending on the efficiency of the tax exemption system. This was known by the administrators of the Ottoman State. Hence, they precisely tried to maintain the exemption system. The implementation of this thought was changeable. The reasons for the weakening and the collapse of the organization are as follows (Orhonlu, 1990: 120):

a) Demanding higher taxes as a contrast to exemption system: The Derbenters lost their concessions in terms of exemption from taxes. Accordingly, some Derbenters left their responsibilities, quit their castles or related areas.

b) The administrators of the Derbents began to behave in an irresponsible way, and also they were not eligible, in terms of lack of skills and abilities. The Derbent aga, basbug or head of division were the administrators. The lack of skills, abilities, and knowledge made these men serve in an inefficient level. Unfaithful Derbent heads made these institutions a center for bandits.

c) The derbenters became ineffective against the bandit groups. 16th and 17th centuries were remembered for the "Celali" insurrections, which were realized by the farmers that left their lands. They were supported by the Derbenters that left their Derbents. The Derbenters were serving in Derbents as groups which included five members to hundred members. They had the right to use arms just if they were allowed. Conversely, they were continually attacked by large bandit groups that were including up to one thousand armed men, forcing Derbenters to get out of Derbents. Then, the bandits were invading Derbents, after closing roads. These types of tactics are being used by outlawed terrorist organizations in this century too.

The Tanzimat term of the Ottoman Empire is important for its administrative reforms which occurred 1839. These reforms also included the destruction of the Derbent Organization which was in a very weak, bad condition. It was changed with the Zaptiye internal security organization which was established at the same time.

9. Conclusion

The Derbent Organization which was established and developed by the Ottoman Empire affected by other organizations. However, it was special to the Ottoman State and it was an original organization. The origins of the institution were the historical conditions of the related term, social structure, beliefs, and values. Ottoman Empire had policy to secure all its citizens' life and property whoever they are as Muslims, Christians, or from other religions. These

all were accepted as “holly” by the state which comprehend man as valuable. The values hierarchy of the state consisted of human, time and environment; these were all in the high levels. This view created or formed the Derbent Organization.

The life and property security of trade caravans, passengers and people living around Derbent areas were provided by the Derbent organization. At the same time, howling wilderness, waste land or barren land were opened agriculture or farming, and by this way people benefited from them. Thus, as a result of this process, unemployed people were employed, which contributed to the economy of the country. Today, in Turkey the “koruculuk” or the village guarding system is not very successful or efficient that is used against the outlawed organization.

As the world has been changed during the centuries, there is no possibility to reestablish the Derbent Organization. The economic, social, and cultural life of the society has been fundamentally changed and improved. These developments make it impossible to revive the Derbent Organization in the same way. Indeed, there is no need to do this. As it was stated above, the Derbent Organization lived for centuries because of its accordance to social structure of the Ottoman Empire and thanks to this, the rules and law implemented more effectively and the social and economic life were put in order. Thus, to provide internal peace can not be defended as scientific without taking the thought system that founded this organization into consideration. Otherwise, we would make a mistake as ignoring a experience coming from centuries. The basical elements of these types of organizations and main charactaresitics of their thought system should be anlyazed and reevaluated (Ekinici, 2008: 14).

The Derbent Organization was acting as if a non-governmental organization (NGO) which was under the state control; and this institution was responding many social needs. As it can be learnt from the historical documents, the Derbent Organization consisted of a variety of occupations from pharmacist to shoe repairer. Therefore, it can be concluded that, these institutions had a very important, different and multifunctional role in the Ottoman social structure.

The Derbent organization can also be analysed in the frame of the systems approach. It can be said that, this institution reflects the organizational rule, as any destruction in any subsystem of a structure affects the entire system. The Ottoman State system was a perfect system in the first steps of the life cycle of the Empire, but, as particularly, institutions began to weaken the state began to weaken, entirely. As, any living organism begin to fail to survive in the life depending on the emerging more and more disfunctional organs, non-living systems also become weaker and weaker as a result of continuously regressive structural elements.

These organizations were multi functional; as they were defending caravans and passenegers, they were also dealing with cultivation. That was the way of entension of sources for higher income to support activities. This characteristic can be related with the diversification of products of current organizations. At the same time, this situation demonstrates how institutions behave similar in the different ages of the history. This characteristic can also be related with externality. The existence of Derbents allows people to be employed; and wastelands transformed to be benefited from, and all these activities contributed to economy. All of these practices can also be evaluated in frame of the social responsibilities of Derbenters. Externality and soscial responsibilities integrated in a way.

The hierarchy of the Derbent organization reflects division of work, similar with security or police organizations, today. The “basbug” was the head of the organization; the head of right and left columns was named as “aga”; there was a rank of head of division, and also “zabitans” as officers and as enlisted man the “nefers”. Moreover, for the managerial jobs of the Derbent Organization there was “muhtari derbent” as a head of the managerial staff and imam as responsible person for religious affairs and religious law. Current level of military or police organizations has become complicated depending these types of cumulated knowledge or experience.

A Derbenter can't intervene any issue or circumstance, which is not under his responsibility. This is another similarity between the past and current situation of organizations today. Also, Derbenters were responsible for all work they did, or for all tasks they realized.

This establishment can also be examined for the principals of the contingency approach. This organizational experience demonstrates how a state respond in the most effective way to regional or local requirements. Successfully decentralized or delegated power lead the state to a level of “world empire”. In other words, functionally effective structures composed a base for the survival and the enlargement or the growth of the state. Moreover, this institution served as a model for local area security. It can be argued that, conditions of large Ottoman country forced the state to set up instruments to respond contingencies.

The reasons for the collapse of the Derbent organization can be stated as follows: first of all, the institution lost all its discipline and order. Accordingly, members lost the sense of dedication to their jobs and to the organization. Therefore, principles lost their value for members and this took the institution to a involution, which caused deficiency and ineffectiveness. On the other hand, the Derbent could not manage to adapt itself to changing environmental conditions. In other words, this structure failed to respond to environmental requirements. As a consequence of getting out of process or developments , entropy situation emerged; and this association was unsuccessful to achieve the negative entropy. On the whole, the institutions of the Ottoman state lost their power day by day, arranged in a series.

In conclusion, the Derbents are one of the important organizations which were established in a cultural structure including hans and caravansaries and reflecting the economic and social life of its term. As all of mechanical, biological and social systems are exposed to entropy, the Derbent organization has completed its mission, and went out of the historical stage. It should be widely argued that, how could these historical institutions and experiences beneficial to establish daily organizations responding current needs or requirements.

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Elite Capture in Donor-Funded Rural Development Projects in Dodoma Region, Tanzania

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Abstract

Based on a survey of donor-funded development projects in Dodoma Region of Tanzania, this paper seeks to examine the factors that make it possible for elite capture of the projects. The findings reveal that despite much publicized emphasis on community-driven development, the donor-funded projects are vulnerable to elite capture which is contributed by a number of factors including abject poverty of the recipient communities, donor approach, structural asset dependence dependency syndrome and weak capacity of the target communities. The paper concludes that unless elite capture is addressed, most of the development efforts by donor organization will have little impact on the ground.

Key words: Elite Capture, Community Participation, Tanzania

Introduction

This paper draws on the experience of donor-funded rural development projects in Dodoma Region to highlight the factors which contribute to elite capture of the projects among agro-pastoral communities in semi-arid Tanzania. This work has been conceived from on-going criticism of community participation as a panacea for most community programmes (Rifkin 1990). It is argued that despite much publicized emphasis on the importance of community participation, there is now a burgeoning literature which provides evidence that this approach to development may increase the risk of elite capture¹ at the expense of the poor. The experience of donor-funded development projects in Dodoma Region provides further evidence of this.

Concepts of local civic participation, community capacity building and social capital formation are widely asserted to be of importance for democratic good governance, economic development and sustainable resource management (Woolcock, 2010; Mansuri and Rao, 2013). Vecci, et al. (2014) further contend that community participation has long been thought of as an effective method of service delivery and provision of public goods including foreign aid to developing countries. Thus, it is hardly surprising that beginning the 1990s participatory approaches became the domain of small NGOs and at the turn of the millennium, they became endorsed even by the World Bank in the form of community-driven development (Narayan-Parker, 2002). The main argument in favour of this approach is that communities are deemed to have a better knowledge of the prevailing local conditions and a better ability to enforce rules and verify actions related to interventions (Hoddinott et al., 2001). The rationale for community-driven development approach also centers on the notion that community-level participation and accountability arrangements will help ensure that the benefits of development flow to the community as a whole, and more specifically the poor (UNCDF, 1999). Kumar (2002) further asserts that participation is a key instrument in creating self-reliant and empowered communities, stimulating village-level mechanisms for collective action and decision-making.

In addition, the aim of community participation in projects is not only to reverse the existing power relations in a manner that creates agency and voice for the poor but also to allow the poor to have more control over development assistance (Darmawan, 2003). It is expected that this will result in the allocation of development funds in a manner that is more responsive to the needs of the poor. The movement towards adoption of the community-driven development approach has also recently accelerated as a result of strong disillusionment with top-down approaches, especially when aid resources are channeled through state agencies (Platteau and Gaspart, 2003). After all, it is a fundamental right that beneficiaries should have a say about the interventions that affect their lives (Pretty, 1995). Beard and Dasgupta (2006) however, caution that the effects of elite capture are complex and context-dependent and that there is a possibility that the powerful minority groups in a community might take actions that benefit the poor (Mansuri and Rao, 2004).

Elite Capture in Community-Driven Development Projects

The literature on elite capture in community-driven development is fairly mixed (Bardhan and Mookerjee, 2006). On the one hand, there is a copious body of literature which assumes that

¹ According to Beard and Phakphian (2009), elites are: 'individuals who can exert *disproportionate* influence over a collective action processes. Elite capture is a situation where elites manipulate the decision-making arena and agenda and obtain most of the benefits.

elite capture is destructive to community development because when the responsibility of allocating resources is delegated to local organizations, village-level elites tend to appropriate the resources and almost nothing to the poor (Galasso and Ravallion, 2000). Despite the potential gains from the community-driven development projects theoretical and empirical literatures have consistently showed that social programs could be vulnerable to local elites, who might capture the program's benefit for their own (Darmawan 2013). Conning and Kevane (2002) further contend that the elites might abuse their power to alter the nature of poverty programs by influencing the local decision making to deliver the outcome that benefiting them.

Furthermore, several studies demonstrate that elite capture is positively associated with inequality level, either in assets or income, within communities especially when the local poor are powerless. This is especially true in the lowest government level as the lower the level of government; the greater is the extent and possibility of elite capture (Bardhan and Mookherjee, 2000). Existing literature further shows that elite capture could inhibit decentralized targeting from delivering the desired outcomes. Jutting et al., (2004) allude to the fact that high levels of poverty and inequality at the local level perpetuate elite capture and corruption, and have the potential to undermine the functioning of community-driven development programs. Mansuri and Rao (2004) also argue that in some cases community-based approaches may not necessarily be empowering in practice, thus, becoming vulnerable to elite capture. These sentiments are further echoed by Platteau (2004) who contends that, contrary to the assumptions that elite capture can be avoided by democratizing the decision-making process, the participatory space fails to 'mitigate the opportunism of local leaders', and instead, gives the elites incentives to intervene.

Situations where donor agencies are tempted to skip the empowerment phase by asking intended beneficiaries to form groups and to 'elect' leaders to direct them also provides an environment for the elite to intervene (Platteau and Gaspart, 2003). Given the power relations and the structural asset dependence that obtains in communities with noticeable inequality the associations will inevitably be led by the elites. Perhaps this is unavoidable because the intended beneficiaries are not empowered in terms of organizational skills and bargaining for projects. Another situation leading to elite capture is that local elites may be capable of mobilizing, accumulating and investing in their already-owned social, political and economic capital to hijack the projects (Platteau and Gaspart, 2003). Relative power of different actors in community dynamics may also contribute to local elites being capable of mobilizing, accumulating and investing in their already-owned social, political and economic capital to hijack the projects (Fritzen, 2007). Therefore, despite the World Bank funded projects being often designed to circumvent existing local leaders, and thus devolving decision-making and implementation of projects to ordinary villagers (Mansuri and Rao, 2012), it is still difficult to avoid the influence of the local elites.

Having expounded on the vulnerability of community-driven development to elite capture it is important to appreciate the positive side of local elites. In fact, Mansuri and Rao (2004) raise the possibility that elites, within contexts of clear disparities in power, might take actions that benefit the poor – so-called "benevolent capture". But to date few studies have examined the mechanisms by which this might occur in community-driven development project contexts (Dasgupta and Beard, 2007). Therefore, in theory, elite capture may not be harmful if it reflects "benevolent" capture, wherein elites are better informed about the optimal projects and act altruistically on behalf of their communities (Beath et al, 2015).

From the perspective of some villagers the local elites were very important people to their community. The majority agreed that some elites would come out to help the needy during times of hardships. Other respondents remarked that some elites even without any political power would help to resolve conflicts involving members of the villages. Yet other elites were credited for providing food to the food-insecure households in exchange for farm labour. In appreciation of the good spirits that some elites have, they would always be invited to get relief foods even when they have plenty in their homes, *“they were with us during difficult times, they did not abandon use, but instead, they gave us food. Therefore, it is only right to give them at least something as a mark of respect and appreciation”*.

Elite Capture in Donor - Funded Development Projects in Dodoma Region

In Dodoma region, the population is relatively poor, relying on traditional farming and livestock keeping, the success of which is threatened by unpredictable rainfall patterns and low investment capacity. There are, however, pockets of exception: in Kondoa and Kongwa agriculture is mechanized and conducted on a larger scale, and socio-economic status is noticeably higher (Haysom, 2006). Otherwise, a large part of the region faces the problem of food insecurity. Such has been the magnitude of food insecurity that many donor-supported rural development programmes have been drawn into the scene to address the problem. In order to address these problems participation and ownership are terms that are widely used in development discourse, and the adoption of participatory methodology is evident among many NGOs and government staff in Dodoma region (Haysom, 2006).

Among the most conspicuous organizations operating in the regions include: World Vision, Inades Formation, Compact, Under the Same Sun, Rural Livelihood Development Company, World Food Programme, Care International and many others. Food insecurity and other poverty related problems have been approached from various angles spanning from supporting marketing networks of crops, funding the establishment of community cereal banks, supporting the establishment of processing and marketing cooperatives as well as implementation of community health programmes. Despite these initiatives, food insecurity is still persistent, and this, in a way, reflects the limited effectiveness of donor-funded development initiatives.

In the views of villagers in the study area, the local elites have some characteristics which distinguish them from the rest of members in the rural communities. Generally, these people fall in the well-off category along the wealth spectrum. They are food-secure and in some cases they have enough for sale or to give to the needy households during critical moments. Some are retired civil servants. The local elites were also thought as people who have strong urban linkages with either their off-springs living in urban areas. In the context of agro-pastoralism, most such elites would also have large herds of cattle through which they are now to command other resources. Some local elites (*mtwangwa*) in this case may have large herds of cattle both for sale but in other cases some may be kept just for prestige and cultural identity. In addition to possession of large herds of cattle, some of the local elites have large farms of land and their production usually go far beyond subsistence levels. Yet, others may, in addition to having large farmlands and livestock, engage in trading.

Interestingly, people in Makoja village also remarked that some of the local elites were born from well-off families but others *“were among us, but all they did was to seize opportunities that came by”*. By and large, local elites are a product from the very societies in which most

people live, and therefore, they have vast knowledge about their communities. These attributes are best summed up by Dasgupta and Beard (2007) who contend that the power of elites is perpetuated through land holdings, family networks, employment status, wealth, political and religious affiliation, personal history and personality.

The interventions of local elites in donor-funded development projects spans from benevolent, control and capture. However, as it will be discussed in subsequent sections of this paper, the work of local elites is more noted in the control and capture of projects. This explains, to a great extent, the dismal performance of the projects. The following sections provide a detailed account of the factors leading to elite capture of donor-funded development projects.

Factors Leading to Elite Capture

There has been a noticeable dominance of local elites in the operations of rural development projects in semi arid Tanzania, particularly in Dodoma Region. This has been contributed by a number of factors which include, for example, abject poverty, structural asset dependence, donors' approach to implementation of projects and dependency attitudes on the part of host communities.

Abject Poverty

A wide body of literature suggests that elite capture is more noticed in communities with economic inequality (Oxfam, 2014). This is also noted among agro-pastoral communities in semi-arid Tanzania which are among the poorest areas in the country. The harsh climatic conditions make agricultural production a very risky economic activity. Frequent crop failures result into food insecurity. Such has been the seriousness of food insecurity that in some situations these communities survive on relief foods provided mostly by donor-funded organizations. Under such circumstances, the majority of the food-insecure households find themselves pursuing short-term but less beneficial options over long-term and more rewarding livelihood options. It is argued that such a situation creates room for elite capture.

Two examples illustrate situations in which local elites intervene in projects intended for the poor. First, due to inability of poor households to contribute to the running community cereal banks, these institutions have fallen into the hands of local elites who operate them largely for their own personal benefits. When community cereal banks were established in this part of the country, the arrangement was for the food-insecure households to buy shares (in the form of cereals) to become members. The price of one share was deliberately kept low to accommodate even the poorer sections of the community. Few managed but others failed on account of having almost nothing for buying the shares. Even those who managed to become members did not persist long due to either failure to deposit cereals or non-payment of loaned cereals. Actually, this is also part of the reasons for the poor performance and in other cases, the total collapse of community cereal banks (Mwamfupe, 2015). It is argued here that poverty has contributed to the succumbing of poor households to the forces of local elites and hence, elite capture. Failure to purchase shares and lack of deposits for the community cereal banks has created an opening for the local elites to use the facilities (warehouses) for stocking their cereals and for other purposes than what they were intended for.

Second, in an effort to reduce labour migrations and raise income of its rural population, Chamwino District Council established block farms for grapevines. The scheme is a tripartite

arrangement involving Chamwino District Council, CRDB bank and the farmers. The District Council entered into an agreement with CRDB bank for the purpose of securing loans on behalf of the farmers in the scheme. The loan covers costs of preparation of trenches, irrigation, manure and purchase of seedlings and other farm inputs. The farmers on their side are required to pay only Tshs 20,000/= per acre and clear the farms. The rest of the costs are being recovered from the sale of grapes. Some farmers sold their plots even before the first harvest while few others did so after few seasons of harvest. All those who had sold their plots complained that they were in critical demand for food and the only asset they could lay their hands on was the grapevine plots. The argument here is that the poor households lost opportunities to earn an average income of about Tshs 7million per acre per annum, which is more than the minimum annual wage in the public sector in the country. Some of the new owners of the plots are certainly not among the local elites, but such an experience serves to illustrate how abject poverty has compelled the rural poor to seek short-term benefits and forego high rewarding benefits in the long-term. Such openings pave way for the elites to intervene into projects that were meant for the poor segment of the population.

Dependency Syndrome

The role of development aid in the growth process of developing countries has been a topic of intense debate. While development aid has played a role in reducing poverty among the chronically poor, Harvey and Lind (2005) argue that prolonged relief assistance can undermine local economies, and that large amounts of food aid for example, can damage local agricultural production and thus leading to a continuing need for relief assistance, creating a vicious cycle and trapping people into chronic dependency. The rural communities in Dodoma Region provide a typical example of dependency syndrome and how it has negatively impacted the local initiatives for earning a living. Food insecurity resulting from poverty and recurrent drought is a persistent problem in Dodoma Region. Such has been the seriousness of the problem that some families survive on relief foods especially during the dry season.

The dependency syndrome that most people exhibit can be explained to have been a result of the long history of relief food given by the government. Such food hand outs were given to the food insecure households during periods of acute food shortage. They have, since then developed such a syndrome, and this has made them dependent on the government even when better options for survival are readily available. Such a tendency has denied the poor of opportunities to develop a sense of ownership of community-driven development projects. The projects are still labelled as 'donor projects', and the funders of these projects are still looked at sources of additional funds where own generated funds are not adequate. The collapse of community cereal bank in Makoja village explains the situation best. Therefore, without a sense of ownership for donor-funded development projects a loophole is created through which the local elites intervene. Therefore, unless dependency syndrome among the poor is addressed community-driven development will still face daunting challenges.

Donor Approach

Donors' approach to community-driven development projects is also a source of the problem of which the local elites take advantage, and this is on two counts. First, the poor performance of the projects and the subsequent capture by local elites stem from the failure of donor organizations to distinguish between organic and induced participation (Mansuri and Rao, 2013). Organic participation is where citizens act independently of the government while induced

participation is where donors or governments encourage people to participate. The establishment of processing and marketing cooperatives and community cereal banks was crafted in such a way that the intended beneficiaries would participate (induced participation) in running the projects. However, induced participation requires top-down efforts, and it is unlikely to be effective unless it is supported by at least some elements of the state. Both the processing and marketing cooperatives and the community cereal banks were structured to operate outside the mainstream of the local institutions such as the District Councils and village governments. Although these are the very institutions that donor organizations struggle to avoid, they remain very important building blocks when it comes to mobilization of resources, monitoring and evaluation of the projects, as well as providing legal support whenever the need to do so arises. Indeed, the poor performance of the processing and marketing cooperatives serve to illustrate the reality that local development projects that attempt to bypass domestic institutions in favor of donor-created structures do not work well. This is further compounded by impending intervention or even capture of the projects by local elites. Thus, by not empowering the beneficiaries, the participatory approach is likely to end up reinforcing the very structures of unequal privilege it seeks to upset.

Second, donors' approach is also responsible for creating conditions that makes it easy for local elites to intervene in development projects. The importance of empowering the poor in decision making processes cannot be overemphasized. Vecci, et al. (2014) argues that for community-driven development to succeed, the development programmes must enable the decision making power of the rural poor, particularly in terms of capacity for collective action. Capacity building² is an essential step in preparing the community for sustainable development. Most communities in central Tanzania have demonstrated weak organizational capacity in the face of donor-funded rural development projects. The experience of running the Processing and Marketing Cooperatives (PMCs) illustrates this weakness. INADES Formation for example, financed the establishment of Processing and Marketing Cooperatives in several villages of Dodoma Region with a purpose of facilitating smooth processing and marketing of sunflowers which would eventually contribute to additional household income. Despite the villagers buying membership shares (in the form of sunflowers), these cooperatives are performing very poorly while others have collapsed. The poor performance of these cooperatives is largely attributed to a combination of factors such as weak organizational capacity, lack of sense of ownership, and lack of close follow-up of project accounts on the part of project beneficiaries. Indeed, members of the project, who are the asset holders and direct beneficiaries of the processing and marketing cooperatives, do not seem to hold the management to account. This has created room for few individuals to operate these institutions mainly for personal benefits. Elsewhere in central Tanzania (Singida Region), it is reported that some 19 villages are beneficiaries of Water Aid - funded schemes which were participatory and demand-responsive. However, the communities lack information and experience of management and are, therefore, unable to challenge the facilitator or make a free and informed choice. This has contributed to failure in achieving sustainability (Haysom, 2006).

² Capacity building is conceptualized as the process of instituting a continuous adjustment of the change agents' as well as the stakeholders' attitudes, values and practices from state of conformity to that of transformation. It involves building up appropriate knowledge and skills aimed at strengthening each partner's ability to make effective decisions on what to do in their own circumstances (Mulwa, 2003).

In other cases, the funding organizations are impatient and need quick results of interventions. As a result, they miss the opportunities to understand patterns of knowledge of the targeted population. For example, in a move to raise income of the rural poor INADES Formation introduced incubators to six villages in an effort to improve poultry farming in the villages. In less than two months, villagers realized that the number of chicks that came out was less than 50% of the number of eggs they had put in the incubators. On account of this, four out of six incubators have been rejected. The argument is that *“machines will never succeed altering nature as created by God”* (interview with a male respondent in Sejeli village, 20 July, 2015). The interpretation is that only chicken hatch eggs and not machines. As expected, few enlightened farmers have taken advantage to use the incubators. Perhaps the logical thing here is that had the project funders spent time to build some capacity in terms of imparting basic knowledge on incubators, then the rate of acceptance would have been higher.

Structural Asset Dependency

Structural asset dependency of poor people on the elite also contributes to elite capture. For example, during the times of critical shortages of food, the starving households get some assistance from the well-off households. As a mark of appreciation, these elites are given support to take lead in managing the projects. The poor feel obliged to do so, and in other cases it goes even to inclusion of the better-off households in benefiting from relief food which is meant for the neediest households. While this may appear surprising, one adult woman in Manzilanzi village remarked that *“We also insist that they also get relief foods because these are our saviors during times of difficulties, and therefore, they (the better-off) must also get at least something from the relief supplies”* (12 May 2015). What we gather from this response is that in situations where the rural poor are in desperate need for food, they survive on social ties of reciprocity, and kinship. These are also the same ties they would wish to reciprocate to as investment for future. In so doing, they end up reinforcing the authority of the elites.

In socially and economically differentiated societies, as is the case among agro-pastoral communities, elite capture is inevitable. This is equally noted by Bardhan (2000) who notes that some degree of elite capture is inevitable, especially in highly heterogeneous communities marked by deep inequalities where elites are often leaders who embody moral and political authority. Johnston and Clark (1982) also contend that the elite are linked to the poor through a variety of patronage and dependency relationship. Thus, elite exert their influence less often by coercion, and more by moral claim and symbolic power (Bourdieu, 1996). The contribution of structural asset dependence on elite domination is also documented elsewhere. For example, Wong (2010) describes a situation where the elites (*Sardars*) have a firm control of most of the fishing equipment such as boats and fishing nets, and thus, controlling the fishing communities in Bangladesh.

Conclusion

A number of conclusions can be picked from the preceding discussion. First, in addition to the harsh environmental conditions which place limits on agricultural production, persistence of poverty in parts of Dodoma region can also be explained as a result of elite capture and resignation to poverty among the poor. Second, implementation of community-driven development cannot afford to ignore the role of local leadership in building partnership with the local communities. This is essentially because these leaders have a wealth of knowledge about the population they

live with. By-passing the local leaders may prove to be costly than otherwise. Third, part of the explanation for ease with which local elites dominate the decision making process is the weak negotiating capacity of the grassroots beneficiaries. This calls for the need to build capacity for sustaining the intended benefits of rural development programmes. Fifth, more understanding of power and social relations at grassroots level is imperative. Structural asset dependence of the poor on elites is obviously an unavoidable situation which is rooted in the cultural ties among agro-pastoral communities. Finally, the effects of elite capture on development projects cannot be ignored. Unless this problem is addressed, food insecurity will persist and poverty will continue to engulf the rural poor.

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Error Analysis as Needs Analysis: Alternative Methodology in Second/Foreign Language English Pedagogy

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Abstract

Non-linguists usually see errors as aberrations, loathe them, just as students dread them. But errors are essential part of second/foreign language learning. Nigeria is a multilingual nation and English, as a second language, is dominant in many linguistic domains, particularly in official and educational sectors. The language is the chief of the superstructure of exoglossic languages that sit on top of the many indigenous languages in Nigeria. This study considers errors committed by second language English users as useful means of identifying their needs which teachers are expected to respond to promptly and appropriately. Four research questions, based on the set objectives were asked, to which the study provides answers. For this study, the data comprises errors made by respondents that border on intelligibility, errors that have high frequency of occurrence and errors that are relevant to pedagogical purpose. The data for the study was collected from learners and users of English as a second language, using typed course assignment by university undergraduates, May/June 2007 Chief Examiners Report of West African Senior School Certificate Examination, conducted by one of the major public examination bodies in West Africa and essays written in the normal course of learning by Senior Secondary School students in Osun State, Nigeria. In this study, we have employed a simple classification scheme to categorize learners' errors to enable us capture all possible errors that may manifest which a straitjacket classification, in the literature, may not cover. Errors were identified, categorized and their causes explained. Although the data size is small, a qualitative research does not require a large size as the number of participants is usually small but carefully chosen. Besides, qualitative research mostly focuses on understanding the particular and the distinctive, and does not necessarily seek or claim to generalize findings to other contexts, for which a large data size may be required. The study concludes that error analysis in second/foreign language English teaching/learning process is similar to the needs analysis procedure in ESP for the purpose of focused teaching because errors assist the teacher to identify the common language problems as learners' needs that still require specific attention for the purpose of remediation. This is the nexus between error analysis and needs analysis.

Keywords: error, error analysis, needs analysis, ESL/EFL, pedagogy.

Introduction

Nigeria is reputed to be one of the largest users of English as a second language in the world. However, the performance of second language English learners continues to worry all concerned, particularly in the education sector. Many atimes, the blame has been laid at the door step of second language English teachers, whose pedagogy of second language English still leans substantially towards the traditional methods of grammar translation and audiolingual that heavily penalise errors. In Nigeria, especially the southwest geopolitical zone, where this work is limited to, many are Yoruba-English bilinguals, at least, if we go by Crystal's (2003), idea of bilingual competence as dealing with less, rather than more of monolingual ability. As bilinguals, some level of proficiency is expected, although native language competency level may not be attainable. Errors are therefore not unexpected in the teaching/learning process, just as mistakes or slips are not uncommon even among native speakers. Rather than frown at errors, teachers should see them for their value as feedback in the teaching/learning process.

Over the years, methodologies have held sway, but according to Kiely, Davis, Carter & Nye (2008: 12), "Language teaching is in a post-method age". While no one is condemning some old tested methods of language teaching, no one method possesses the cure for all problems that have been associated with second language learning. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method is still popular, because of its "reaction against the artificiality of 'pattern practice' and the belief that consciously learning the grammar of a language will necessarily result in an ability to use the language". The communicative approaches hold that "the function of language (i.e. what it is used for) should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (i.e. correct grammatical or phonological structure)" (Yule, 1997: 194). The CLT continues to gain acceptability as an attempt to teach L2 through a process of imitation of L1 acquisition, and its rate of error tolerance is quite high. The emphasis on L2 pedagogy using the CLT approach is to jettison second language study as a formal system for language as communication. In the traditional approaches to second/foreign language English teaching, such as grammar translation and audio-lingual methods, learners acquire the formal features of the target language, albeit effectively, they usually fail to translate the knowledge to effective communication in real life language situations. Although CLT is now popular, many today are advocating for a more eclectic approach to second language English teaching because "However trendy the communicative approach may be, we cannot disregard the prevailing practice in ordinary classrooms..." (Oka, 2004: 3). English for Specific Purposes (ESP), as a form of CLT is gradually being introduced to the Nigerian second language English pedagogy, at the tertiary level of education, as a way of achieving effective communication, where other pedagogical methodologies seem to have failed to stem the tide of dwindling efficiency in the use of English, which is the nation's official language. Yildiz (2004) describes English for Specific Purposes (ESP) "as an approach to teaching English as a foreign or second language".

The English language in Nigeria

English, in Nigeria, has become part of the nation's linguistic family, having been bequeathed to us by our erstwhile colonial masters. The language is now the chief of the superstructure of exoglossic languages that sit on top of the many indigenous languages in Nigeria. The English language in Nigeria also has varieties (see Brosnaham, 1958; Banjo, 1971; Adesanoye, 1973; Obiechina, 1974; Adekunle, 1979; Adedoyin, 1997; Udofot, 2004). With the digital revolution, a new variety is also emerging that is giving some linguists serious concern. In

all these varieties, education level and linguistic features of spoken English form the major criteria for classification.

English has dual roles in Nigeria. First, it is the nation's official language used in formal occasions and in all government transactions at national and international levels, and so it is taught in schools at all levels of the nation's educational system. Besides, it is a tool, used to impart knowledge in schools, by virtue of the provision in the nation's National Policy on Education (NPE) in its various revised editions. The official status and legislative backing the language enjoys notwithstanding, "the reality is that English is a second language in contact with several indigenous languages [and so] expected that interference features from these local languages...occur in the variety of English...emerging in Nigeria" (Akere, 2009:5), and this may result in unavoidable errors, but this must be seen as part of the learning process.

Error and second language English learning

Errors, as distinguished from mistakes or slips, although often used interchangeably, represent learners' imperfections in the course of second/foreign language learning. While it is inconceivable to imagine that learners will not err while learning a second or foreign language, what interests linguists is the systematic errors featuring in the language use of learners. Unsystematic ones are inconsequential, as native speakers also make what linguists call unsystematic performance. When learners of a second or foreign language err, it is an indication that they are experimenting with and exploring new uses of the target language. An error, according to Yule (2007:194), "is not something which hinders a student's progress, but is probably a clue to the active learning progress being made by a student as he or she tries out ways of communicating in the new language."

Although most people, particularly non-native speaker second language English teachers, who themselves are imperfect, in a bid to want to maintain linguistic purity at the expense of real communication, frown at errors and see them as things that must not be touched, even with a long pole. In reality, however, errors are not unexpected and so are not really bad in second language learning. Error is an instrument in the teaching/learning process of English as a second/foreign language. They are a form of feedback to the teacher, enabling him/her to know what has not been properly taught or learnt, which may necessitate the teacher adopting another teaching method to accomplish the pedagogic purpose. Error analysis is therefore a form of needs analysis required in ESP as a form of CLT as errors detected point to what has not been learnt which constitute the needs of learners that are yet to be met. When errors are identified, needs are revealed. To the transformationalists, mistakes, which are socially inappropriate forms, are also indications, for the teacher, of the manner in which learners are trying to cope with the challenges faced with the structure of the target language (Bell 1981).

Research objective

The main objective of this study is to identify systematic errors made by Nigerians using English as a second language, as an indication of their needs to make them effective users of English as a second and official language. English is Nigeria's official language and the language of instruction in schools. The specific objectives of the study include the following:

- a) Identification of common errors made by second language English learners in Nigeria that make them ineffective users of the language;

- b) Classification of the errors;
- c) Showing why and how these errors occur;
- d) Showing the significance of these errors in second/foreign language English pedagogy.

Research questions

The objectives above are needed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the common errors made by second language English learners in Nigeria that make them ineffective users of the language?
2. How are the identified errors classified?
3. Why and how do these errors occur?
4. What is the significance of these errors in second/foreign language English pedagogy?

Methodology

This is a simple corpus-based qualitative research and relies substantially on data collected from the following sources:

- I. scripts (take-home assignment on ELS 303: Introduction to Applied Linguistics) of Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti students, numbering 179, in the 2012/2013 academic session
- II. May/June 2007 Chief Examiners Report of West African Senior School Certificate Examination, conducted by one of the major public examination bodies in West Africa. As an international examination body, the West African Examination Council (WAEC) administers standardized tests through the Test and Measurement Department.
- III. 100 randomly selected secondary school students from five schools in Osun State Nigeria, through the aid of an undergraduate student of Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti.

Population and sampling technique

Data was collected from 20 randomly selected scripts out of the 179 scripts submitted, which is more than 10%, the Chief Examiners' Report and 10 scripts, representing 10% randomly selected from 100 students from the randomly selected schools in Osun State. Since it was not possible to document all the errors committed, the following criteria were used for the few errors selected for the study:

- a) Errors bordering on intelligibility;
- b) Errors that have high frequency of occurrence and
- c) Errors that are relevant to pedagogical purpose.

The error identification and categorization here, though few reveal the needs of this category of second language English learners. In any case, as a qualitative research, the number of data need not be large, for "the number of participants is usually small and they are carefully chosen" Croker (2009:8). Further, Croker says "qualitative research mostly focuses on

understanding the particular and the distinctive, and does not necessarily seek or claim to generalize findings to other contexts” (p.9).

Research instrument

The instruments used for this study include:

- I. Written assignments of the 179 Ekiti State University undergraduates;
- II. Identified errors in the May/June 2007 Chief Examiners Report of West African Senior School Certificate Examination;
- III. Written essay given to randomly selected 100 secondary school students from Osun State in their respective schools.

The adoption of these instruments was informed by the need to get a balanced information on common errors deserving remediation that cut across the different education levels, from university undergraduates to students who are still in secondary schools.

Administration of the instrument

The university undergraduates were given two weeks to turn in their take-home assignment. The attempts were typed, with the belief that they had had sufficient time to revise and so submit an ideal presentation. This was to enable the researcher distinguish between mistake and error. In other words, whatever deviation that had not been self-corrected in the submitted final version was regarded as error, which is an obvious deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker indicating the learners’ interlanguage competence (Brown, 2000). The published Chief Examiners’ Report provided ready-made data, and we simply adopted already identified errors in the May/June 2007 WASSCE English language Paper I. The written essay for the 100 secondary school students was administered by the undergraduate research assistant, and responses collected on the spot to ensure the true performance of the students was what we got, as a take-home assignment could have other people’s input.

Data presentation, analysis and discussion

The data for the study comprise mainly the errors identified in the attempts of the respondents, based on the criteria set above. Classification of errors in Error Analysis has had various methodologies in its literature (see Johnson, 2001; Lewis, 2002), in this study, we have employed a simple classification scheme to categorize learners’ errors to enable us capture all possible errors that may manifest which a straitjacket classification scheme, in the literature, may not cover.

Table 1: Errors in university undergraduate typed assignments

Errors	Category	Remarks
However, there <i>exist</i> a slight difference between the two terms	Concord	Knowledge of grammatical concord still needed
Error is as a result of <i>incompetent</i> .	Parts of speech	Inability to distinguish parts of speech
The only way to avoid mistakes would be to avoid speaking and <i>written</i> in a foreign language	Wrong form of word	Inability to distinguish between the spellings of the progressive form and the participle

All language teachers and language learners are aware that <i>learners makes</i> mistakes	Concord	Knowledge of grammatical concord still needed
Mistake <i>course</i> a misconception	Concord/ spelling	Knowledge of grammatical concord still needed/ Inability to distinguish between words that have same or similar pronunciation, but spelt differently.
<i>Though some English spelling is different but</i> it is possible with...	Syntax	Inappropriate use of <i>but</i> and <i>though</i>
In this paperwork both error and mistake <i>has</i> been defined	Number	Inability to distinguish between singular verb <i>has</i> and the plural <i>have</i>
The <i>learners himself</i> can correct it later	Number	Inability to match the number of reflexive pronoun with its antecedent

The errors identified in the table above show undergraduates' needs in the areas of grammar, especially grammatical agreement as majority of the students' scripts are replete with this category of error, and are, in fact, too numerous to document for reasons of space and to avoid being unnecessarily unwieldy (Research Question 1, [RQ1]). The continued occurrence of the error of concord is an indication that it is not a performance slip, since the learners could not correct the instances of the error themselves, until relevant input is provided. In other words, this is an actual competence error, which reveals a need as a result of inadequate learning [RQ3].

Teachers, at this level, should focus attention on errors that have revealed the actual, rather than the perceived needs of this category of learners, instead of the continued use of the traditional methods of general purpose English teaching that lacks focus, and too generalized to be impactful, as it is still the practice in many institutions of this kind in Nigeria [RQ 4].

Table 2: Identified errors in the May/June 2007 WASSCE English language Paper I

Errors	Category	Remarks
How <i>is</i> your <i>studies</i>	Concord	Knowledge of grammatical concord still needed
How <i>is</i> your <i>mummy and daddy</i>	Concord	Knowledge of grammatical concord still needed
<i>hope</i> everything is going well	Mechanical	A new sentence starts with the upper case
...if so <i>Glory</i> be to God	Mechanical	Unnecessay capitalization of words that are not proper nouns within a sentence
'no', 'know' and 'now' used indiscriminately	Spelling	Inability to distinguish between words that have same or similar pronunciation, but spelt differently.

The errors identified in the table above are from the scripts of the final examination of Senior School Certificate students as detailed in the Chief Examiners' Report. This category of

students require a minimum of credit pass in English, in addition to other requirements, to qualify for further studies at post-secondary school institutions which include the university. It is obvious, from this table that prevalent errors at this level include grammar, also in the area of concord and mechanical accuracy, which includes spelling and capitalization [RQ2]. These are areas that do not usually form direct teaching targets at this level, and must now begin to receive more attention. With error analysis revealing actual needs, both teacher and learners can now have a focused teaching/learning interaction rather than the General Purpose pedagogy that views universal aspects of language [RQ4]. It has been observed that in second language English assessment “Most often than not...tests bear no relationship with their instructional goals or objectives” (Malgwi, 2000: 22). There is high intolerance of errors in second language English teaching/learning process, to the extent that errors are heavily penalized by teachers who expect native-speaker competence from second language learners. Similarly, students also dread errors as they are afraid to be constantly red-penned by overscrupulous teachers, and so many of them are not encouraged to perform, thus veiling their real needs through errors that may come up in their performance and a second/foreign language learner who is avoiding L2 use for whatever reason is not willing to learn [RQ 4].

Table 3: Errors in the written essay of Senior Secondary School students in selected schools in Osun State

Errors	Category	Remarks
Prof Roy is a prominent <i>acdemician</i>	Overgeneralization	Wrong importation of noun formation, as in politics=politician, music=musician
He walked to school as he couldn't <i>avoid</i> a taxi fare	Spelling	Wrong spelling resulting from wrong pronunciation
I won't spend one penny on that <i>invaluable</i> painting	Lexical- (invaluable=very useful)	Misuse of words as a result of overgeneralization of the morphological rule of negation as in <i>incurable</i> =not curable
Uncle <i>Kunle</i> wife	Mechanical	Omission (apostrophe)
Enter a bus when you are coming	L1 interference	Cultural transliteration
Are you hearing me?	L1 interference	Cultural transliteration
Reverse back	L1 interference	Cultural transliteration
I felt devastated and confused if I beat the boy or report him...	Syntactic	Jumbled expression

The errors manifested by this category of learners are more varied than the previous groups [RQ2]. This is a reflection of their level of education and a pointer to their needs. The frequent cases of L1 interference point to the fact that this category of learners is experimenting with the language and “the learner who is willing to guess, risks making mistakes, and tries to communicate in the L2 will tend, given the opportunity, to be successful” (Yule, 2007: 195) [RQ1]. Ezimaje (2013) has recorded a similar pattern of errors in secondary school students, in a pilot study, saying the cases of interference in form of direct transliterations from the first language must have been necessitated by the fact that their thought processes are rooted in their mother tongue.

The errors identified here are, by no means exhaustive, they are just a few of the errors that seem to border on intelligibility, have a high frequency of occurrence and relevant to pedagogical purpose. These errors have significance for second/foreign language pedagogy [RQ4], since, according to Johnson (2001:59), “Errors can hold vital clues about the processes of [ÈSL] learning. It is rather like the pain that tells the doctor more than all the parts that do not hurt”.

Conclusion and recommendations

The fact that English varies for so many reasons now necessitates, more than ever before, non-insistence on attaining native-like competence, especially by second/foreign language English learners. The still popular Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) should now take precedence over the traditional methods of second/foreign language English teaching which “leaves students ignorant of how the language is used” but emphasis structure and “isolated practice in drilling language patterns [which] bears no resemblance to the interactional nature of actual language use” (Yule, 2007: 193), all to the detriment of effective use of English in real life situations. In CLT, as in ESP, the learner takes precedence over method, especially now that language teaching is in a post-method era, and teachers now adopt “an extensive and ever-changing repertoire of pedagogic strategies and techniques...deployed in both planned and responsive ways in lessons. Such a view...suggests that effectiveness derives from experience and expertise develops from creativity engaging with novel challenges in the classroom” (Kiely, Davis, Carter & Nye (2008: 12). It has also been observed that:

one radical feature of most communicative language approaches is the toleration of ‘errors’ produced by learners. Traditionally, ‘errors’ were regarded negatively and had to be eradicated. The more recent acceptance of such errors in learners’ language is based on a fundamental shift in perspective from the more traditional view of how second languages are acquired (Yule, 2007: 194).

This has formed a major departure, from traditional language teaching processes, which has made CLT popular. There is now less focus on form and placing little or no emphasis on errors as fluency rather than correctness is the goal. According to Corder (1967), the distinction between mistake and error is better construed when error of performance is seen as ‘mistake’ that is insignificant to the language learning process while the term ‘error’ is reserved for the systematic deviation from the grammar of the target language from which the learner’s knowledge of the language to date can be reconstructed. If learners cannot come up with right utterances after the teacher has taught, then the teacher has not taught. In other words, learners’ needs are yet to be met as errors manifesting are still needs waiting to be met. This is the nexus between error analysis and needs analysis. Error analysis in second/foreign language English teaching is similar to needs analysis procedure in ESP for the purpose of focused teaching because errors assist the teacher to identify the common language problems learners still have that need to receive specific attention for the purpose of remediation.

The following recommendations are made for effective second/foreign language English pedagogy:

- a) Second/foreign language English curriculum should be more learner-centered as required by CLT and ESP, such that teaching and assessment will meet specific goals and sociolinguistic realities, because Malgwi (2000: 22) has observed that “Most of

these tests demand a native-like proficiency from the learners and errors are not tolerated and are heavily penalized” (cf Ezimaje, 2013), common errors that border on intelligibility and have high frequency of occurrence should be properly identified for the purpose of focused teaching;

- b) Error/needs analysis should form part of second/foreign language English teaching/learning process, as a way of narrowing the teaching process to required specific, following the identification and classification of errors, instead of following an omnibus curriculum, with little benefits to learners;
- c) Since error is a natural part of any learning process, and no learning can occur in second/foreign language teaching/learning process without error, attention should be given to it rather than treat it as an anathema;
- d) Although errors are not encouraged in second/foreign language English learning process, nonetheless, Lewis (1993) says the negative attitude to errors is unfortunate, noting that in all human history, differences in perception, fault or error have resulted in remarkable changes, therefore the old practice of detesting error, as if it has no value, should be avoided and teachers as well as learners should know that errors play a significant role in second/foreign language English pedagogy.

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Willingness of Mothers to Vaccinate Female Adolescent Children against Cervical Cancer among Female Faculty Members of a Nigerian University

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Abstract

Background: With low level of cervical cancer screening in the developing world, there is need for exploiting other angles that could be effective in stemming the tide of high mortality and morbidity rate due to cervical cancer. The availability of effective prophylactic HPV vaccines gives new promise for a primary prevention strategy for HPV infection and cervical cancer. Research effort on mothers' awareness and willingness to allow adolescent girl children between 9-13 years to get vaccinated against HPV will boost local literature and current effort aimed at combating the incidence and prevalence of cervical cancer in Africa. It is against this background that this study was designed to investigate willingness of mothers to vaccinate their girl children against HPV among female faculty members of the University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Methods: The descriptive survey research design was employed in the study while the population comprised female faculty members across all the faculties in the University of Ibadan. A sample of 100 respondents was drawn across five faculties in the university using a two stage sampling technique. The inclusion criterion is having a female child that is between age 9-13. The instrument for data collection was a self-developed and validated questionnaire and the process of data collection involved face-to-face administration by the research assistants supervised by the principal investigator. Generated data were analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency count and percentages.

Result: The result of the study showed that although there is a high level of awareness on cervical cancer, the level of awareness on HPV vaccine was considerably low. This will in no little way affect willingness of mothers to have their female children vaccinated against HPV. Utilization of the HPV service will largely depend on the knowledgeable of its existence and benefits. Findings also showed that respondents' willingness to have their children vaccinated against HPV is largely dependent on cost, availability and accessibility of the vaccine.

Conclusion: Based on the findings of the study, it is concluded that there is low level of awareness on the availability of HPV vaccines among the population. It is also concluded that willingness to get girl children vaccinated against cervical cancer is dependent on cost, availability and accessibility. If members of the academic staff who are presumed to be knowledgeable about advancements in all spheres of the society including medical sciences reported low level of awareness of HPV vaccine, one wonders the level that will be reported by non-academic staff and even uneducated members of the society. It is therefore important to address the issue of availability, access and affordability to enhance the utilization of HPV vaccines.

Introductory Background

Cancer is responsible for about 51million deaths yearly, out of which cervical cancer accounts for about 8.5%, most of which occurring in the developing countries including Nigeria. About half a million new cases are seen annually worldwide, most occurring in developing countries (Owoeye & Ibrahim, 2013). Human papillomavirus (HPV) is one of the most common sexually transmitted infections in sexually active adolescents and young women (Di Giuseppe, Abbate, Liguori, Albano & Angelillo, 2008) although it can occur in women of all age groups (Dahlstrom, Tran, Lundholm, Young, Sundstrom, & Sparen, 2010). The incidence of HPV infection is not precisely known, yet it is estimated that globally 75% of individuals (males and females) will experience an HPV infection at least once in their lifetime, with the highest rates of infection occurring in individuals under the age of 25. Over 50% of sexually active women are exposed to at least one HPV type during their lifetime (Di Giuseppe, *et al.*, 2008). A meta-analysis conducted in showed a global HPV prevalence of 11.7% (Dahlstrom *et al.*, 2010). HPV prevalence in Africa has been estimated at 21.1% with sub-Saharan Africa topping the list at 24% (Arnolu, 2008; Dahlstrom *et al.*, 2010). In Nigeria, HPV prevalence is high across all female ages but it is highest among 15–23 year olds according to WHO (2010).

HPV is a dominant factor in incidence of cervical cancer and young adolescents who are becoming more sexually active with lower age of sex debut are becoming very vulnerable (Falaye, 2012, Ajuwon, 2013). There is a strong link between early sexual debut and vulnerability to HVP (Arnolu, 2006) and it has been empirically established that young adolescent girls are not knowledgeable of this strong link (Anyanwu & Okeke, 2013) and this can further reinforce HPV and invariably cervical cancer risk behaviour. Cervical cancer is the second most common cancer in women worldwide and the second most common cancer in women aged 15–44 years in Nigeria (Di Giuseppe, *et al.*, 2008; Nnodu, Erinosh, Jamda, Olaniyi, Adelaiye, & Lawson, 2010). The incidence rate of cervical cancer in Nigeria is 25/100,000 while the reported prevalence rate for HPV in the general population is 26.3% (Nnodu, *et al.*, 2010). Most cases of cancer of the cervix, especially in developing countries, present at advanced stages when curative measures are unlikely to be successful this therefore makes preventive measures a far better option.

However, it should be noted that cervical cancer is preventable and can be cured if detected early enough. The long transition time from a premalignant lesion to frank cancer of the cervix affords ample time for early detection and nearly complete cure even in secondary health care centres. However, this window of opportunity which has enabled the developed countries to reduce the incidence of cancer of the cervix would be wasted if the level of screening is low in Nigeria. Low level of screening has been attributed to supernatural causes thereby resulting in delays in seeking help, fear of confirmation of suspicion and of course the perennial problem of

low coverage of the population by health centre services especially the rural areas (Adewole, Benedet, Brian & Follen, 2005). Furthermore, Owoeye and Ibrahim (2013) stated that it has been reported that 50-90% of women who develop or die from cervical cancer have never been screened.

With low level of cervical cancer screening especially in the developing world, there is the need for exploiting other angles that could be effective in stemming the tide of high mortality and morbidity rate due to cervical cancer. The availability of effective prophylactic HPV vaccines gives new promise for a primary prevention strategy for HPV infection and cervical cancer (Schiller, Castellsagu, Villa, & Hildesheim, 2008). Although the current vaccines only protect against 70% of the disease, and are only effective for those not yet exposed to the virus; it offers a great opportunity to effectively combating the ravaging effect of cervical cancer in the society. Previous studies on cervical cancer in Nigeria have reported low level of awareness (Audu, El-Nafaty, Khalil & Otubu, 1999), inadequate knowledge of aetiology and prevention even among nurses (Ayinde & Omigbodun, 2003; Owoeye & Ibrahim, 2013), low level of awareness of screening methods (Ezem, 2007), low level of utilization of Pap smear test ([Awodele](#), [Adeyomoye](#), [Awodele](#), [Kwashi](#), [Awodele](#), and [Dolapo](#), 2011; Addah, Ojule & Fiebai, 2012).

HPV vaccines prevent infections by certain types of [human papillomavirus](#) associated with the development of [cervical cancer](#), [genital warts](#), and other [cancers](#) (Markowitz, Dunne, Saraiya, Lawson, Chesson, & Unger, 2007). Tay (2012) thus noted that the World Health Organization (WHO), as well as public health officials in Australia, Canada, Europe, and the United States recommend vaccination of young women against HPV. Two vaccines have market approval in many countries called [Gardasil](#) and [Cervarix](#). Both vaccines protect against the two HPV types (HPV-16 and HPV-18) that cause 70% of cervical cancers, 80% of anal cancers, 60% of vaginal cancers, and 40% of vulvar cancers (De Vuyst, Clifford, Nascimento, Madeleine, & Franceschi, 2009). These HPV types also cause most [HPV induced oral cancers](#), and some other rare genital cancers. Gardasil also protects against the two HPV types (HPV-6 and HPV-11) that cause 90% of genital warts (CDC, 2010). WHO (2013) identified three levels of prevention and control of cervical cancer; primary (vaccination of girls between 9-13 years), secondary (periodic screening for women that are 30 years and above) and tertiary (treatment of invasive cancer at all age for all women as necessary).

There is paucity of literature on mothers' awareness and willingness to allow adolescent girl children between 9-13 years to get vaccinated against HPV which is a major factor in cervical cancer. Only one study by Ezenwa, Balogun and Okafor (2013) has been conducted in this regard. But the study was carried out at a community setting in Lagos where the largest proportion of the respondents had no tertiary education and as such are deemed to be constrained in knowledge seeking and utilization as regards protective health practice against cervical cancer. It is important to examine how faculty members of a foremost university in Nigeria will perceive the threat of cervical cancer and how to contain it among their female children through vaccination. It is against this background that this study was designed to investigate willingness of mothers to vaccinate their girl children against HPV among female faculty members of the University of Ibadan, Ibadan. It is suspected that perceived cost of securing HPV vaccination, convenience and even knowledge of HPV vaccination might influence the willingness of mothers to vaccinate their girl children against HPV. Very important, is the fact that the vaccination might give the vaccinated girl children who might have been delaying sexual debut due to associated risk to freely engage in

sex knowing that they have been vaccinated even when the vaccination did not cover for other concomitants like HIV/AIDS, unplanned pregnancy among others.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study:

- What is the awareness level of female faculty staff of the University of Ibadan on HPV vaccination?
- Is female faculty staff of the University of Ibadan knowledgeable of HPV vaccination?
- Will female faculty staff of the University of Ibadan be willing to vaccinate their adolescent girl children against HPV?

Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was employed in the study while the population comprised female faculty members across all the faculties in the University of Ibadan. The university has four colleges and nine faculties but respondents for the study were drawn from the faculties. A sample of 100 respondents was drawn across five faculties in the university using a two stage sampling technique. At the first sampling stage, simple random sampling technique was used to select five out of the nine faculties in the university and the second sampling stage involved the selection of 20 faculty members from each of the faculties using purposive sampling as shown in the sampling frame below. The inclusion criterion is having a female child that is between ages of 9-13. The instrument for data collection was a self-developed and validated questionnaire and the process of data collection involved face-to-face administration by the research assistants supervised by the principal investigators.

Table 1: Sampling Frame

Faculty	Respondents
Arts	20
The Social Sciences	20
Education	20
Science	20
Agriculture and Forestry	20
Total	100

The instrument has three sections designed based on the questions raised in the study. The first section was designed to generate data on awareness on HPV, HPV vaccine and cervical cancer. The second section was designed to seek data on knowledge of HPV, HPV vaccine and cervical cancer. It has ten items designed along three rating scale of agree, disagree and no idea. The third section sought data on willingness to vaccinate female children against HPV and it has five items. Generated data were analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency count and percentages.

Result

Table 2: HPV Awareness among Respondents

ITEM	Percentage Response	
	YES	NO
Have you ever heard of cervical cancer before now?	100.0	-
Have you heard of HPV before?	62.0	38.0
Do you know that there is HPV vaccine?	36.0	64.0

The result of the study revealed a high level of awareness on cervical cancer but low level of awareness on other related and critical issues relating to cervical cancer. Findings showed that although there is 100% awareness level on cervical cancer, only 62% reported having heard about HPV which is a dominant organism in cervical cancer incidence and prevalence. Result also showed that an even lesser percentage of the respondents, 36.0% has heard about HPV vaccination. The implication of this result to HPV vaccination is grave as one can only utilize service that one is not only aware of but also knowledgeable about.

Table 3: Knowledge of HPV and HPV Vaccination among Respondents

ITEM	Percentage Response		
	AGREE	NO IDEA	DISAGREE
HPV is the organism that causes cervical cancer	61.0	26.0	13.0
HPV can be transmitted sexually	48.5	28.5	23.0
Early sexual debut predisposes one to HPV	34.5	47.0	18.5
HPV is not curable	15.0	49.5	35.5
There are vaccines that can prevent HPV	28.5	56.0	15.5
HPV vaccine can only be taken between age 9-13 for girls	17.5	71.0	11.5
HPV vaccine can affect a girl's fertility	5.5	79.0	15.5

The result of the study showed that level of knowledge on HPV and HPV vaccine among the respondents is relatively low as the largest percentage in almost all the items was no idea. Although 61% indicated knowledge of HPV being a factor in cervical cancer occurrence only 48.5% correctly observed that HPV can be transmitted sexually with 28.5% indicating that they do not have idea. The result of the study also showed that only 34.5% of the respondents correctly noted that early sexual debut predisposes young girls to HPV with the largest proportion, 47.0% stating that they do not have idea. 49.5% of the respondents stated that they do not have idea if HPV is curable while 28.5% noted that HPV vaccines exist with 56.0% indicating that they do not have idea. Findings also revealed that only 17.5% of the respondents correctly noted that HPV can only be taken by females within the age of 9-13 years with 71.0% noting that they do not have idea. The result of the study also showed that the largest proportion of the respondents, 79.0%

stated that they do not have idea if HPV vaccine can affect a girl's fertility with 15.5% correctly disagreed that HPV vaccine can affect a girl's fertility.

Table 4: Willingness of Respondents to get their Girl Children Vaccinated against HPV

ITEM	Percentage Response	
	Agree	Disagree
I am willing to vaccinate my girl children against HPV	56.5	43.5
I will spare no effort to vaccinate my girl children against HPV	47.0	53.0
If the vaccination service is available and accessible, I will have my girl children vaccinated against HPV	64.5	35.5
If the vaccination monetary cost is cheap, I will vaccinate my girl children against HPV	67.5	32.5
I am ready to vaccinate my girls against HPV, no matter the monetary and non-monetary cost	45.0	55.0

The findings showed a high level of willingness of mothers to get their girl children vaccinated against HPV provided that certain issues relating to accessibility and affordability are addressed. Findings showed that over 50% of the respondents, 56.5% expressed willingness to get their girl children vaccinated against HPV with only 47.0% stating readiness to have this done against all odds. Findings showed that 64.5% of the respondents indicated willingness to have their girl children vaccinated against HPV with a larger percentage, 67.5% stated that they will have their girl children vaccinated against HPV if the monetary cost is affordable with only 45% indicating willingness to have their girl children vaccinated against HPV, the monetary and non-monetary cost notwithstanding.

Discussions of Findings

The findings of the study revealed that although there was a high level of awareness on cervical cancer, the awareness level of HPV was however lower which is indicative of the fact that the knowledge level of cervical cancer among the respondents is still not very satisfactory. This can be affirmed by the fact that only 36% of the respondents disclosed having heard of HPV vaccine. HPV vaccine knowledge is critical to accessing HPV vaccine as one can only make use of what one has knowledge of. Moreover, the findings of the study as shown in the second table of the result presentation section showed that the largest proportion of the respondents indicated no idea to critical issues surrounding knowledge of HPV vaccination. Social research is directed at uncovering modifiable factors affecting variables and constructs of social importance. Since knowledge is a modifiable factor that affects utilization of health care services, it is important to have the knowledge level of individuals and groups in the society on cervical cancer and HPV vaccination improved using systematic educational strategies. The findings of the study on awareness level on HPV is however not in line with the findings of Ezenwa *et al.*, (2013) which reported 27.9% level of awareness on HPV as against the 62.0% reported in the present study. In the same vein, the 36% awareness level on HPV vaccine found in this study is also higher than the 19.7% reported in Ezenwa *et al* (2013). This difference is not unconnected with the populations of

the two studies as the present study had female faculty members of a foremost university in Nigeria as respondents.

The findings of the study as presented in table 3 revealed that though respondents indicated willingness to have their girl children vaccinated against HPV, the need of addressing critical issues relating to accessibility and affordability must be addressed. The place of availability and accessibility in health care service utilization cannot be overemphasized. People will be more willing to use health care services they are readily available and accessible to them. This makes making HPV vaccination service available and accessible very crucial. In the same vein, the monetary cost involved in accessing HPV vaccination must be within the reach of ordinary members of the society. HPV vaccination service could be typified as a primary health care service and as such, the people must be able and ready to meet the cost at every stage and level of their development. This finding of the study that relates availability, and accessibility to willingness to utilize HPV vaccination service corroborates the findings of Shaikh, Haran, Hatcher and Iqbal (2007) which listed availability as a major determinant of health care service utilization. In the same vein, the findings that revealed that willingness to utilize HPV vaccination service is dependent on cost also confirms the earlier finding of Anyanwu and Okeke (2014) which reported that cost of health care significantly predict utilization of health care services. It is also in line with the view of Park (2007) that purchasing power plays significant role in predicting utilization of available health care service. Specifically for cervical cancer, the finding on cost also affirm the finding of Demarteau, Morhason-Bello, Akinwunmi, Adewole (2014) which identified limited resources in monetary cost as a factor in cervical cancer prevention in Nigeria regarding HPV vaccination.

Conclusion

From the findings of the study it is concluded that while awareness level on cervical cancer and HPV is relatively high among the respondents, awareness and knowledge level on HPV vaccine is low. This notwithstanding, the respondents indicated willingness to have their girl children vaccinated against HPV and this willingness is further strengthened by improved accessibility and affordable monetary cost.

Recommendation

Based on the findings and conclusion of the study, the following are recommended:

1. There is need for massive awareness creation on the existence and benefit of HPV vaccination among members of the university community. This is premised on the fact that one wonders the awareness and knowledge level of non-faculty members and uneducated women in the community if low level was reported among faculty members that are presumed to be in the know. The use of various channels including formal and informal channels like seminars and workshops, use of IECs, use of the university community radio and other points must be used in this regard.
2. HPV vaccination service must be made readily available and accessible to members of the university community and the University Health Services (Jaja Clinic) provides a viable means of ensuring this.
3. Effort must be made by both governmental and non-governmental bodies to address issues of cost to ensure that the monetary cost for accessing HPV vaccination is bearable

and if possible, it should be made to be accessed without monetary cost or at a very subsidized rate.

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**University Of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria, Department Of Human Kinetics and Health
Education Mother Willingness to Vaccinate Adolescent Girl Children against HPV
Questionnaire**

Dear respondent,

Thank you for giving your consent to participate in this study. This study is designed to investigate willingness of mothers to vaccinate their girl children against HPV. It is being conducted by Dr. Ruth Ochanya Adio-Moses of the above named department. By filling out this questionnaire you will be providing information that will help refocus global action aimed at addressing the alarming rate of morbidity and mortality of women due to cervical cancer. Kindly note that your responses are for research purpose only and shall therefore be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Once again, thank you for being a part of this study.

Dr. Ruth Ochanya Adio-Moses

Section A: Awareness of HPV and HPV Vaccination

1. Have you ever heard of cervical cancer before? Yes { } No { }
2. Have you heard of HPV before? (HPV means Human Papiloma Virus) Yes { } No { }
3. Do you know that there is HPV vaccine? Yes { } No { }

Section B: Knowledge of HPV, HPV Vaccination and Cervical Cancer

Kindly tick in as it applies to you. Thank you

S/N	ITEM	AGREE	NO IDEA	DISAGREE
1	HPV is the organism that causes cervical cancer			
2	HPV can be transmitted sexually			
3	Early sexual debut predisposes one to HPV			
4	HPV is not curable			
5	HPV is just like HIV			
6	There are Vaccines that can prevent HPV			
7	HPV vaccine can only be taken by virgin girls			
8	HPV vaccine can only be taken between age 9-13 for girls			
9	HPV vaccine gives a lifetime protection against HPV			
10	HPV vaccine can affect a girl's fertility			

Section C: Willingness to Vaccinate Female Children Scale

S/N	ITEM	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I am willing to vaccinate my girl children against HPV				
2	I will spare no effort to vaccinate my girl children against HPV				
3	Granted that the service is available, I will vaccinate my girl children against HPV				
4	If the vaccination cost is bearable, I will vaccinate my girl children against HPV				
5	Against all odds, I am ready to vaccinate my girls against HPV				

Influence of Estate Agents and Building Plan Approval Cost on Housing Affordability in Developing Cities

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Abstract: - This paper argues that housing affordability in Nigerian urban centre is largely affected by the involvement of estate agent and building plan approval cost. It aims at examining the effects of these two factors on housing affordability in Nigerian urban centre with particular reference to Ibadan urban centre. The study utilised the qualitative approach through direct observation, photographs and personal interviews with the aid of unstructured questionnaire among 45 participants. Content analyses were used to evaluate the results of the method. The study revealed that, land value are likely to increase in the future as long as estate agents continue to play an intermediary role between the buyers and suppliers. This will consequently affect housing affordability. The involvement of estate agent and high cost of building plan approval at the zonal planning authority play a significant role in housing unaffordable for majority of households and in the expansion of unauthorised housing settlements.

Keywords: Building Plan, Estate Agents, Housing, Housing Affordability, Land, Land Value, Plan Approval, Qualitative Approach

1 Introduction

Housing is a holistic and multidimensional concept that constitutes an environment. Land, finance, labour, infrastructure and building materials are the five main components that interact in housing which are organized by the legal, regulatory and institutional framework (UN-Habitat, 2011). Without these components, housing cannot take place. The provision of adequate and affordable housing has become very vital in every country (Fisher, Pollakowski, & Zabel, 2009; Kutty, 2005). This is because, housing is a stimulant of the national economy. It is also seen as a set of durable assets, which accounts for a high proportion of a country's wealth. Housing has therefore become a regular feature in economic, social and political debates (T Agbola, 1998). The social, economic and political development of mankind cannot be separated from a housing (Israel & Bashiru, 2008) and it uniquely important asset for most households (Tsai & Pen, 2011).

Land is unique in nature and plays a significant role in human settlement which consists of different activities. It is so critical to all developments and its role can be seen as an entity distinct from other components (Olaore, 1991; UN-Habitat, 2011). It is the major factor of housing production, without it, housing production cannot be achieved. The importance of land accessibility and its affordability in affordable housing to the majority of urban residents in Nigerian urban centres cannot be over emphasised. Land value in major cities of developing countries have being on increased at an alarming rate (David E. Dowall, 1992; David E. Dowall & Leaf, 1991; David E Dowall & Mundial, 1991; Pamuk & Dowall, 1998) and exerted an undue influence on housing affordability (Richardson, Vipond, & Furbey, 1974). Rapid growth and uncontrolled urban population in Nigerian leads to high demand for land which has eventually gets transmitted into increase in land value. Many authors have examined rapidly rising land value in developing cities but the effects of estate agent and building plan approval cost on land value and housing affordability has not been fully dealt with, especially in Ibadan urban centre, Nigeria. This study therefore attempts to examine the effects of estate agents on land value and building plan approval cost on housing affordability in Ibadan urban centre. It argues that a rapid rise in land value and housing unaffordability are not likely in the future limited to possible future economic and rapid population growth, but also as a result of estate agent's involvement and building plan approval cost. It is therefore importance for efforts to be made towards ameliorating the effects these factors may have on housing affordability.

The organisation of the rest of the paper is as follows: second section of the paper deals with review of relevant literatures on land values, housing affordability, regulatory constraints, land demand, land value and housing production. The explanation of the methodology employed in the study and the qualitative approach utilized is in the third section. This is followed by data presentation, results and discussion in section fourth. The findings are presented followed by the conclusions and policy implications in sections five and six respectively in the paper.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Land Values

There is interconnection between value and the land within an urban centre. Demand for land within the urban centre increases and enhances its value. There would also be increase in the land value whereas its impact on the rural area, that is outside the urban centre is that, the land value reduces with low demand (Dawkins & Nelson, 2002; Jun, 2006; Whitelaw, 1980). It can

therefore be deduced that high demand for land has a direct correlation relationship with high rise in land value and vice-versa. Land for housing development is increasingly scarce, poorly regulated and therefore expensive (UN-Habitat, 2011). Housing construction and rent is simply unaffordable for the majority of the urban dwellers which is majorly low income earners. Economic factors, infrastructure and amenities provision and consumer preferences also have great influence on house and land value as asserted by Gurran, Ruming, Randolph, and Quintal (2008). Planning interventions make provision for easy accessibility to urban facilities and services within urban centre while proximity to protect natural and rural environments are the benefits being derived at the country side (A. C. Nelson, Pendall, Dawkins, & Knaap, 2002).

UN-Habitat (2011) saw the insufficient land supply, poor land management, undeveloped and inflexible conventional housing finance as the factors that contribute to housing unaffordability in most of African countries. Some scholars are of opinion that, accessibility to more available and adequate land on the urban fringe and expedited development can limit the influence of land value within urban centre (A. Nelson, Dawkins, & Sanchez, 2007; Otubu, 2009). Edward L Glaeser and Ward (2009) showed that reduction in housing supply in Greater Boston was usually related to high value and low density levels and not as a result of lack of land. In Australia, regulatory measures are assumed to restrict land supply and so increase land value which eventually affecting the housing supply (Robin et al., 2010). Besides this, there are still a lot of factors which affect the value of land in an urban centre and these factors include transport provision, distance of land from city centre, income, population, dwelling density and amenity factors which also affect location decision like riverside areas. Limited access and high cost of land are fundamental constraints to affordable housing supply increase within the urban centre (UN-Habitat, 2011). (DSE, 2003) pointed to high continuing demand for housing, purchasing power, population and economic growth, flexible lending policies and housing subsidies as contributors to the rise in land and construction cost. Unlimited Urban Growth Boundaries (UGB) which led to limited supply to urban land is another factor which contributed to the increase in the available land value (Birrell & Healy, 2003; Birrell, Healy, Rapson, & O'Connor, 2005; HIA, 2008).

Land acquisition through transfer for agreed amount is rarely smooth, costly and it may involve fraudulent practices through which the same land can be sold to two or more different people in Nigeria (Tunde Agbola, 1988; Udo, 1985). The promulgation of the 1978 land use decree was meant to solve this problem. The entire land within a state is invested into the hands of state governor to hold in trust for the people in the state. The prospective home owners is expected to apply for the use of the land at a reasonable value. However, the implementation of this decree was faulty and has not achieved its aim (Arimah, 1997). This also contributes to the inadequate and unaffordable housing in most of our urban centres (Tunde Agbola, 1987).

When supply is limited for whatever reason according to Edward L. Glaeser (2009), then urban growth will also be limited and the urban land would be unaffordable. It is obvious that housing supply is a reflection of the availability of land. Cities in the middle of a flat plain find it easier to build than cities on an Island.

2.2 Housing Affordability

The issue of housing affordability is an issue to be considered in the supply and demand in housing. The word afford is described as being capable to pay without incurring financial

difficulties (Collins Dictionary). NZIER (2005) explained housing affordability as not a simply a matters of housing costs and income levels but it entails people's ability to obtain housing and to stay in it. It can also be referred to in terms of economic and social system in a society (Stone, 1993). This is the relationships that are in existence between housing consumer's saving and the housing cost which can be measured in terms of money. UN-Habitat (2011) describes affordable housing as the house that is adequate in quality and location but not expensive to the extent of preventing the occupants from meeting other basic living costs. This can principally be determined by capital variables which can be in form of house purchase or construction costs and occupation or rents variables which is the cost of keeping the house. The provision of affordable housing at a scale remains a challenge to most countries, especially countries in Africa (UN-Habitat, 2011). The rate of urbanisation is becoming increasing while the continent itself is the most rural region. The effect of rapid urbanisation in most of countries in African with particular reference to Nigeria centres is on the unaffordable land and housing provision (UN-Habitat, 2011). Affordable housing has become a serious and considerable challenge especially for low incomes households which resulted from continue growth and expansion of the urban centre. The determinants of housing affordability include household income and price of housing (Olatubara, 2007). Tsai and Pen (2011) and Chen, Tsai, and Chang (2007) also considered house price and household income as the most important determinants of homeownership affordability. Bowden (1980), Drake (1993), Giussani and Hadjimatheou (1991), Holly and Jones (1997), Malpezzi (1992) and Whitehead (1974) also investigated the relationship between housing consumers' income and house prices. They conceptualized housing affordability in two different ways: rent and income affordability. Rent affordability is termed as the ability of housing consumers to have sufficient amount to rent a house while the Income affordability is the ratio of house prices to consumer's income. Based on income affordability, housing consumer's income and house price should be taken into consideration in housing demand. This is because effective housing demand depends on consumers' income and house price. Housing affordability can be explained as the capacity of household or individual to meet housing costs and maintaining the ability to meet other basic costs of living without any problem. This explains the extent to which the household or individuals are able to pay for housing. Unaffordable housing especially for low income and middle income households that results to slums and informal settlements within urban centres and periphery of the city resulted from poorly functioning housing markets (UN-Habitat, 2011). Such settlements are rarely healthy, comfortable and dignified places to live.

The chartered Institute of Housing (1992) as quoted in Onu and Onu (2012) identifies variables or items to determine whether accommodation is affordable or not. These variables include rent levels, household income and eligibility of households for housing benefits where practised. In the United States and Canada, a commonly accepted guideline for housing affordability is housing cost that does not exceed 30% of a household's gross income (Andrews, 1998; Onu & Onu, 2012; Song, 2000). Housing costs considered in this guideline generally include rates and insurance for owners and usually include utility costs. When the monthly carrying costs of a home exceed 30.35% of household income, the housing is considered unaffordable for that household.

Regulatory Constraints, Land Demand, Land value and Housing Production Housing production is reduced in quantity when regulations and condition imposed by the government policy through the planning regulations imposed additional costs. This consequently results to

shortage in housing supply to meet the housing demand. A. C. Nelson et al. (2002) in their study discovered that housing production in US has been affected due to authorities placing regulations to control development except it occurs simultaneously with the provision of infrastructures. Most residents in urban centres in developing countries found it difficult to acquire land for housing. Land value is a function of demand in terms of population, income and supply (Pamuk & Dowall, 1998). It is therefore assumed that the more difficult to get land for housing, the higher the land value. Various land use regulation within Nigeria and internationally for the purpose of development control are influencing development. These are known as guiding tools for the development and they include zoning regulations, policies and regulations. Internationally, there are more specific control which includes density requirements, growth management controls, such as growth boundaries, and environmental controls, such as housing and sub-division design and performance measures (Robin et al., 2010). Other tools for the development control according to Robin et al. (2010) include integrated land use and transport requirements, and landscape and biodiversity protection measures.

In this study, two questions need to be answered and these include: How does urban population growth resulted from migration affects land demand and land value increase through the involvement of estate agent? Secondly, how does the building plan approval process and cost affect housing affordability?

3 Methodology

3.1 Research approach

The empirical information presented in this paper comes from survey conducted in Ibadan urban centre between January, 2014 and May, 2014 through qualitative approach which involves purposeful interviews of different categories of participants related to housing. J. W Creswell (2007) describes qualitative research as a process where the research problem is studied in its natural setting rather than having subjects studied in a laboratory. Collection of information through this method allows for gathering information from multiple sources with aim of understanding the meaning of the problems from the participants or involved audience. The data collection in qualitative procedures is not restricted by categories but allows for in-depth and detail information (Patton, 1987). Van Maanen (1979) defines Qualitative research approaches as array of techniques which gives interpretation through decode, describe, translate, and give the meaning that is naturally occurring and not the frequency phenomena.

Data collection through qualitative approaches establishes rapport between the interviewee and interviewer. Through this, the interviewer or researcher directs the attention of the interviewee to the material and motivate him or her to carefully answer the questions (McBurney & White, 2007).

3.2 Participants

The qualitative data collected in this study was based on direct observation, photographs and personal interview of 45 participants among four categories of people. The categories are professionals such as town planners, architects and estate surveyor; chairmen of the artisans association like bricklayers, carpenters and iron benders; chairmen of the landlord association; and

the director to the zonal town planning authority. A total numbers of 45 participants were interviewed in the five local government areas.

Land values were obtained from the participants for different areas according to the plot size, services within the plot, land title in terms of certificate of occupancy (C of O) and the land location. In addition, participants were interviewed on the reason(s) for the increase in land value and the effects of government policy on housing affordability. Other questions are the questions that were related to the effects of estate agents on the cost of land and housing within the area of jurisdiction of the participants.

3.3 Data Analysis

The data were analysed using content analyses that involved the participants' opinion being illustrated and triangulated on their similarities and differences. Content analysis was adopted to summarise and synthesise the arguments and ideas from the interview notes. The content analysis is a form of thematic analysis to identify or develop a number of themes or codes to summarise and join together some of the key ideas, actions, experiences and concepts from the data that is being analysed (J. W Creswell, 2012; J. W Creswell & Clark, 2011). The following steps were developed to analyse the interview notes.

3.3.1 Setting of predefined terms for coding before grouping them into broader themes for analysis

Themes were arranged into a hierarchy by which it can be generated before and during data analysis.

3.3.2 Note Taking and initial coding

Data collected were transcribed immediately after the interview. Initial coding was done, using predefined codes and then applied to all notes and transcripts. Relevant texts relating to the research aim were assigned an existing code. If a particular piece of text did not fit into an existing code, a new code was created to classify the text and that code was then added to the existing codes, when coding the rest of the data.

3.3.3 Initial content

An initial content was created from the codes used in step two. Predefined codes outlined in stage one were removed if they were not applicable to the reviewed literature. Lower order codes were also added to provide greater specificity where required.

3.3.4 Developing the content by re-reviewing all the Processes

Identifying text relevant to the research aim, and adding the appropriate code from the initial content. The content was modified as this process progressed to remove any inaccuracies in the content.

3.3.5 Validating the content

The developed content was validated to show how accurately the information collected represents participants' realities and credibility of the social phenomena (John W Creswell & Miller, 2000; Schwandt, 1997) and to make sure that it was appropriate for use and trustworthy (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Member checking and Audit trail are the two purposeful

strategies combined to obtain holistically 'valid' results in this study (Cho & Trent, 2006; Malterud, 2001). The main strategy used to validate the content was transactional strategy known as member checking (Cho & Trent, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) through which the validity procedure shifts from the researchers to participants in the study. This is an interactive procedure between the researcher, the participants, and the collected data with the aim of achieving a relatively higher level of accuracy and consensus by means of revisiting collected facts, feelings, experiences, and values or beliefs and their interpretation (Cho & Trent, 2006) and most crucial validity approach to establish credibility in qualitative study (John W Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Malterud, 2001). This is the process of taking data and interpretations back to the participants in the study so that they can confirm the credibility of the information and narrative account. The transcription of the collected data were read immediately after the interview was conducted before the researcher left the participants. This is to give room for correction, addition and subtraction by the participants.

The second strategy for content validation was inter-coder reliability known as the audit trail (John W Creswell & Miller, 2000), which involved asking an external advisor who had experience in analysing qualitative data to check if the content was sufficiently clear and comprehensive. The role of an external advisor is to examine the process and outcome of the inquiry, and determine the trustworthiness of the findings. This is a systematic procedure through which reviewer writes an analysis after carefully studying the documentation provided by the researcher (John W Creswell & Miller, 2000). The external advisor was asked to code a selection of a text in the interview notes using the developed content. He then made some comments and correction about the process of coding the text using the developed content, which was then discussed and revised where required. However, disagreement occurred on some coding between the researcher and the advisor. These were discussed rather than quantified, since there are always a variety of ways of reading a text, which differ from one person to another (Robson, 2002).

3.3.6 The Final content

The final content was created after correction and validation based on the comments from the external advisor.

3.3.7 Interpreting Coded Data

The coded texts were interpreted by first listing all codes present in the interview notes to draw attention to issues of importance. The codes, texts and themes that were seen to be most relevant to the research aim were focused on; those that were not relevant discarded.

3.3.8 Writing up and presenting the Findings

The write up and presentation of the interpretation of the texts is the final step in the analysis. This involves summarising the notes made about the codes, selecting illustrative quotes and producing accounts of the findings. These accounts were based on the main themes identified.

4 Data Presentation, Results and Discussion

4.1 Land Value Situation

Demand and supply factors play a significant role in determining land value. Limitation to land supply coupled with high population growth compared with high land demand leads to

enormous land value increase. High population growth rates and high land demand put more pressure on land markets and consequently leads to increase in land value. In contrast, low land demand leads to low land value in some areas. The land value in Ibadan urban centre depends on the location, density, availability of infrastructural facilities and utilities. The land value ranges between ₦1.5 million and ₦70 million per plot depends on the location, size of the land and accessibility. This constitutes affordability problem to majority of the populace especially among low income households. For example, the interview conducted reveals that in 1947, land value per plot was ₦40.00 at Alakia area. As the rate of urbanization increase, the land value becoming increase. In 1980, land value rose to ₦55.00 and became ₦75.00 in 1988. The value increased to ₦700.00 in 1990. Between 1990 and 2000, the rate of increase in land value was enormous and beyond the reach of majority of the households. The land value became ₦200,000.00 in 2000 and ₦350,000.00 in 2005.

The survey reveals that location of the land is another determinant of the land value. The land value ranges from a location to another. As at the time of survey, the land value is between ₦6 million and ₦8million per plot at Oke-Aremo scheme while it is up to ₦14 million at Bodija and ₦15 million at Ring Road. The land exhibits high value within Ibadan South-West local government area as a result of industrialisation within the local government area and the presence of scheme at Oluyole. The land value is between ₦7 million and ₦20 million within Industrial Estate and Oluyole extension, between ₦10 million and ₦12 million at Alalubosa government scheme while the family land outside the government schemes is between ₦3 million and ₦5 million depends on the location. In Ibadan South-East local government area, the value of land ranges between ₦2 million and ₦7 million at Lagelu scheme. The land value in Ibadan North is between ₦10 million and ₦35 million depends on the location. For example, land value at Samonda is up to ₦25 million. In North-west, the government scheme land value exhibits ₦45 million while family land value ranges between ₦12 million, ₦15 million, ₦25 million and ₦45 million depends on the location. At North-East, the land value is between ₦15 and ₦25 million. However, the land value at the water lodged areas was assessed to be less expensive during the course of interview and it ranges between ₦1.5 million and ₦2.5 million depends on the size of the land, accessibility and location (\$1 equivalent to ₦198.85). The land value is assessed to be expensive and unaffordable to majority of households especially among low and middle households.

4.2 Building plan approval process

The survey plan, building plan preparation and plan approval for building take longer time before it can be completed. According to the interview conducted, this longer process in survey plan, building plan preparation and plan approval constitute delay in housing production thereby leading to wide gap between housing supply and demand. An architect or draughtsman is given the survey plan to design the type of house required by the developer. The designed plan is taken to the zonal planning authority for the processing of the approval. The approval process takes into consideration certain requirements on floors plans, elevations and sections of proposed buildings in terms of sanitary facilities, space requirements and lighting requirements. Others requirements include ventilation and structural details. Unfortunately, the duration of the plan approval process takes a longer period between one and half years resulted from physical site inspection by zonal planning authority officials and other bureaucracy. This has become a predicaments to housing production to merge the housing demand.

4.3 Building plan preparation and Approval cost limits Housing Production and affordability

According to the interview conducted, the cost of plan preparation and the approval constitute to housing unaffordability. The building plan approval cost leads housing to be more expensive and unaffordable to majority of households. A four bedrooms flat building plan preparation and approval processing cost up to ₦500, 000.00 while survey plan for a plot of land cost ₦75, 000.00. High price in building plan assessment for processing and approval discourages many intended housing developers especially among the low and middle income earners. This reduces the rate of housing production because majority of households cannot afford the price. High price of plan assessment is another issue that become challenge to the housing production. The fees on application, fence permit and assessment for 4 bedrooms flat is average of ₦150, 000.00. This disheartens developers from embarking in housing production.

5 Findings

5.1 Difficulties in getting Land for Housing

The land value within the study area is not just increasing as a result of increase in demand resulted from urbanisation, the involvement of estate agents has played a significant role in the increase in land value. This is inform of land speculation which has consequently become problematic. Land is seen as durable asset which is believed by the land owners not to be sold in haste until it appreciates. In view of this, the land owners are not always sell their land directly to the buyers but prefer to hand it over to the estate agents. This is to enhance more value. The estate agents having the opportunity of knowing many prospective buyers and being mindful of much profit making as much as possible on the land have significant influence on the land value. The estate agents seeing Ibadan urban centre as a commercial area, prefer to sell land for commercial activities in order to attract higher value. The value of the land determines the profit making in terms of commission to receive on the land. The competition between the prospective buyers for residential and prospective buyers for commercial constituted additional difficulty in getting land for residential housing. This results to housing production shortage and constitutes housing unaffordability for majority of the households. This support the view of. Akinyode, Khan, Ahmad, and Udin (2015) that when housing demand in a particular area is higher than the production as a result of any restrictions, it is not uncommon that there would housing unaffordability.

5.2 Increase in Land Values affect Housing Affordability

Land value increase has imperative implications on housing production and its affordability in Ibadan urban centre. The land value get increased everyday beyond the reach of majority member of the society and negatively impact heavily on the low and middle income households. It serves to be a significant repercussions and limits these households in having access to affordable housing. These limitations prove most harmful to these households because they have no access to neighbourhoods that offers good quality environment, safety, comfort and convenience.

5.3 Effects of Building Plan Approval Cost on Housing Production

The study reveals that, in an effort to augment the revenue of the local government, many of the zonal planning authorities impose high assessment fees and tax as well as other related developmental fees which discourage many prospective house owners from getting the house plan approval. In addition, the zonal planning authority officials impose additional fees called processing fees that often surpass official government assessment fees for plan processing and approval. Payments of these imposed legal, professional services charges and processing fees in the zonal planning authority on house plan processing and approval have varieties of implications. Firstly, it added to the overall cost of housing production in the study area, it reduces the housing supply in the housing stock market and delay in obtaining building plan approvals. The delay in the process of obtaining building plan approval creates difficulties in housing production and increase house value. This becomes a problem to housing affordability to majority of households especially among middle and low income households.

5.4 Increase in Land Values and Building Plan Approval Cost Lead to Unauthorised Spreading of Housing Settlements

The survey reveals that the land value is expensive in Ibadan urban centre. As a result of high value of land within Ibadan urban centre, majority of households are now moving out towards rural area in order to get cheaper land without taking into consideration their safety, comfort and convenience.

The implications of high land values and building plan approval process and cost on the spreading of unauthorised housing settlements in Ibadan urban centre cannot be over-emphasised. This has led to the situation where majority of the households especially among middle income bypass building plan approval process and construct their respective houses without building plan approval. Thus, this results to unauthorised and unapproved housing production. This is in agreement with Pamuk and Dowall (1998) who found out that transactions increase in some developing countries accelerate the expansion of unauthorised housing settlements. It also confirms UN-Habitat (2011) study which revealed that unaffordable land and housing results to slums and informal settlements within urban centres and periphery of the city resulted from poorly functioning housing markets. Besides this, majority of households construct their building in piecemeal which is a function of their income and the ability of funding.

6 Conclusions and Policy Implications

In addition to high population growth rates and high land demand in Ibadan urban centre, the survey reveals that, the involvement of estate agent leads to increase in land value and unaffordable for majority of households. Reviewing these situation, a conclusion can be drawn that land value increase appear to be associated with involvement of estate agent and short supply compared with population growth. The cost and delaying in building plan approval process also have a significant effects on housing affordability.

The trend of the situation indicates that land value will continue to increase if no regulatory measure is introduced as long as the estate agent continue serving as an intermediary between the suppliers and prospective buyers. When there is future land demand and transactions cost increase, land value is likely to increase. High cost of legal, professional services charges and processing fees on building plan in the zonal planning authority as well as delaying in building plan approval

process will also continue to avert housing affordability for majority of households unless there is a measure of control. In view of this, the author is of opinion that a regulatory measure should be put in place by the government to reduce the high transaction cost on the land and discourage unnecessary processing fees on building plan approval process to make housing become more affordable to all households.

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