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Reader-Response Approach: An Intervention in Composition Writing at Junior Secondary Schools in Botswana

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Abstract

Recently, the reading-writing connection has come into focus as an area that can be exploited to address English as a second language (ESL) writing skills development. This is because various studies have identified ESL writing as being grossly inadequate both at the junior secondary, senior secondary and college levels in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa where English is learned as a second language (L2). Even in situations where English is taught as the first language (L1), the problem of writing persists. This paper discusses ESL composition teaching and learning issues by looking at the integration of reader-response based pedagogy with process writing as a way of improving the learning and teaching of composition writing skills at the junior secondary school level in Botswana. The paper also discusses the implications of this strategy in writing pedagogy and the procedure for its use in composition writing skills development.

Keywords: reader-response reading, English as a second language (ESL), composition writing, modeling, junior secondary level, response based activities, process writing.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION

The difficulty of teaching and learning English as a second language (ESL) in many African countries has been widely documented especially, in the area of junior secondary level writing skills development. Besson-Molosiwa (1990), Mooko (1996), Chimbganda (2001) and Adeyemi (2004, 2006, 2008b) have written extensively about the problems of composition writing at the junior secondary school level as well as college writing in Botswana. It is important to reiterate that writing skills development is still a big issue in the junior secondary education curriculum, especially if the results of a study carried out (Adeyemi, 2008b) are anything to go by. This situation therefore, calls for continued efforts to address ESL composition writing problems at that level in order to forestall the writing problems students encounter later at senior secondary school and college levels.

Objectives of this paper

The persistence of ESL writing difficulties among junior secondary level students has informed the discussion in this paper under the following objectives:
a) To evaluate the reading-writing connection in ESL composition writing skills development;
b) To review literature on the reader-response theory of reading, its integration with process writing and implications for teaching composition writing skills; and
c) To discuss the procedure/techniques of using the reader-response based pedagogy with the process approach in teaching composition writing at the junior secondary school level.

Rationale/Problem Statement

The motivation for this paper was based on some findings in a previous study on junior secondary composition writing (Adeyemi, 2008b) in which it was observed, among other things, that teachers’ approaches to composition writing were mainly product oriented. It was also discovered that students lacked composing skills as the type of writing they did was physical, bland and uninspiring. In fact, many of the students failed to communicate considering their scanty writing and lack of vocabulary to express any meaningful ideas. It was also clear from the interviews conducted with the students in the investigations that many of them were averse to writing. Some reported that when they are given a topic to write on, they panic and are unable to write because they either lacked ideas or the vocabulary to express them (Adeyemi, 2008b).

As a result of the above situation, it is the belief of this writer that exploring and strengthening the reader-response based pedagogy to teaching writing skills would help to alleviate the seemingly intractable problem of composition writing skills development, at the junior secondary level in Botswana and elsewhere with similar problems. This is because the strategy integrates extensive reading, discussions, individual responses and numerous interactive activities with writing. In addition, it would help to build students’ confidence in their own ability to be readers, as well as writers. The type of classroom environment that allows for students’ responses to be valued in a non-threatening set up, involved in response based activities, would also be beneficial in building learners’ confidence and skills.

Furthermore, the revised junior secondary English syllabus (Republic of Botswana, 2008: iii) recommends the communicative approach to language teaching as it states:

The Communicative Approach implies that communicative practice must be part of the language learning process. In order to achieve communicative ability, classroom practice therefore should be very interactive.

The interactive activities suggested by the syllabus cannot be achieved with the use of the product oriented approach of teaching writing, especially, considering the mixed ability nature of the average public secondary classroom in Botswana. It is believed that the use of a response based methodology will ultimately help to improve the learning and teaching of the English language in general, and writing in particular.

Theoretical Framework

The discussion in this paper is based on the premise that learning is accomplished by an active approach. Active learning therefore, ensures that each person process their own ways of learning for knowledge to be internalized. This can be done through the utilization of what students already know and their ability to make the necessary linkages or connections to aid their understanding of new knowledge or information (Piaget, 1970). Furthermore, cognitive development process is believed to be enhanced by active learning techniques such as discovery and interactive activities with others and the environment. This is a view supported by the constructivist views of Piaget (1970) Wertsch (1997) Duckworth (2006) and others who articulate that it is important that students make the necessary linkages between what they already know in order to understand, and then fit the new knowledge into their schema; discriminate where necessary and accommodate where there are differences for learning to occur. The issue here is how to fit all these ideas into the act of reading and by extension, writing effectively.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Role of Reading in Writing

On writing effectively in English, it has been argued that reading has an important role to play. In other words, possession of the basic skills of reading can enhance the skills to compose and write (Ross & Roe, 1990). Sovik (2003)
believes that reading and writing, support, complement and contribute to each other’s development. Other authors such as Cox (2002) and Tierney & Leys, (1984) rationalize that both reading and writing should be taught together. In fact, Heller (1995) and Ross & Roe (1990) contend that the processes involved in learning both skills are the same.

Reading or modeling (McCann & Smagorinsky, 1988; Irwin & Doyle, 1992) in writing has been looked at from different perspectives. Meriwether (1997) and Nunan (1999) look at it from a product oriented perspective when linked to extended writing. Adeyemi (2008a) quotes Escholz (1980:63) who defends the use of models in composition writing as highlighted:

Certainly few people will take exception to the general rule that one good way to learn to write is to follow the example of those who can write well … professional writers have long acknowledged the value of reading; they know that what they read is important to how they eventually write.

Furthermore, White & Arndt (1991) see modeling as beneficial since it explores the link between reading and writing to improve students’ writing skills. In other words, reading can be used to prepare learners for more realistic forms of writing. Also, writing activities in this context can provide a basis for integrated learning through reading and writing (Adeyemi, 2008a). It is equally important that this connection does not ignore the use of interactive activities provided by process writing.

The reading dimension of this discussion can be equated with response based reading as well as the subsequent writing assignment borne out of what students have read about and their perceptions of the piece. The students’ writing can then be read and appreciated the same way they have appreciated/responded to other peoples’ writing as suggestions are made, and the writing and ideas expressed, revised for further improvement to the learners’ developing texts.

**Reader-Response Approach to Reading**

The reader-response approach to reading emphasizes the reader’s role in creating meaning and stresses the importance of the reader’s own interpretation of texts. It rejects the idea that there is a single fixed meaning inherent in every literary work and holds that the individual creates his or her own meaning through a ‘transaction’ with the text based on personal associations. It is believed that readers bring their own emotions, concerns, life experiences and knowledge to their reading to make each interpretation subjective and unique (Rosenblatt, 1985, 1994). The underlying theory of this approach recognizes that readers are active agents in the reading process and that their experience, the individual emotions, feelings, understanding and the stance they bring into the reading process counts. It also acknowledges the reader’s engagement with the text, the psychological, and the concern with the cognitive, subconscious forces, the social and cultural features that affect meaning (ERIC Digest, 2010). Iser (1978) argues that even though the text in part controls the reader’s responses, at the same time it contains ‘gaps’ that the reader creatively fills. This gap that the reader fills creatively in spoken or written response can be channeled or harnessed by the teacher and facilitator to aid students in composing and writing their views and ideas.

In making a case for the reader-response aspect in teaching composition writing, reference would be made to Collie and Slater (1987) who maintain that literary texts have the potential to provide a rich context in which individual lexical and syntactic items are made more memorable for students. They argue that by reading a substantial and contextualized body of texts, students gain familiarity with many features of written language such as the variety of possible structures and the different ways of connecting ideas which broadens and enriches students writing skills. In all these ways, it is believed that literary work and experiences can improve students’ spoken language and reading and writing abilities as a result of the non judgmental and non-threatening classroom environment encouraged in the reader- response process.

**Integrating Reader-Response in Writing**

Although reader-response is often used for literature, it can be integrated into assignments in other subject areas such as in literature and composition writing where the particular type of creative writing is required. For example, composition writing by nature is expected to be creative and closely allied to the aesthetic dimensions which the reader–response strategy can provide (ERIC Digest, 2010). In this way, students can be able to find new ways to channel their thoughts and creativity.

Rather than rely on a teacher to give them a single standard interpretation of a text or situation, students learn to construct their own meaning by connecting events and situations in print to issues in their lives and describing what
they experience as they read (Mora & James, 2010). This oral/written description of events, reactions, responses or expectations can be exploited extensively to help students put their thoughts and ideas together in logical forms to develop their writing skills. Also, the exposure to different literature genres or texts has the potential benefit of helping students sharpen their reading skills as well as develop vocabulary they so badly need to put their ideas down in written form.

Furthermore, the diverse responses of individual readers and the freedom it allows in a response-based classroom, enable students to value their own views, discover the variety of possible meanings, language usage, vocabulary and grammar necessary to express thoughts in speech and to extend them into their writing (ERIC Digest, 2010). As learners’ personal responses are valued, they begin to see themselves as having the authority and responsibility to judge their own writing and see their potential ability as writers, too.

Finally, the social/interactive opportunities of a response based classroom makes it best suited for cooperative and group activities encouraged in communicative language teaching and the process approach to writing. This benefit is articulated by Karolides (2000:21) in the following:

In the weighing and balancing of class exchanges, the students gain insight into the views of others. In this atmosphere of acceptance and honesty, students will sense an appropriate, expressive reading or a limited or misdirected reading; they will measure and receive the ideas of others, incorporating them in their own revising and building their interpretations of the text.

The above argument has implications for students’ reading skills development and articulation of ideas in spoken forms that can be explored and extended into their writings. This is made possible as students read model texts, respond and examine those responses by speaking, reading and writing composition drafts, revising and fine-tuning their drafts.

**Process Writing**

The communicative approach to language teaching favoured by the Botswana government requires that the process approach to composition writing be emphasized so that students learn the language in meaningful interactions and more spontaneous and natural discourse (Republic of Botswana, 1996). There is no doubt that the process has been proven to be of use in very many ESL contexts. At the same time, some of the criticism against the approach needs re-examination. Some of the writing difficulties identified in Adeyemi (2008b) included difficulties with meaning, cohesion in writing as well as inability to express ideas in speech and writing through lack of vocabulary on the part of the learners that were studied.

The above situation has rendered many students incapacitated in line with Johns (1993) warning that most have accepted the process movement without questioning its validity for the populations and educational contexts. In Botswana, where mixed ability teaching is the rule and not the exception in the country’s public school system and where the English language is learned as L2, many are excluded from the beneficial effects of process writing. This was also noted by Martin (1985) citing his work with Aboriginal and migrant students in Australia, that because ESL students generally do not have a fully developed inter-language code system, find it difficult to participate in discussions during the various stages of the process approach. This situation justifies the use of the reader-response approach, in which students are exposed to a variety of literary texts and genres, to help them develop the badly needed vocabulary and writing styles, needed for speech and writing skills development.

**Implications of the Reader-Response - Writing Connection in Teaching Writing**

The type of reader-response based writing coupled with process writing activities suggested in this discussion is particularly recommended because of the notion that learning is a constructive and dynamic process in which students extract meaning from texts through experiencing, hypothesizing, exploring and synthesizing (Rosenblatt, 1985). The above are also processes that writers experience as well (Heller, 1995).

Furthermore, a reader-response approach is often task and activity based. Rather than rely on a teacher to passively pass on information or answers, students learn to construct their own meaning by connecting the textual material to issues in their lives and describing what they experience as they read (Mora & James, 2010). These experiences, meanings and responses can be exploited in writing assignments to improve students’ skills in this area of language learning. Also, because personal responses and interpretations are allowed and valued, students begin to see themselves as having authority and the responsibility to make judgments about what they read and subsequently extend
this confidence to their writing. After all, the approach enables them to think of themselves as potential authors who can write, too.

Last but not the least, oral discussions, small group discussions, pair work, journal writing activities, writing logs, free responses which are some of the strategies used with response based teaching are similar to process writing activities that can be incorporated, modified or strengthened to teach writing skills needed in the junior secondary level composition writing. All these, coupled with the democratic environment and attitude encouraged in a response-based classroom are advantages to be explored to solve the problems of the teaching and learning of ESL writing.

Techniques of Using the Reader–Response Approach in Writing Pedagogy

Reading/Modeling: The teacher introduces a reading topic in form of articles from books, newspaper, novels, videos, and dramatization as long as it is something that excites the students’ interest and is at the level of their understanding. At this stage, a brief introductory activity for the reading can be done such as a discussion or opinion poll of the topic or theme of the reading can be done. This would be followed by a class discussion (shared responses) of questions on the reading that are reader-response based that would enable students to do the subsequent composition writing assignment later on in the lesson. For example part of the questions the teacher can use to initiate discussions on the reading may include:

I. What sort of person do you think the main character in the story is?
II. What feelings do some of the events in the story/play evoke in you?
III. Do you feel particularly embarrassed or annoyed with the way some of the people in the story are behaving?
IV. How would you have responded (to a specific situation/event) if you were the main character in the story?
V. How would you have described the situation or reported the incident in chapter two?
VI. Suggest a title and write two paragraphs on a similar or related event that you have experienced on a character’s behaviour in the (novel, play or article) you just read and so on.

These and more, along the lines of the above activities and questions can be modified to improve not only students’ reading skills but their spoken and written language. More importantly, a novel, topic in a narrative, play or poem puts a human face to the issues, themes or concepts being discussed and through the reader response activities; multiple interpretations that tap into students’ creative ability are encouraged. This can then translate into creative writing and enriched use of language.

Through shared responses, students discern a range of reactions to the topic being read or discussed. This helps to build or clarify the students’ own responses. In this process students get the opportunity to identify and reflect on their own reactions by exploring their responses to questions posed on the subject or their feelings/attitudes to the events in the reading. The teacher should be careful at this point so that she or he does not become judgmental or prescriptive. Cross fertilization of ideas should be encouraged. It is equally important that throughout the process, students are allowed to disagree/agree and to write down important information as they deem fit.

From this point, the writing process can now take over as students are paired or divided into groups to work at writing about their own similar or different experiences on the theme of the reading. They are also encouraged to do peer review of their work and necessary revision and editing of each others’ writing. The teacher may also provide a checklist to help with the revision/editing before the final submission.

CONCLUSION

It is noted that writing is a generally difficult skill to learn even for L1 speakers. Some of the causes of difficulty in writing include the fact that writing is not a spontaneous activity but has to be learned. It is also assumed that it involves some conscious mental efforts and not just the ability to put words on paper. In consideration of the nature of writing, and the difficulties of L2 teaching and learning, it is important to continue to explore the ways or strategies to minimize the difficulties ESL students encounter and to help them overcome their fear of writing.

REFERENCES


The Introduction of Entrepreneurship Education to School Leavers in a Vocational Institute

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Abstract

In this fast-changing society, the youth unemployment rate is high and the knowledge learnt in schools is inadequate to equip students to compete in the competitive marketplace. For many school leavers who do not have the marks to go to university, a vocational institute is an obvious choice for them to continue their studies. In this situation, would it be possible for the institutes to provide entrepreneurship training programs for this group of young people? Do these students have the right kind of education credentials to increase their employability or to start their own business? This study attempts to investigate whether Entrepreneurship Education should be provided to business students in a vocational institute as part of their study program. The results suggest that Entrepreneurship Education would have a positive impact on the strength of the students’ entrepreneurial spirit in terms of starting-up a new business, and a high percentage of students acknowledged that the entrepreneurial knowledge they had acquired would be useful to them.

Keywords: entrepreneurship education; vocational institutes; Hong Kong; school leavers

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION

The changing workplace environment is providing many reasons for entrepreneurship education. Self-employment is an on-going trend as more organizations contract out work rather than employing permanent employees to do the tasks. Big firms are unbundling their various activities and farming them out to small firms that are better at creating profit. Public services are being privatized as governments seek to cut spending and decrease financial deficits. People need to be more flexible and creative regarding their working livelihoods in order to cope with this changing labor market. In order to cope with this changing labor market, people need to be more flexible and creative regarding their working livelihoods.(please delete this sentence) Furthermore, they need to be enterprising and able to work autonomously, take responsibility and make decisions, work in small teams and continually update their job skills. Entrepreneurship education could play an important role in providing training in these multiple skills that are characteristic of these new work trends, and the education system must be responsible for training enough well-equipped people to sustain the development of the economy.

University education is seen to be a vehicle for students to get jobs, but only around 18% of the youths in Hong Kong can find a place in tertiary institutions. At the same time, the education policy of the main stream education system does not allow the majority of students to stay in school longer because their academic performance
is not good enough for them to be promoted to secondary six, and they cannot repeat the same year again and again due to limited educational resources. Quite a number of those who cannot go further in their education study in vocational institutes, so it would be a good idea to introduce entrepreneurship education in vocational institutes.

The Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

Educators, policymakers, employers, parents and students started to become aware of the gaps between school and work. They found that “neither students nor teachers [had] a solid understanding of the links between school and work” (Rubin, 1996, p.7). Students and teachers had no idea, or limited knowledge, about how the skills learned at school, like algebra skills, might be applied to the workplace; they knew little about what skills employers expected their employees to possess (Rubin, 1996; Cheung and Lewis, 1998). It was also noted that the existing business education was not relevant to the business world, and this situation applies both in Hong Kong and the West (Brawer, 1997; Cheung, 1997). In view of this situation, many countries started to develop entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurship education is significant in many aspects. It can provide students with an understanding of business – its purposes, its structure, its interrelationship with other segments of the economy and society. Many studies have noted that an entrepreneurship course has a positive impact on students’ views of entrepreneurship (Mohan-Neill, 2001; Waldmann, 1997; Kolvereid and Moen, 1997; Cheung, 2008a).

Entrepreneurship education focuses on life. There is a debate in the literature as to whether entrepreneurship education should be concerned more with venture creation and business management, or with developing a set of personal attributes and skills—or, in the vocabulary of Kirby (2004), whether one should educate about entrepreneurship or educate for it. Traditionally, it has been thought that entrepreneurship education is about teaching students how to start a business, create a business plan, etc. More recently, however, it has been recognized that such skills are essential but not sufficient to make a successful entrepreneur (Rae, 1997). A successful entrepreneur must have knowledge of the business world, but must also possess a set of generic attributes, skills and behaviours—such as those related to communication, creativity, and problem-solving—that are important to life as well as business. Therefore, if entrepreneurship education is conducted with a view to promoting students’ personal attributes, it can have a substantial impact on students’ careers, whether or not they plan to become entrepreneurs.

The Study

Before introducing a new subject, educators will definitely want to know what the attitudes of students to the proposed subject are. The aim of this study was to investigate whether Entrepreneurship Education should be provided to business students in this institute as part of their study program. The study was conducted using quantitative research techniques with the application of narrative description, and the interpretation and statistical analysis of numeric data. As this study focuses on Entrepreneurship Education in an institute for secondary five school leavers in Hong Kong, a case study research approach was employed to investigate the importance to these particular students of studying Entrepreneurship Education. The study also investigated entrepreneurial spirit and students’ attitudes towards entrepreneurship education, and their perceptions of entrepreneurship skills and other work-related skills.

The Institute

The institute mainly provides vocational programs for secondary school leavers. Recently, the institute has been undergoing a program revolution, which calls for some elements of Entrepreneurship Education to be added to its existing business programs. Although educators know that Entrepreneurship Education is important for the economy, there was no information on what students thought about this subject. Understanding students’ perceptions of Entrepreneurship Education and how they measure their knowledge in this area and in other work-related skills would assist the institute in planning its programs.

The Students

Three groups of students participated in this study. The first group was a class of thirty-five students in the first year of a two-year Business Studies Program. The second group was a class of thirty-eight students in a one-year Commercial Studies Program. The third group was a class of thirty-seven students in a Hotel Business Studies Program.

Development of Questionnaires
The questionnaire was designed with reference to the Gallup Survey (1994), Waldmann (1997), and the Education Department Bureau (EDB) (2000), and was divided into four sections. Section A required personal data concerning gender, work experience and program information only. Section B contained a series of specific attributes in which students were asked to indicate a level of agreement regarding their attitudes to entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial spirit. Section C concerned the students’ perceptions of their own entrepreneurial skills. Section D covered the students’ general work-related skills.

Except for the personal information section, all sections in the questionnaire employed a five-point Likert scale instrument to assess attitudes towards a topic by presenting a set of statements about the topic and asking respondents to indicate for each whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were neutral, disagreed or strongly disagreed. The questions were examined for bias, sequence, clarity and validity, and were tested in pilot studies to determine their usefulness and reliability.

Data Analysis

The survey results were analyzed using SPSS on a quantitative basis. Furthermore, descriptive and inferential statistics were used in this study. A paired samples t-test was used to determine whether there was a difference in mean scores for different questions. An independent sample t-test was used to assess whether gender affected students’ attitudes to entrepreneurship. Correlations analysis was also used to measure the relationship between students’ intention to start-up a business and their standard of knowledge and understanding of starting and managing a business. An exploratory factor analysis of any hidden dimensions underlying the attributes was also employed.

Validity and Reliability Measurement

The questionnaire was developed with reference to many previous studies. Before giving the questionnaire to the students, a mini pilot study, using the survey questionnaires, was conducted with a small group of colleagues and friends to test the material covered for the wording of the questions and the adequacy of the sample of items.

To ensure data validity, about one hundred students were invited to participate in the survey. Reference data were also collected from twenty entrepreneurs in different industries. This reference data could be indicators of the criterion that the test was believed to predict. These two sets of data were comparable, and cross-referenced and cross-validated to ensure their validity.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Questionnaires were dispatched to all 110 sampled students at the institute. A total of 105 questionnaires were returned. Among these 105 responses, seven sets of questionnaires contained incomplete data and were removed from the analysis. The quantitative analysis is based on 98 questionnaires (n = 98). The completed questionnaires received from the three classes of students consisted of 33 from Business Studies students (BS), 34 from Commerce Studies students (CS) and 31 from Hotel Business Studies students (HBS).

Desire of Students to Start Their Own Business

Question 1 simply asked students whether they had ever seriously considered starting their own business sometime after graduation. Only 24% of BS students and 23% of HBS students responded positively. This result is low in comparison with other countries, but confirmed the study done in Hong Kong in which only three percent of adults indicated that they wanted to start a business (CUHK, 2005).

Question 2 asked if they would like to start a business if they were unemployed. The response was very positive. The numbers for the three different classes were about 67%, 97%, and 71% for BS, CS and HBS respectively. Although starting a new venture was not the students’ first priority, they would want to do so if they were unemployed.

Of particular interest was the change in the desire to start a business as an alternative to unemployment. A paired samples t-test was used to determine whether there was a difference in the mean scores for
question 1 and 2. The result is shown in Table 1. The results of the three classes are considered statistically significant as the two-tailed probability for all is 0.000, which is definitely less than 0.05, the significant level.

Table 1: Result of paired samples t-test for question 1 and question 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BS</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>-6.118</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>-4.311</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>-5.568</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>-9.192</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level
(Degrees of freedom BS = 32, CS = 33, HBS =30 and overall = 97

**Students’ Entrepreneurial Spirit and Attitudes towards Entrepreneurship Education**

A large proportion of BS students (85%) and CS students (79%) indicated that they intended to have their own business rather than getting a secure and well-paid job, but only less than half (48%) of HBS students said so. This result is shown in Table 2. Perhaps HBS students have a clearer career path than the other two classes of students because the former are more likely to obtain a job in a hotel-related industry after graduation due to the recent more positive employment environment in the hotel industry in Hong Kong.

Although many of the students wanted to achieve success on their own, and wanted to be self-employed and independent, they were not prepared to accept the risks and insecurity that are inherent in entrepreneurship, except the CS students, about 71% of whom indicated that they would accept risk and insecurity in business. However, only around one-third of BS students (33%) and HBS students (38%), respectively were willing to accept risk and insecurity. Nowadays, it seems that young people are usually not clear about what they really want for their careers. They prefer to work for themselves, to achieve their own success, but when they encounter the issues of taking risks and personal responsibility, not many of them are prepared to go further and develop their dreams. Research indicates that the reasons for not taking the opportunities to start their own business are: the difficulty in obtaining finance, lack of knowledge of how to evaluate potential business opportunities, and the lack of knowledge and skills (Botha, *et al.* 2006; Cheung, 2008b). That is why entrepreneurship education is essential as it would enable students to explore these issues before they really encounter difficulties in practice.

Table 2: Percentage and mean scores of students who prefer their own success and accept business risks and insecurity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>BS Strongly agree/ agree</th>
<th>BS Neutral</th>
<th>BS Strongly disagree/ disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 3. Prefer having own business rather than getting a secure and well paid job</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>CU Strongly agree/ agree</th>
<th>CU Neutral</th>
<th>CU Strongly disagree/ disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 4. Accept risks and insecurity in business</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.596</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study shows that the importance of entrepreneurship education was recognized as 100% of BS respondents, 97% of CS respondents and 68% of HBS respondents agreed that it was important for them to be taught about entrepreneurship and how to start a business (Table 3). This result is similar to that of the Gallup Survey (1994), where 85% of high school students indicated a desire to learn more about the subject.
Table 3: Percentage and mean scores of students’ perceptions of Entrepreneurship Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>Strongly agree/</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly disagree/</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 5. The learning of EE is important for starting a business</td>
<td>BS 100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 97.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBS 67.7</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall 88.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 6. Knowledge of how to run a business is useful to me</td>
<td>BS 93.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBS 71.0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall 88.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 7. Would seriously consider starting own business if I learnt how to do it</td>
<td>BS 75.8</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 76.5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBS 35.5</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall 63.3</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 8. Knowledge &amp; skills in starting &amp; managing a business</td>
<td>BS 0</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS 0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBS 9.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>0.749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall 3.1</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.606</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Education can help to boost young people’s entrepreneurial spirit and business start-up rate (Kourilsky, 1995), but if there is no Entrepreneurship Education in the current secondary curriculum, how can school leavers have the confidence to start-up their own business? As far as promoting entrepreneurial spirit among young people, the education system today probably harms more students than it helps (Kirby, 2004). Also, the system restricts creativity, competence and capability and thus demotivates students and narrows their perspectives (Cheung and Lewis, 1998).

Unfortunately, but not too surprisingly, a very high percentage of students reported that they had poor or very poor knowledge and understanding of starting and managing a business. About 58% of BS students, 82% of CS students and 81% of HBS students reported that they had poor to very poor knowledge and understanding of this aspect. No one in either the BS or the CS class reported that they had at least a good understanding of it. All the mean scores of these three classes were under 2.5, which means that the students’ knowledge and understanding of starting a business were less than fair. It seems that all students understood that their weakness in knowledge of how to start a business might prevent them from taking their entrepreneurial dream further.

A paired samples t-Test was used to determine whether a difference in the mean scores for question 1 and question 7 existed. The result is shown in Table 4. The observed two-tailed probabilities for BS and HBS are 0.000 and 0.023, which are both less than 0.05 and, therefore, the test is considered significant at the 0.05 level. However, no significant difference was found for CS at the 0.05 level because the observed two-tailed probability was larger than 0.05. The results implied that if they had confidence in starting and managing a business, both BS and HBS respondents would be happy to try. However, in the case of CS, respondents’ intention to start-up a business was equally strong with or without the required knowledge and skills. Under this circumstance, providing students with the chance to study Entrepreneurship Education would help to nurture students’ entrepreneurial spirit at least in the case of BS and HBS. Also, more importantly, a high percentage of students (89%) agreed that studying Entrepreneurship Education would be useful to them.

Table 4: Result of paired samples t-test for question 1 and question 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BS</td>
<td>-0.88</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>-6.464</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>-1.787</td>
<td>0.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>-2.402</td>
<td>0.023*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>-5.965</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the 0.05 level
(Degrees of freedom BSS = 32, CSS = 33, HBSS =30 and Overall = 97)

Table 5 indicates that CS students responded more positively to all these attribution factors as a higher proportion of them wanted to start their own business, to be self-employed and independent, to achieve their own success and to be more willing to take risks and face insecurity in running a business, compared to the other two groups of students. They seemed to have a higher aspiration toward entrepreneurship and a positive attitude towards an entrepreneurial spirit. Furthermore, they also had a strong interest in receiving Entrepreneurship Education (97%), and all of them (100%) considered that the knowledge and skills of entrepreneurship would be useful to them. Although their academic performance was supposed to be the lowest of the three classes, they had a clear mind and consistent thinking about entrepreneurship. In contrast, BS students and HBS students had less interest in starting a business. However, in terms of attitudes to Entrepreneurship Education, BS students had a more positive attitude than HBS students. A hundred percent of BS students considered that taking Entrepreneurship Education was important, and 94% of them considered the knowledge and skills of entrepreneurship to be useful to them compared to only 68% and 71%, respectively, of HBS students.

Table 5 Correlations between starting own business and knowledge and understanding of business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>HBS</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1 Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Business Studies Program provides much more in the way of professional training that may make students feel confident in finding a job in an office after graduation. In the past, many graduates pursued their studies to receive professional training, and so many of these students might see their future in professional development rather than in starting up a business. As mentioned earlier in this paper, the HBS students were expecting to get a job in the hotel industry, and they had more confidence in the future. Perhaps they also liked the field that they were studying. All these factors contributed to the lower entrepreneurial spirit of both BS and HBS students.

Students’ Perceptions of Entrepreneurial Skills

a. Personal Attitudes

In general, students valued themselves quite positively, except in the areas of risk-taking and perseverance, where 44% to 59% of students graded themselves as agreeing or strongly agreeing that they possessed these kinds of characteristics (Table 6). Students’ perceptions of themselves in this positive manner may help them in their future career development. The mean scores for all the attributes were greater than 3. Of the skills in this section, responsibility and commitment yielded the highest mean scores. Risk-taking and perseverance produced the weakest responses, with only 29% and 26% of students respectively grading themselves as possessing these two characteristics. The mean scores of perseverance were the lowest of all the attributes.

Risk-taking and perseverance are the two most important characteristics of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs have to take risks every time they make decisions. A risk-taker possesses entrepreneurial talent and temperament and is more likely to achieve success in entrepreneurship. This risk-taking attribute is very important for a person intending to start a new venture. However, students in this study were not strong in this respect. They tended not to be ambitious with respect to starting-up their own business and tended to want an easy life without too much hardship.

Table 6: Percentage and mean scores of students’ personal attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly disagree/ disagree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q C1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibili</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ty and Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q C2. Ability to work independently</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>HBS</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q C4. Initiative and drive</td>
<td>BS</td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>Overall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q C5. Risk-taking</td>
<td>BS</td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>Overall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q C6. Receptivity and adaptability to new ideas</td>
<td>BS</td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>Overall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q C12. Perseverance</td>
<td>BS</td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>HBS</td>
<td>Overall</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Percentage and mean scores of students’ analytical and problem-solving abilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribution Factors</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>HBS</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q C3. Creativity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q C7. Problem-solving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q C8. Analytical skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Analytical and Problem Solving Abilities

Table 7 shows that students perceived themselves highly especially in relation to creativity, problem-solving and analytical skills. Over 50% of the students agreed that they possessed these skills in these areas, and the mean scores were in general above 3.5. Of these three attribution factors, creativity received the highest mean score of 3.63. Indeed, creativity and problem-solving abilities are significant when evaluating a business opportunity and are also needed in day-to-day business management. They are important attributes for entrepreneurs and are equally important attributes for employees.

A comparatively lower percentage of students indicated that they possessed the characteristics of decision-making and foresight. The scores in these categories were 39% and 29%, respectively, although the mean scores were still higher than 3. Perhaps students at this stage are not familiar with the concepts of decision-making and foresight; they seldom make decisions on their own as they have parents to take care of them. However, young adults need to learn to build-up their self-confidence, not just to prepare for entrepreneurship or employment, but also for survival in life.
c. **Students’ Perceptions of Other Work-Related Skills**

In this section, students were asked to grade themselves regarding other work-related skills: communication skills, collaboration skills, inter-personal skills, information and technology skills, numeracy skills, study skills and ethics in general. The results are shown in Table 8, and it is noted that respondents rated their work-related skills highly. Over 60% of students indicated that they possessed almost all the attributes, with the exception of study skills: only about 18% of students had confidence in their study skills. This poor perception of their study skills is understandable because almost all of the students had previously had poor academic performance. This previous experience had reduced their confidence in their study skills. Nevertheless, many teachers in this institute believe that many of their students are teachable and willing to learn. Some of the students were expecting to achieve good result in the year-end examinations.

The results received in regard to collaboration skills and inter-personal skills were very similar to each other. The researcher observed that the relationship between students and teachers in this institute was more like that of friends than that of teachers and students. The students, who had completed their education to secondary five level in other schools, had reached a more mature level by the time they were studying in this institution. Hence, there was usually mutual respect between students and teachers. The researcher believes that as students become more mature, they will perform at an even higher level in this inter-personal area.

Not too surprisingly, as they had all studied computer applications in their current programs, students graded themselves as having good information technology skills. Some students had also studied Computer Studies during their secondary education. All the students had confidence in their information technology skills. It is essential that students have this computer knowledge, which will enable them to continue with self-learning in their future working life.

An understanding of moral obligations and responsibilities associated with economic activities and daily life are important. Furthermore, an awareness of the common moral issues and dilemmas that can occur while conducting a business are also an important part of business education for students. Business students should be educated to have a moral sensitivity, such as caring about the influence of business actions on other affected parties. The results from the questionnaire survey indicated that about three out of every four students (77%) agreed that they had a sense of ethics. However, they may not have the real life experience in dealing with business issues, and it is important that more case studies dealing with business ethics should be used to familiarize them in real life practice.

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CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Entrepreneurship Education is a well-established subject both at university and high school levels in many countries, but not in Hong Kong, and it is appropriate for this vocational institute to provide to those students who cannot continue their studies in tertiary institutions a chance to acquire entrepreneurial knowledge.

This study confirms that students in this institute would like to study Entrepreneurship Education as part of their current business studies programs. Moreover, they would have more confidence both in starting up a business and in working in business if they were equipped with entrepreneurial knowledge. As indicated by the literature review, Entrepreneurship Education can make a contribution to both promoting students’ entrepreneurial spirit and enriching students’ entrepreneurial skills and other work-related skills. Although it would be difficult for a student to start a new business straight after graduation, even if he or she had received Entrepreneurship Education, it is still worthwhile to teach students the related skills because Entrepreneurship Education could not only stimulate students’ entrepreneurial spirit, but also enable students to be more competent in career development.

Furthermore, Entrepreneurship Education could develop students’ generic skills. Secondary education has until now not emphasized the development of students’ generic skills, and the implementation of Entrepreneurship Education in business programs would enable business students to acquire these essential generic skills.

This study provides for interested parties some preliminary ideas on the subject of Entrepreneurship Education. The attitudes of students towards entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurship Education could be further studied in a larger-scale and more detailed research project.

The participants of this study were from one particular vocational institute, and the results may be limited only to the possibility of having Entrepreneurship Education in this institute. No comparison has been made with students in other vocational institutes. A comprehensive study of more students in different institutes may collect stronger evidence about whether the introduction of Entrepreneurship Education in business programs is possible.

REFERENCES


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Bachelor of Education in Educational Management Students’ Perception of their Programme of Study: Case of University of Botswana

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Abstract
A survey study was conducted to establish perceptions of students who completed in 2008 and 2009 respectively in the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) in Education Management regarding the study provision and conditions, therefore the perceived value and quality of the study programme. Theories of learning which point to the influence of the ‘inner world’, the ‘work environment’ and the ‘other people’ on learning and therefore perceptions of programmes were used as the theoretical framework. B.Ed. Educational Management students filled in a questionnaire which had both open and close ended items. Perceptions were deduced from views on, among others, facilities to support the programme, usefulness of the programme for work, quality of the programme and support availed students. The findings showed an overwhelming positive perception of the programme. By implication, the programme would be expected to positively enhance learning thus, produce managers who would have a positive impact in the schools. Among the recommendations made were that the Ministry of Education and Skills Development of Botswana considers sponsoring more inservice management students to the local programme to reduce on costs, with cognisance being taken to avoid inbreeding where every manager would be coming from the local institution. Another recommendation is to conduct a study to establish the impact of these graduates on education where they are deployed as school managers.

Keywords: learning theories, perceptions, support, motivation, B.Ed. in educational management, programme, Botswana.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION

The B.Ed. in Educational Management is an in-service programme for school administrators, teachers and members of other organizations such as the Police, the Defense force and any other Non Governmental Organisations which may want to upgrade professional qualifications of their staff members. In this respect, most students are adults who come with baggage of their social and economic personal lives such as work challenges, family responsibilities, family projects, and loans to service and at times marital challenges. For this reason, learning for these people is always a challenge which needs to be cushioned to override the multi-challenges of the learner’s lives.
When performing any task, motivation plays a key role. The extent to which students perform is a function of their motivation towards such job. When student study they are influenced by certain factors such as the learning environment, the extent to which they perceive the future utility of a programme of study, the faculty variable as well as the availability of support materials. House (2002) emphasises that student characteristics, living and learning conditions as well as instructional activities contribute to the student’s positive learning. According to Sanders (1998), a major factor which affects students’ academic growth and therefore positive perceptions of their programmes is the effectiveness and variations that are brought about by different faculty in presenting their varied courses. The quality of such faculty available to students is therefore critical to perceived quality of any program of study. The variations in the teaching methodologies brought by faculty members thus add spice to the students’ academic experiences and perception of a given programme. This is further enhanced by the type of support students get from their lecturers. Where the Faculty is available to students both inside and outside of class, the tendency is for encouragement on the part of the student who would not be groaning without assistance. As noted by Lorenzetti (2004) a good relationship with academic staff members or advisors who also show a sense of caring and empathy is a plus to being positive about one’s programme of study. Close personal relationship with staff assists in dealing with stress. Assistance with technology by faculty enhances motivation to learn, thus assists in dealing with stress (Morris & Miller (2010). Through advising, students feel they are cared for and develop a sense of connectedness to their institution, hence a positive feeling about their program of study (Tang, Tang and Tang, 2004; Lorenzetti, 2004; Morris and Miller 2010; Harris 1991; Department of Special Education University of South Florida, 2009).

Over and above the support students receive from their lecturers as a factor of perception towards any program, is the good relations amongst students themselves which lead them to realise that they need each other’s shoulders to lean on. Positive role models and supportive group peers are seen as important components of any training for public sectors (Hargrove, Fox, & Goldman, 1991). Therefore institutions where students form learning communities by coming together to brainstorm and to be there for one another during trying academic times provides opportunities to deal with stress related to academic challenges. Harris (1991) shares the same sentiments by noting that students who take charge of their own learning through group problem solving make their learning realistic and flexible.

Programmes are pursued because learners are interested in them, because they want to grow professionally as well as to be self actualized (Kirk 2008). He pointed out that the affective domain also has influence on the learner’s perception of any program of study. He argues that people learn because the program is very interesting to them, it will give them personal fulfillment. He also notes that Learning is also done to fulfill certain tangible rewards such as getting a lucrative job, getting promoted and being able to solve certain real life problems.

According to theories of learning, therefore, there are three areas which influence how people learn and therefore develop certain perceptions of their own learning programs. These areas are the ‘internal world’, ‘the work environment’ and ‘other people’ (Kirk, 2008. The factors that influence learning are by inference the same factors which would also influence one’s perception of their program of study because it is the program that they would be learning from.

The ‘internal world’ is the inner part of the being which manifests itself as intrinsic motivation (Kirk, 2008) which can either influence or de-motivate one to learn. This emotional being could, for example, be translated as the desire for job satisfaction and actualisation. In this case learners may want to learn because they feel good about it and anticipate reward of job satisfaction in future and feeling good about having been developed professionally.

The ‘work environment’ as a factor influencing perception about a given program could manifest itself as a feeling that the courses offered, for example, relate very well with the job content that one would have been doing or will likely be doing after completing the program. Issues of promotional opportunities as offered by the program of study could also influence perceptions of a given program. Any facilities and resources offered to enhance achievement in relation to the future or current job in a program could be indicators of the state of the ‘work environment area’ and therefore could influence a learner’s perceptions of such a program. In other words, the perceptions of how relevant the program is to the learner’s job can influence their perceptions of it. The ‘other people’ factor relates to the relationships that a learner has with others such as peers, faculty and ancillary support. This relationship could enhance or discourage the conditions and provisions of the environment in any given program of study.

Studying at an institution of higher learning is usually a challenging and daunting task especially if this is done by learners who are adults. Acknowledging this challenge, Voorhees and Lingenfelter (2003) propose a need to remove harmful obstacles in order to facilitate deeper and wider participation in tertiary education by adult learners.
According to O'Connor (2003), feeling good about one’s learning assists one's motivation to learn. Learning by adult students therefore needs to be undergirded by motivation and removal of harmful obstacles as alluded to by Voorhees and Lingenfelter (2003) as this is a precursor to such learning.

If learning environmental factors are perceived to be positive by the learners, they may reflect a plus for the programme and if not then this may be a wake up call for the faculty to improve on that given program. Course evaluation by recipients assists institutions to understand the shortcomings as well as strengths of a given programme and therefore do the revisions as appropriate.

In an attempt to review the B.Ed. Education Management student’s perceptions of their program of study, the three areas influencing learning and hence perceptions of a program of study were used as a theoretical framework. In this respect, the study aimed at establishing what students perceived to be the experiences they had during the time they studied for a BEd Educational Management degree at the University of Botswana from the point of view of their ‘internal world’, their ‘work environment’ and the ‘other people’ with regards a)Facilities to support the programme, b) Perceived usefulness of the programme of study for the individual’s future career prospects, c) Perceived Quality of the Program and d) Perceived Support provided to students.

**Study Focus**

Program reviews are critical in these changing economic, political and social landscapes. What could have been good quality at the inception of any program could have lost its value with the changes in the needs of the clientele. The perceived quality and success of any programme of study therefore depends on the extent to which it addresses the recurrent needs of the learners. Woody (1942) points out that institutions are set up to educate learners and meet their social political and economic aspirations. He therefore contends that it is imperative, when attempting to introduce new values in education, for the clients who are consumers to be provided an opportunity to give necessary input as they will be presenting views from inside, their experiential lives.

As a lecturer of these adult learners, and forever listening to the challenges they go through as well as having to counsel a number of them, one felt it important to find out how they feel about their programme of study. The Government of Botswana still sponsors management students to study across the border in South Africa as well as abroad in institutions such as Australian Universities. This practice has proved comparatively more expensive as compared to sponsoring students locally. One of the reasons for this action is that some Batswana adult learners do not trust that their own institution of higher learning, the University of Botswana can provide credible programmes. As those who experience the programme are better placed to evaluate it as they have lived experiences of it, it was found appropriate to use the BEd Education Management students to assess the value of this programme. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to establish the learners’ perception of provision and conditions of studying for the degree in BEd Educational Management at the University of Botswana with the view to making appropriate recommendations to both the University staff and the policy makers and where possible recommend programme review.

**Research Objectives**

The objectives of the study were to find out the BEd Management Students’ perception of:

1. The facilities intended to support the programme of study.
2. Usefulness of the programme for their future career prospects
3. Quality of the programme of study
4. The support they receive during the course of the programme.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The quality of any academic program is dependent upon the extent to which such a programme meets its objectives, addresses the mission and vision of its institution. In particular it is pertinent that such a program meets the needs and aspirations of the clients if it is to be considered to be of quality. Woody (1942) notes therefore that education innovations or program modifications should not be for lecturers or education managers but for the clients who are the consumers. He notes that lecturers and managers should be seen to create an understanding among the stakeholders, the clients concerning the new values in any program. If the Faculty of Education, for instance, would like to make any adjustments to any program, such as the BEd Educational Management in terms of its conditions and provisions, it is important to consult the consumers to give an assessment of it and make suggestions for improvement.
As the study intended finding out individual opinions about the conditions and provisions of the BEd Education Management programme, a survey research design was adopted. A survey “is a method of collecting data in which a specifically defined group of individuals are asked to answer a number of identical questions” (Baker, 1999: 201). Therefore a set of identical questions were asked to all students. As noted by Creswell, (2005) it was found appropriate to use a survey because, surveys provide useful information to evaluate programmes in institutions without experimentally manipulating the conditions of research. As consumers of the programme, students were found to be appropriate to provide their perceptions.

The respondents were composed of the 2004 and 2005 cohorts, which groups completed in 2008 and 2009 respectively. The source of data for the study was the students themselves. Out of a total of 58 students, 37 completed the questionnaire. A number of factors were used as indicators of the programme provision and conditions. Some of these were assistance students received for their end of semester examinations, opportunities for out of class contacts with the lecturing staff, grading system in the course. Quality of course content, quality of lecturers, availability of technical equipment such as computers and provision of supervised practical work is also important in influencing perception of a program of study. Other factors which contribute to the learner’s motivation may range from the quality of the programme, the perceived employability opportunities provided by the courses as well as the perceived utility of the course to students’ prospective work life. Therefore, the questionnaire items were grouped into a) facilities to support the programme offering, b) perceived quality of the programme, c) support provided to students, and d) usefulness of the programme of study for the individual’s future work life.

FINDINGS

Findings of the study are presented according to the categories of the indicators of the Provision and Conditions of BEd Management Program. These are as grouped a) Facilities to support the programme offering, b) Perceived Quality of the Program, and c) Support provided to students and d) usefulness of the programme of study for the individual’s future.

a) Facilities to support the programme

The indicators for facilities to support the programme offering were described by the following variables: Availability of technical equipment such as computer, quality of equipment of laboratories/workshops or classrooms, equipment and stocking of the library and the general Infrastructure. With regards the availability of technical equipment such as a computer, while 14(35.1%) respondents expressed that equipment was not available and not good, 22(59.4%) of them felt the equipment was available and good to very good. The library is yet another resource centre which plays a very crucial role in supporting learning at higher institutions hence providing either conducive or poor environment for learning. With regards stocking of the library with books as well as the associated equipment, 26(70.3%) respondents were content while 10 (27%) felt that the library was poorly stocked and therefore did not support learning as expected. The respondents were also asked about their perceptions with regards the general university infrastructure as pertains to their own learning. Thirty four (92.8%) respondents were happy with the general infrastructure as support to their learning and stay at the University of Botswana,

b) Perceived usefulness of the programme of study for the individual’s future career prospects

Students were asked to comment on whether they think the programme can add value to their future professional development. Respondents were confident that not only will the programme lead to their future professional development (100%) but will also give them confidence in their jobs as they would have gained skills and knowledge from it (97.3%), and more informed about their jobs. Ninety one percent of these respondents also expressed that the programme would also lead to their personality development. Respondents pointed out that their programme of study has motivated in them a willingness to learn more (94.6%) ability to be reflective (94.6%) and move away from conventional thinking with the desire to perform even better (97.3%). To this extent, 77.1% of them said they would choose a higher degree in the same area if an opportunity availed itself.

Responds were confident that they had developed capacity to improvise as appropriate, to be relied on, to be independent and to even work under pressure (97.3%). There was an overwhelming view by respondents that the programme has created a sense of responsibility, creativity, determination and economic reasoning in them (90%). Respondents saw in themselves, that after the experience of the BEd Educational Management, beings who are more
believe the programme has developed their ability to adapt to changing situations as well as to be empathetic to others.

Respondents also felt that the programme has given them the skills to be able to coordinate (100%). They also have a strong believe that the programme would also assist the respondents secure challenging jobs after they complete their studies (97.3%). The research based approach to learning as provided by the programme is seen by the majority (97.2) as preparing respondents to be able to prepare for work situations and have long term career prospects (97.3). Respondents also felt that the programme has given them the skills to be able to coordinate (100%). They also expressed satisfaction with the depth and the high quality of courses offered in the programme, their engagement in their own learning hence preparing them for their own work experiences. It was expressed that the programme provided an opportunity for job security (97.2) as learners would be with it. As a result, 36 (96.3%) saw the program as providing opportunities for promotion in the respondents jobs.

c) Perceived Quality of the Program

Indicators used for quality were quality of lecturers, teaching quality, chances of students being allowed to participate in research activities or projects, practical emphasis of teaching and learning by staff, quality of course content (core and optional courses) and teaching methods used.
**Figure 2: Perceived Quality of the programme (as a percentage).**

**Key:** 1. Quality of lecturers; 2. Quality of teaching; 3. Quality of course content for both core and optional courses; 4. Student participation in research projects; 5. Quality of grading system; 6. Methods of teaching; 7. Variation in course offerings; 8. Students’ ability to structure their own programme; 9. Students’ involvement in departmental decision making; 10. Possibility of individualised study; 11. Practical emphasis on teaching and learning.

With regards quality of lecturers as an indicator of programme provision, 33 (89.1%) respondents stated that the BEd Educational Management lecturers were good. The same number (33 [89.1%]) of respondents indicated that the quality of teaching from these lecturers was perceived as good while only four said it was bad. As a follow up to the quality of lecturers as well as their teaching, 100% respondents pointed out that the course content for both core and optional courses offered by these lecturers was very relevant and useful to them and their future work situations as school managers. They said that what was interesting was that both the learning and teaching were practically inclined and research based (94%) as students were given assignments in the form of projects demanding some research. That is, assignments were mostly application to their real work situations, through critiques in line with the learnt materials. Participating in research activities is one way through which students are encouraged to acquire research or needs assessment skills. Therefore students were asked to give their opinions on their being allowed opportunities to participate in research projects. Out of 37 students, 34 (91.8%) indicated that they got involved and this involvement is very good for them especially when they rejoin their work assignments.

Students would normally complain that the faculty members are strict, or may be biased when it comes to grading their academic work. On being asked about this area, 28 (75.6%) of them were happy with the way lecturers graded their work. A good percentage of respondents (83.7%) believed that the methods of teaching used which were said to also be practically oriented were very useful for their learning.

One of the ways to ascertain acceptability and therefore quality of the programme provision was the programme structure itself. Students were asked to comment on their views of the structure whether or not they think it suits their own needs by offering a variety of courses, a possibility of individualized structuring of studies and provision of supervised practical work experience. With regards students’ view on whether or not they are happy with the variation that is offered in terms of courses, 35 (94.6) said the variation was good and useful to them. A good programme can be characterized by the ability for students to structure their own programme as per their needs. Twenty six (70.2%) students thought that the program is such that they can structure their own individualized studies within the overall programme. They saw that as useful as it helps address their individualized needs. Thirty one (83.7%) students were happy that they are involved in departmental decision making through student representation in various departmental committees.

**d) Perceived Support provided to students.**

As a way of ascertaining students’ perceptions of the conditions and provision of their programme, they were asked to evaluate the extent to which they were supported by various stakeholders. Support provided to students’ was inferred from their views on assistance or advice they get for end of semester examinations, opportunity for out of class contact with teaching staff, academic advising, contact with fellow students and supply of teaching materials.

With regards whether or not students received assistance or advice for end of semester examinations, 33 (89.1%) noted that they are happy with such assistance while 31 (83.9%) also said they get an opportunity for out of class contact with their teaching staff to engage in academic assistance of any kind. The same number 31 (83.9%) of students also expressed a view that they were happy with the general academic advising they receive from the academic staff members in the B.Ed. Education management programme. Not only did students receive academic support from staff, they also appreciated the support they received from their fellow students as 23 (62.1%) of them said such contact is good. It is noted however, that a significant number of 14, 937.8%) students was not happy at contacts with fellow students. While this number may be below half the respondents, one feels it is significant as it accounts for more than a third of the respondents. Students to students contact and support is important especially for adult learners. With regards provision of teaching materials by their lecturers, 28 (75.7%) respondents were content with the materials they received to support their learning.
Key: 1. End of year examination; 2. Out of class contact with staff; 3. General academic advising; 4. Support from fellow students; 5. Provision of teaching materials by staff; 6. Availability of technical equipment; 7. Equipment and stocking of the library

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was an attempt to establish the B.Ed. Education Management Students’ perception of their own programme with the view of making recommendations for modifications and improvements as appropriate as well as making recommendations to policy makers. The theoretical framework used to undergird the study or the perceptions was as per the theories of learning which point out that there are three areas which influence how people learn and therefore develop certain perceptions of their own learning programmes (Kirk, 2008). These areas are the ‘internal world’, ‘the work environment’ and ‘other people’. These same factors were deduced from responses made by students per given perception indicator. With regards the ‘internal world’ as a factor of motivation about a particular programme, one could assume that it plays a key role as one must first feel good about an issue for them to appreciate its extraneous variables such as the ‘external world’. According to O’Connor (2003: 54) motivation must come from the learner….with more students and … diminishing resources, learner motivation is even more crucial … From the study, it can be concluded that the internal world of the students influenced their perception of the programme positively as, for instance; the majority valued the programme as they believed it would add to their future professional development as well as enhancing their confidence and their reflective capacity. Indeed the results also showed an overwhelming feeling that the programme created in students, a sense of responsibility, determination as well as economic reasoning. These personal emotional attributes tend to reflect the internal world of the students as positive. Students experiencing such internal conditions are more likely to find studying in a given programme a challenging but endurable task. Many students, especially adult learners or in-service students are challenged when it comes to the use of modern technology. For instance, searching for information from the library and through the internet can be a daunting task such that without the desire, the drive and a positive feeling about a programme, walking this rough technological terrain can be very frustrating to them. However if they are intrinsically motivated, seeing in a programme some emotional satisfaction, they are likely to study hard and overcome whatever challenges the programme offering brings to them as adult learners. By implication therefore, it means that the programme is viewed positively and therefore likely to have students’ perform better in it.

With regards the ‘work environment’ as a factor that can influence learning and therefore perception of a given programme, respondents were positive in this respect. For instance, students saw close relationship between their programme and their previous work experiences as well as anticipated work for those who would be going to work for the first time. They believed that the programme well prepared them to be able to secure any challenging management jobs. Anybody who sees a value add in their programme of study with regards their job is likely to do well. Learners in the BEd Educational Management Programme as future managers expressed satisfaction with the fact that they had a say in the departmental policies and therefore as future managers, that was perceived as preparing them for their future managerial roles in the schools. That the programme was perceived as having a positive impact on their future jobs as
well as their internal being, the intrinsic motivation is seen as a plus to their learning because when students or learners attach value to their programme with regards the attainment of a good place in the job market, they are more likely to perform well academically and professionally.

The ‘other people’ as a factor that influences learning in any given programme and therefore perception of such a program can be said to have been positive. This is because, for instance, they valued their lecturers as good and using appropriate teaching methodologies. They also experienced in their lecturers a caring environment, empathy and the fact that these lecturers were always available in class and outside for any consultations. As noted by Sanders, (1998), a major factor that affects students’ academic growth and therefore a positive view of their program of study is the effectiveness and variations with which faculty members present their courses. These ‘other people’ had a positive impact on the learners and therefore a positive perception of their programme of study. The other key stakeholder, who according to the respondents provided the necessary support, was their own peers.

Peer advising is pertinent as students feel more comfortable to work with their own kind (peer teaching concept), a sense of taking charge of one’s own learning as they clearly know what their peers are made of and this gives them confidence and satisfaction. Indeed working with other students usually takes place outside a formal classroom context thus making the atmosphere less tense, more relaxed, collegial, giving a sense of autonomy, a sense of belonging and thus releasing creative thoughts.

Whilst negative perceptions of a given programme can indeed be a barrier to learning the implications of positive perceptions can be an enhancement of it. The positive perceptions of the programme by the BEd Educational Management Programme can be a result of their own professional experiences as in service learners. It can be argued that experiences of some of them as former managers could have been the reason for their ability to see what is good about the programme as they compare with their previous work experiences. For instance, the positive perception could be influenced by comparing their previous training or work institutions with their current one in terms of for instance, facilities such as the library and its stocking and computer and its related facilities. The positive perceptions need therefore to be enhanced by upholding the perceived good standards by the programme providers. By implication, such positive perceptions could encourage learning by this cohort which learning could send a positive ripple effect to improved educational management practice at school level where the respondents would be going to after completion of the programme.

Yet another implication could be related to the Ministry of Education Skills and Development (MoESD) of Botswana. The MoESD’s training policy is such that while some educational management students are locally sponsored to pursue their studies at the University of Botswana, the majority are sponsored to pursue educational management programmes abroad. The external placement has indeed proved costly for the MoESD. One of the reasons for external placement was that students themselves did not have confidence in their local programme and therefore had to opt for external placement. Therefore, if a local programme is proving to be rated highly by its consumers, then it makes economic sense for the MoESD to consider sponsoring the bulk of the students locally. Cognizance has, of course, to be taken that while costs could be a deciding factor for sponsoring students locally, the MoESD should not lose sight of the need to cross breed the education system through external experiences. It is important to internationalize academic and professional education especially in this era of the world as a global village.

By implication this means that, a cross breed of our local education system and the external systems is still very key as one must compliment the other. While it is clear that, in developing programmes such as the BEd Educational management, international perspectives were taken into consideration, the actual implementation of programmes and practices may be different hence a need to have a cross section of school staff educated in various international systems.

**Recommendations**

1. As the study provides as insight into the acceptance of the BEd Management programme, it may be advisable for the government to sponsor more students to the local university and less to external universities. While the bulk of these students may be trained in the local institution, a significant percent should be externally trained for purposes of international flavour.
2. The Faculty to uphold the good work that is perceived by students in offering BEd Educational Management Programme
3. A further study to be conducted looking into the perceptions by industry of the products of the BEd Educational Management particularly in terms of their actual work performance.
4. More needs to be done in terms of enhancing peer interactions by students as this is pertinent when they go out into the world of work which demands collaborative and team work. This is because peer interaction was found to be wanting in this study.

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Source of Positive Stereotypes: Perspectives of Junior Secondary Students in Botswana

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Abstract

This paper focused on the positive stereotypes junior secondary school students have of nationalities outside Africa. In addition, the paper examined the sources of the positive stereotypes as perceived by the students while implications were drawn for teacher education. A sample of 105 students matched some positive stereotypes to some nationalities, using the Princeton Trilogy. According to the findings, ten nationalities appeared mostly when the positive attributes such as scientifically-minded, intelligent, industrious, efficient, sportsmanlike, democratic, straightforward, alert, pleasure-loving and patriotic were matched by the students with various nationalities from their perceptions. The sources of information of these positive stereotypes were attributed by the students to the Internet, stories, television programmes, textbooks, friends, newspapers, radio, teachers’ interaction, and other minor sources in that order. Some implications were drawn from the findings for teaching and teacher education which included the effective teaching of decision making processes, diversity through multicultural education, and the globalization of the teacher education programmes across the world.

Keywords: Teaching, Stereotypes, Nationalities, Information, Globalization

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION

The use of stereotypes whether in a negative or in a positive form is part and parcel of the global society, and inclusive of the school environment. It is not uncommon for students to refer to themselves using various forms of positive and negative ‘name-calling’ bordering on stereotypes, particularly when those students come from different parts of a country or another continent. In any multicultural setting, the use of stereotypes to categorize a major or a minor ethnic group is not new. Stereotypes are generalizations that are made about a group of people, a section of a country or ‘having a mindset picture’ in the head by a group of another group (Peffley, Hurwitz & Sniderman; 1997). Stereotypes tend to be the thinking or the beliefs of the perceivers regarding the way other human beings behave. These beliefs become generalizations or assumptions which in most cases are incorrect, that people have about other people or places far or near. These assumptions may be within a country, between countries, continents or on the basis of other diversities (Peffley et al, 1997).

Some stereotypes are positive and may include complementary descriptions of a people such as caring, hardworking, smart, cooperative, happy, civilised and generous. Some stereotypes may also include uncomplimentary remarks such as lazy, poor, violent, hungry, dangerous, polygamous, shrewd and unintelligent. In any setting, some people may exhibit some of the positive remarks, some of the negative remarks or a combination of some of the
positive and the negative remarks. Drawing a clear-cut boundary of people who totally fall into either category is
difficult (Selwyn, Saunders & Farmer; 2010). It is safe to say that a people may exhibit some of the attributes of either
category of both the negative and the positive stereotypes.

Stereotypes or generalized beliefs about people in the social world may be gender-related, race-related, class-
related or historically related and may lead to prejudice and discrimination. At any setting involving people; home,
school, workplace, or a social gathering, there is bound to be individual differences within and among people. Because
this study focuses on the school setting, it concerns itself with the positive stereotypes students at some selected junior
secondary school level in Botswana have of other people outside their national boundary. The choice of locations
outside Botswana is deliberate so as to further enhance the knowledge of students since one of the aims of the Three-
Year Junior Secondary Social Studies Programme is to enable students to have the knowledge of the world around
them (Republic of Botswana, 1996). This implies knowledge or assumptions of what is happening in other parts of the
globe. An upcoming paper will focus on the negative stereotypes the same sample of students have of other places.

The junior secondary students in Botswana are generally between 13 and 17 years old, having spent 7 years at
the primary school level and are now spending 3 years at the junior secondary level before the duration of 2 years at
the senior secondary level. After the third year at a junior secondary school, a graduate of such a school, among other
aims is expected to have gained the necessary knowledge and ability to interact with and learn about their community,
the government of their country, and the world around them (Republic of Botswana; 1996). This aim calls for the study
of other places apart from Botswana. In the course of the teaching-learning situations, students tend to learn of other
places through a variety of resources which may include textbooks, Internet, teachers, library, friends, radio, television,
newspapers and other prints. Although there are positive and negative stereotypes about people and places, this study
involves the positive views of students. As said earlier, efforts will be made to research and document the negative
stereotypes in another paper. Therefore, what positive stereotypes do junior secondary students in Botswana have of
farther environments, their sources, and the implications for teaching and teacher education?

Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:
1. Investigate the positive stereotypes junior secondary school students in Botswana have of other nations outside
   Africa;
2. Find out the sources of such stereotypes; and
3. Draw implications from the findings for teaching and teacher education.

Research Questions

To give direction and guide this study, the following research questions are derived from the objectives of this study.
1. What positive stereotypes do students have of other nationalities outside Africa?
2. What are students’ sources of stereotypes?
3. What are the implications of the stereotypes to teaching and teacher education?

SOME RELATED STUDIES ON STEREOTYPES

Stereotypes or over-generalised beliefs about people in our social world begin to form at a very early age,
which are initially and usually based on gender. Stereotypes based on gender occur at this stage because this is the one
of the dimensions along which children are able to categorise the people they encounter (Steel, Choi & Ambady: In
Press). When the children grow up, they view stereotypes as more descriptive and form generalized beliefs of society.
Later on in life, children begin to develop views about people and places beyond their immediate environments
Selwyn, Saunders & Farmer; 2010).

Burgess (2003) surmises that giving stereotypes to a group based on an image are often wrong. Burgess goes
further to give an example of a study on stereotypes which reveal that Americans are generally considered to be
friendly, generous, tolerant but arrogant, impatient, and domineering. In the same study, it was also revealed that
Asians are shrewd and alert, but reserved. This generalization may not be correct. In a related study, Burgess countered
the generalization by referring to Breslin’s (1991) stand that not all Americans are friendly and generous; and not all
Asians are reserved.

Peffley, Hurwitz & Snideman (1997) in a study hold that whites holding negative stereotypes are substantially
more likely to judge blacks more harshly than similarly described whites in the areas of welfare and crime policy, and
that whites with strongly negative perceptions of blacks respond quite favourably to them when confronted with individuating information that clearly contradicts their stereotype.

Social psychologists believe initially that stereotypes reflect faulty mental processing; however, in recent years the argument is rife that stereotypes are actually necessary and quite normal for our cognitive functioning (Steel & Aronson, 1995). It is the view of Steel & Aronson (1995) that stereotypes can in a way affect the academic performance of members of negatively stereotyped groups. Further, Steel & Aronson (1995) reported in a test described as diagnostic of ability, African-Americans performed worse than Caucasian students, after controlling for differences in SAT scores, but those in non-diagnostic condition did not. The result by Spencer, Steele and Quinn (1999) was also reported of a mathematics test to test gender differences where women under-performed relative to men.

Stereotypes on social constructions may also be based on socio-economic conditions, history, customs, myths, and values of a culture. For instance, Osunde, Tlou and Brown (1996) found that many individuals in the United States still have a narrow-minded view of Africa south of the Sahara. Africans are stereotyped as primitive and the nations as backward, underdeveloped, and covered with jungles. Osunde et al (1996) attributed this view to the learning materials used in the US public schools. Osunde et al (1996) noted that the stereotypes people have of one another may after all not be correct as not all individuals in the target groups share the same opinions whether in the developed or in the developing countries. In any society, people share all forms of stereotypes to a certain degree. Therefore, people sharing both positive and negative stereotypes can be found in any given society.

Africans also have positive stereotypes of the Western countries which may not be entirely correct (Adeyemi, 1984; 2006). Some are based on exaggerations and dreams. A typical response from an interview conducted by Adeyemi (2006) with an African student studying at a University in the United States is produced below unedited:

I am from one of the African countries studying for my master degree. I came here on the assumption that I would work and pay for my tuition, buy a car, send money home to my parents, send for my wife and children to spend their vacation here, and in fact live like a king. Life here is not what I thought it to be. I do all sorts of menial jobs to keep body and soul together. I am so stressed. If I had known, I would have opted to do my master degree in my country. People in my community think that you are automatically a wealthy person the moment you are living in a Western country.

The lamentation above may be as a result of the ‘sweet’ news based on exaggeration or over-flogged description of places, people and phenomena. The statement is an indication that there is a gap between fact and fiction. Experience is also said to be the best teacher. Depending on personal circumstances, a majority of the friends of the speaker above would find it very difficult to believe his story unless they also experience the same circumstances. However, positive stereotypes are capable of developing friendship and mutual respect between and among nations. At the same time, teaching students to be aware of the dangers inherent in either incorrect positive and negative stereotypes or views may also be beneficial in terms of enrichment of knowledge.

METHODOLOGY

In order to achieve the objectives set forth in this paper, the description of the methodology used in the study is hereby presented.

Sample

Botswana was stratified into three regions, the north, the central and the south. From a list of junior secondary schools in Botswana, one junior secondary school was randomly chosen from each of the regions, resulting in the selection of three junior secondary schools from the country. A final year class (Form 3) was again randomly chosen from each of the three schools and earmarked for the study. For ease of identification, the three classes were coded Class A, Class B and Class C. It should be noted that social studies as a subject is compulsory for all students up to the final year of junior secondary school. Therefore, irrespective of subjects being offered by the final year students, they must also offer social studies as a compulsory subject. An investigation of the Three-Year Junior Secondary Syllabus (Social Studies) (Republic of Botswana, 1996) depicts that the following modules related to knowledge of other parts of the world have been taught by teachers:

- Socialisation: Local and International; and
International Relationships and foreign policy.

Trade and Communication, among others.

An observation of some of the topics related to the two modules above include national and international citizenship, foreign policy, Botswana’s external involvement with the world, the world environments, trade and communication, and population, to mention a few. From the foregoing, students may have picked up positive impressions of other people of the world from their social studies lessons, in addition to other sources which may include stories, television programmes, instructional materials, hearsay, pamphlets and others.

All the students in the three randomly chosen classes were used in this study. There were 34 students in Class A, 38 students in Class B and 33 students in Class C, from Schools A, B and C, making a total of 105 students used in this study.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was The Princeton Trilogy which lists some positive and negative stereotypes. The instrument has been used a number of times on studies associated with ethnic and national stereotypes (Madon, Guyll, Aboufadel, Montiel, Smith, Palumbo and Jussim, 2001). The trilogy contains 52 attributes randomly mingled with one another. The attributes include such descriptions or views associated with particular people or nationalities as industrious, intelligent, materialistic, ambitious, progressive, pleasure loving, alert, aggressive, individualistic lazy, arrogant, efficient stubborn, cruel, boastful, straightforward, primitive, extremely nationalistic, adventurous, and so on. The investigator picked only the positive stereotypes for use in this study e.g. some nations are democratic, scientifically minded, industrious, patriotic etc.

There were 30 positive stereotypes contained in the instrument (extracted from the study of Madon et al., 2001). One hundred and five (105) copies of the ‘new’ trilogy were printed and distributed respectively for administration to the teachers in School A, B and C in the following order depending on the numbers of students in Class A, B and C: 34, 38, and 33. They were administered by the three social studies teachers during the social studies lessons in their respective schools and classrooms. The junior secondary school students were requested to match the positive stereotypes as many times as possible in the world with some nationalities they think possess the positive attributes, apart from their continent of Africa.

Finally, the students were asked to list the sources of the impressions they have of the peoples or nationalities they have matched with the positive traits anywhere in the world. The stereotypes or traits were counted for each nationality and recorded in percentages and ranks for the first most occurring nationalities. Descriptive statistics in terms of absolute numbers, percentages and rank orders were employed in answering the three research questions generated from the objectives of this study.

FINDINGS

Altogether, 105 subjects made up of 34, 38 and 33 junior secondary school students drawn from three stratified regions in Botswana participated in this study. The 10 most chosen positive stereotypes and the corresponding nationalities by students were utilized for this study. Table 1 shows the 10 most chosen positive stereotypes with the corresponding nationalities.

Table 1 shows the responses of the 105 students who matched positive stereotypes to some nationalities. The figures are in percentages while the figures in parentheses are the ranks for the nationalities according to each positive attribute. It should be noted that each attribute or stereotype may be interpreted not to be entirely positive or negative depending on the culture. For example, pleasure-loving may be positive or negative depending on some cultures. In Africa for instance, pleasure-loving may be negative as if one does not want to work but likes enjoyment, whereas the Princeton Trilogy regards it as a positive stereotype. Again, only the first ten nationalities are extracted from the study on positive stereotypical views because others seemed insignificant.

Sixteen percent (16%) of the junior secondary school students under study hold the view that Americans are scientifically-minded and ranked first among the ten nations in Table 1. This is followed by the Israelis. The Russians, Japanese and Germans tied for the third positions while the British, Indians and French also tie for the sixth rank. Finally, the Chinese and Australians tied for the tenth rank.

On being intelligent, the Japanese were ranked first by 14% of the 105 students, followed by the Americans with 12%, the British with 11%, the Chinese, Indians, French and Israelis tied fourth with 10%, the Germans with 9%
and scoring the seventh rank, the Russians and Australians having 7% and 4% with the ninth and tenth ranks respectively.

Table 1: Positive Stereotypes (Attributes) of Some Nationalities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationalities/Attributes, % of Mention and Rank (R)</th>
<th>Americans % (R)</th>
<th>Russians % (R)</th>
<th>Chinese % (R)</th>
<th>Japanese % (R)</th>
<th>Indians % (R)</th>
<th>British % (R)</th>
<th>Germans % (R)</th>
<th>French % (R)</th>
<th>Israelis % (R)</th>
<th>Australians % (R)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientifically-Minded</td>
<td>16(1)</td>
<td>10(3)</td>
<td>4(10)</td>
<td>10(3)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>10(3)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>13(2)</td>
<td>4(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>12(2)</td>
<td>7(9)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>14(1)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>11(3)</td>
<td>9(4)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>4(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrious</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>6(5)</td>
<td>24(1)</td>
<td>20(2)</td>
<td>4(9)</td>
<td>6(5)</td>
<td>6(5)</td>
<td>4(9)</td>
<td>14(3)</td>
<td>5(8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient</td>
<td>15(2)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>26(1)</td>
<td>12(3)</td>
<td>2(10)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>8(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanlike</td>
<td>18(3)</td>
<td>4(3)</td>
<td>3(8)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10(5)</td>
<td>25(1)</td>
<td>21(2)</td>
<td>15(4)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic</td>
<td>30(1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6(7)</td>
<td>20(2)</td>
<td>10(5)</td>
<td>12(4)</td>
<td>15(3)</td>
<td>10(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straightforward</td>
<td>10(2)</td>
<td>4(6)</td>
<td>12(1)</td>
<td>8(3)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2(9)</td>
<td>4(6)</td>
<td>5(5)</td>
<td>6(4)</td>
<td>4(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alert</td>
<td>20(2)</td>
<td>6(6)</td>
<td>5(8)</td>
<td>10(3)</td>
<td>4(9)</td>
<td>8(4)</td>
<td>7(5)</td>
<td>6(6)</td>
<td>25(1)</td>
<td>2(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure loving</td>
<td>35(1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2(6)</td>
<td>15(3)</td>
<td>12(4)</td>
<td>18(2)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriotic</td>
<td>20(2)</td>
<td>4(9)</td>
<td>10(4)</td>
<td>12(3)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8(5)</td>
<td>5(8)</td>
<td>6(5)</td>
<td>26(1)</td>
<td>6(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average % of Positive Attributes</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty-four percent (24%) of the students were of the view that the Chinese are industrious and therefore ranked first. Second in percentage are the Japanese with 20% and ranked second while the Israelis scored 14% and ranked third. Other nationalities are as follows: Americans; 10% and ranked fourth, British, Germans and Russians scored 6% and ranked fifth; Australians scored 5% and ranked eighth, while the Indians and the French tied with 4% and ranked ninth.

On efficiency, the Chinese were first with 26%, the Americans came second with 15%, the Japanese third with 12%, the French and the Israelis tied with 10% and ranked fourth, the Russians, British, Germans and Australians tied with 8% and ranked sixth while the Indians scored 2% and placed tenth. While the details of the findings are contained in Table 1, further reports are provided on the first best three nationalities, according to the views of the students. On being sportsmanlike, the British scored 25% to be in the first rank, the Germans in the second rank with 21% and the American in the third rank with 18%. On the basis of democracy, Americans are regarded as the most democratic with 30% of the students positively stereotyping them to be so, the British scored 20% and ranked second while the Israelis scored 15% and ranked third.

Twelve percent of the students were of the view that the Chinese were straightforward and ranked them first, followed by the Americans with 10% and the Japanese with 8%. On being alert, the Israelis came first with 25% and followed by the Americans with 20% and the Japanese with 10%. When it comes to pleasure-loving, the Americans were rated first by 35% of the respondents to be pleasure-loving, second were the French by 18% and the third were the British by 15% of the students. On patriotism, the Israelis were ranked first with 26%, second were the Americans with 20% and the third were the Japanese with 12%.

Even though not all the nationalities were scored for the ten positive stereotypes, an average of the overall percentages as found in Table 1 for the traits indicate the following in rank order as found in parentheses: (1) Americans 18.6%; (2) Israelis 11.7%; (3) British 11.1%; (4) French 9.4%; (5) Germans 9.2%; (6) Chinese 9.1%; (7) Japanese 8.6%; (8) Australians 5.9%; (9) Russians 4.9% and (10) Indians 4.2%.

The results emanating from this study may not be the same in other environments depending on many factors which may include content or syllabi of subjects being taught in schools, television programmes and other sources of information as tabulated in Table 2. The junior secondary school students chose as many sources as possible; hence the percentages and the ranks were calculated from the frequencies of the mentions of the sources. In other words, a student may choose as many sources as possible.
Table 2: Sources of Stereotypes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Number of Mention (N=105 Respondents)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Rank Order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stories</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 depicts the sources of the stereotypes held by students. A finding indicates that of the 105 students, 50 or approximately 48% of them identified the Internet as a source of their views or stereotypes about other nationalities. It means that the internet is a powerful source of information going by the fact that the students ranked it first as their source of information. Access to the Internet in schools in Botswana is high and students may form their views while surfing through the internet. Students expressed the views that the internet is a common source of information as they surf through various websites on routine basis.

Other sources of information regarding stereotypes are in this rank order and percentage: Stories (2) with 32.3%; Television (3) with 30.4%; Textbooks (4) with 28.6%; Friends (5) with 24.7%; Newspapers (6) with 22.8%; Radio programmes (7) with 17.1%; Teachers (8) with 9.5%; and other minor sources as written by students such as pamphlets and newsletters, (9) with 1.9%.

This being the case, stereotypes, whether positive or negative derive from the Internet, stories, television programmes, instructional materials particularly prescribed textbooks, comments from friends, newspapers, radio programmes, classroom interaction with teachers and pamphlets and newsletters. The views held by students concerning certain nationalities and the sources of the views or stereotypes have implications for teacher education.

**Some Implications of Stereotypes for Teaching and Teacher Education**

The views held by students or people in countries around the world about themselves in the same global village may be important in the understanding of world peace and order. Further, the sources of stereotypes whether positive or negative about people near and far are important in ‘correcting’ the wrong views we have of one another through miscommunication of ideas and beliefs. Thorough knowledge of the facts and the fiction on global stereotypes and their sources may minimize the wrong conceptions about people and places all over the world.

Since teachers are the *loci parentis* of the students, it becomes necessary to provide some implications of this study for both pre-service and in-service in the colleges and faculties of education in Botswana, Africa and beyond. The emphasis of the suggestions may go a long way to enhance the development and the awareness of the knowledge of global citizens and reduce the wrong conceptions we have of ourselves and others within the planet. Below are some considerations for teaching and teacher education.

**Decision making Processes**

As Adeyemi (2007) suggests, the teaching of content of social studies, history, development studies, geography, political science, economics and other related subjects on other nations of the world at the colleges of education, must reduce stereotypical attitudes among students. A thorough strategy of teaching decision making processes may enhance the development of global-wide cultural awareness among students in their day-to-day activities and the way they view the global citizens. This may also lead to the development of the perception that all human beings are members of the same family living together in harmony in a global village irrespective of colour, religion, nationality, race, gender, and other alignments.

Students should be able to make decisions based on their ability to discover and make inferences and not rely on hearsay and other sources of bias. Decision making according to Engle (1978) and Gallavan (2003), is said to be the heart of social studies. In fact, it ought to be the heart of any discipline. Therefore, instructional materials used in schools, television programmes, history being passed from generation to generation and stories being taught to students must imbibe a culture of decision making so that students would be able to question the validity of information. Teacher education programme should be able to afford teacher candidates with the ability to present
reasoned arguments based on given information, the ability to collect data through personal observations and ask questions, comprehend and evaluate various kinds of evidence. This teacher education programme being advocated for must foster and equip future teachers with the curriculum and the knowledge for the awareness of the increasing complexities and interconnectedness of the world.

Teacher education programmes should take cognizance of the possibility of introducing biased information in the content of curriculum and so periodic review is necessary to update the information passed to students. Television programmes, particularly the schools television programmes shown to students for specific subjects must be edited by subject specialists to determine the trueness of the information shown to students. Teacher education programmes should include aspects of educational technology which may enhance pre-service and in-service students to be able to use the television, textbooks, newspapers and the Internet in an acceptable manner to students in the continuous efforts to reduce incorrect perceptions of places and people.

Diversity

Teacher education programme should also enable pre-service and in-service teachers imbibe the awareness of the diversity of human races. The teacher education programme being advocated for should start with our local diversity in terms of ethic group, gender, language, religion and even the individual differences in the classroom. Later, aspects of diversity may shift from the local to the national and finally to the international levels. In fact, the teacher education programme must also see the need for teacher candidates to be taught aspects of psychology which may equip teachers with the ability to effectively handle diverse students in the classrooms. This may reduce the wrong impressions we have about other people.

It may be necessary to teach students that colour, whether white, black or brown is as a result of pigmentation and that all human beings are the same anatomically. The food we like and consume depends very much on our culture. There are many religions and beliefs all over the world and they include Christianity, Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, and other traditional religions. As UNESCO (2009) rightly notes, cultural diversity is a driving force of development, not only in respect of economic growth, but also as a means of leading a more fulfilling intellectual, emotional, moral and spiritual life. In addition to the values mentioned earlier, teacher education programme should also emphasise aspects of human rights to future teachers that every human being is free to practice any religion. Multicultural education should form part of teacher education programme.

Globalization of the Teacher Education Curriculum

As educators, there is the need to teach students the art of decision making. It is established that stereotypes whether positive or negative are learned through hearsay, media, education, history and jokes, among others. Randolph (2008), Facione & Facione (2007) call for educators to carefully examine and challenge knowledge and assumptions; otherwise our misimpressions can influence the kinds of learning opportunities we create for children and other people. Students tend to learn of other places through a variety of resources which may include textbooks, Internet, teachers, library, friends, radio, television, newspapers and other prints. Teacher education programmes at various schools of education need to include elements of decision making strategies to combat stereotypes that can enable students to distinguish between facts and fictions on a global scale.

An expectation of the education system in Botswana is not only to produce citizens who would be able to contribute their quotas to the development of the country, but also to deal with global issues and be knowledgeable in world affairs. Knowledge on global issues should transcend national boundaries and should involve the interconnection of cultural, ecological, political and technological systems (Thorne & Bonie-Baker, 1993). Since the world is a global village and what happens in one part is likely to affect the other parts, studies on stereotypes people have of one another may be of immense educational benefits so as to correct the wrong impressions humans develop of one another.

CONCLUSION

The training of high quality teachers who are well versed in values education, global education, multicultural education at the junior secondary level in Botswana and elsewhere is necessary if students of today and the future are to be thoroughly educated to differentiate facts from fictions. The education system should endeavour to educate students on how to discriminate between realities and ideas. Teachers of courses dealing with values and psychology need to be equipped with the skills of dealing with wrong generalizations of people and places. During the teaching-learning
process, students should be made aware that stereotypes become a problem when they are inaccurate. Textbooks and other teaching materials used in schools should, as much as possible, build positive understanding of people and different cultures all over the world.

In many schools, educational radio and television broadcasts are used to teach topics on various cultures of the world. The media, particularly the television and the prints can help learners understand the complexities of world cultures in a manner that could enhance the appreciation of the beliefs and practices of other people’s cultures. The encouragement of international understanding through textbooks, television and movies, radio broadcasts, stories and other sources of information may lead to the appreciation of various cultures in the world.

Further research needs to be conducted by educators on decision making processes and the psychology of correct mental comprehension of happenings in other environments. As stated earlier, a similar research on the negative stereotypes held by students is necessary to strike a balance in the way they perceive many nationalities. A replication using the same subjects or more subjects in any other location is a welcome idea. In essence, these measures may serve a means of re-educating people to have a better perspective of the world and also to dispel myths about people and places.

REFERENCES


Street Trading and Child Labour in Yenagoa

Stephen Nkereuwuem Ekpenyong and Asain E. Sibiri

INTRODUCTION

Street trading and child labour have become a global phenomenon and a global concern. The United Nations International Children Educational fund (UNICEF) has estimated that there are 100 to 200 million child labourers across both industrialized and developing countries. Estimates for Africa shows that 20% of children between the ages of 10 and 14 are involved in child labour and street trading. As such, children have come to comprise 17% of Africa's total labour force. Nigeria alone is estimated to have between 12 and 15 million child labourers. According to Human Right Watch (2004), at 15 million India has the largest child labour force in the world while Pakistan records 7.5 million child labourers and Senegal about 500,000.

The dramatic increase in child labour and street trading in Nigeria can be attributed to several factors. The rapid population growth of many less developed countries, high rates of unemployment, inflation, low wages and deplorable working conditions have contributed to incidents of street trading and child labour as children attempt to help support their families (Charles & Charles, 2004, Deth, 1993). According to Arat (2002), the proliferation of industries can also be linked to an increase in street trading and child labour.

Social ills affecting children have been an area of active empirical investigation. Indeed numerous studies exist on children who, along with their parents, are homeless, and children who hawk on the streets before and after school and on weekends and holidays. This study will bring to light the dangers associated with street trading and child labour.
as reported by children who engage in these practices. The major objective will be to identify the health, educational and social consequences of street trading and child labour in the Yenegoa metropolis of the Bayelsa State.

In some cases children involved in child labour to help their parents or families in times of financial distress by paying for some or all of the family’s rent, food, clothes, utilities and so on. In addition to these expenses, national estimates put the number of children under 14 years of age working to pay for the cost of school at 8 million (FOS, 2008). The same estimates reveal that about 1 million children have been forced to drop out of school because their parents demand that they stop attending in order to boost the family income. These statistics most certainly carry consequences for manpower development and human resources of the nation.

Street trading and child labour have the potential to corrupt young minds in two ways. First, a child that misses school frequently fails to benefit comprehensively from the education system. This can mean poor performance in examinations and open the door to examination malpractice for those seeking a certificate at all cost. This in turn can lead to incompetent and unlearned graduates with consequences for the nation as a whole, including increased national illiteracy. Second, street trading and child labour may also lead to behavioural patterns inimical to healthy citizenship. They may indulge in negative activities or criminal acts, such as prostitution, armed, robbery, and pick pocketing, and face imprisonment (Humert, 2009; Humphrices, 2010).

Many government policies have been put in place to curb the issue of street trading and child labour, but all to no avail. This is, in part, because of the economic situation of most Nigeria citizens, who barely earn enough to feed themselves and their children. Oruwari (1996), Okojie (1987) and Aderinto (2000) linked the phenomenon of street trading and child labour to socio economic status of poor parents who subsist at the periphery of the urban economy. This research will offer solutions to the menaces of street trading and child labour. It is believed that the solutions discussed below will reduce this menace to its absolute minimum. In the course of this discussion this paper will also attempt to address the following questions: Why do parent engage their children in street trading and child labour? Are parents happy about this situation considering the dangers involved? Why have the policies of government not succeeded?

Objective of the Study

The research has the following objectives:

- To examine the remote and immediate causes of street trading and child labour.
- To assess the social, political and educational implications of street trading and child labour.
- To critically evaluate the measures put in place by government to curb child labour and street trading.
- To proffer solutions that will curb the menaces of street trading and child labour in Nigeria.

Research Questions

This research is focused on street trading and child labour in the Yenegoa metropolis of Bayelsa State. It aims to emphasize the effect of street trading and child labour on society and its impact on children’s health, social skills and education. To give direction and guide this study, four research questions were developed:

- Is child labour and street trading on the rise in Yenegoa?
- Does the economic situation of parents necessitate that children engage in street trading and child labour?
- Are street trading and child labour associated with dangers?
- Do street trading and child labour have negative consequences for society?

Definition of Terms

Child Labour: According to Robson (2004), child labourers are children who work long hours for low wages, often under conditions harmful to their health. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 2007, child labour pertains to any child under the age specified by law (5-14), working fulltime, mentally or physically, to earn money for our survival or to add to the family income, that interrupts the child's social and educational development.

Street Trading: The selling or offering for sale of any article in the street or product.
Poverty: According to the WIKIPEDIA, the free encyclopaedia (2007), poverty is the deprivation of those things that determine the quality of life including food, clothing, shelter and good drinking water, but also such intangible things as the opportunity to learn and enjoy the respect of fellow citizens.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholars have different views on street trading and child labour due to different theoretical inclinations and ideologies. This literature review is centred around the following: the causes of child labour and street trading, the social, political and educational implications of street trading and child labour, and the measures put in place by government to curb child labour and street trading.

Causes of Street Trading and Child Labour

Scholars like Appel (2009) have identified structural inequalities, while Nwabueze (1992) sees poverty and inequality as the major causes of street trading and child labour. 0kojie (1987) postulated the causes to be an adverse economic environment, underemployment, massive retrenchment, unemployment and a poor quality of life. Nnom, in his book interpreting social problems and public issues in Nigeria (2003), contended that while poverty is often postulated as the principal cause of forcing children into child labour, a lack of social services at home, a lack of good housing, inadequate food and health care service, combine to compel parents to sell their children into street trading and children labour. The least privileged children, including children without families and/or without homes, are the most vulnerable to these social ills. The economic constraints also force people to look for wealth at all cost to the detriment of their children.

According to Crosson (2008) there is a link between parents with marginal incomes and the imperative to push children into work so as to supplement family income. This view is supported by Bass, (2004), Binder and Sorgin (1999) who hold that children of poor families have to help generate family incomes and compensate for economic discrepancies in society, particularly as the gap between the have and have not has grown in recent years. In such situations, poverty breeds poverty. A poor family has a high probability of staying poor since low family incomes carry with them high risks of illness, limitations on mobility, and limited access to education. Thus the legacy of poverty is passed from parents to children (UNICEF, 1997).

According to the 1996 multiple indicator cluster survey, published by the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS), only one in every ten Nigerians can be described as non-poor. The other nine are either “core poor” or moderately poor. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), in its debut Human Development Report, ranked Nigeria 137th out 174 nations in terms of human development. Graphically, Nigeria’s Human Development Index (HDI) value is 0.400. Countries with HDI value below 0.5 are considered to be poor and to have low human development. In Nigeria, this poverty plays itself out as prostitution, corruption, robbery, street life, increased unemployment, poor living conditions, high infant mortality, acute malnutrition, short life expectancy, and human deprivation (UBA Monthly Digest, March/April 1996).

Child labour is also one of the faces of the poverty in 70% of households in Nigeria, providing an essential means of income for poor families. A 2003 ILO survey of child labour in Nigeria identified eight causation factors. These are cultural influence, economic problems, national debt, low education, unemployment/ inability to cope, street life and single parents families, with the last three factors exacerbating poverty (Oruwari 1996). In her study of poverty among women and their households in Benin city, Adudu (1987) and Okojie, (1987) identified five factors - housing, illiteracy, possession of consumable, unemployment/underdevelopment/low incomes, and inability to cope with the needs of members of households, as indicators of the extent of poverty among women. The last two indicators are relevant to the focus of this study. For some scholars, child labour and street trading can be attributed to urban organization and modernization. For instances, Hoyano and Keenan (2007) is of the view that people who migrate from rural areas to urban centres in search of better prospects are often ill prepared for urban life and therefore forced to either use their children or other children to enhance their economic situation.

In another school of thought, child labour and street trading are linked to child rearing norms and the attributes of parents where, for the purpose of socialization, children are required to carry out assigned domestic chores and economic activities (Aderinto, 2000). Child labour and street trading have also been traced to the rise of capitalism as a system of production, where labour becomes a commodity to be bought and sold. In this understanding, labour can be explained Marxists hold that the sale of one's labour in a capitalist economy, in whatever form, is tantamount to organized slavery. Child labour encourages this, where the less privileged work as servants for an agreed fee, or
reciprocal services to be rendered to the servants. Consequently, capitalism breeds class conflict, misery, moral and physical poverty, and most importantly, alienation (Marx, cited in Ake, 1981).

The functional perspective views society as a social system in which components parts interact to accomplish certain goals for the survival of the system. To maintain basic institutionalized values in society, the system tends to solve the problems of pattern maintenance through social institutions such as the family, educational system and religion. The structure and function of families, argues Parsons (Crosson, 2008), plays a central role in shaping the behaviour and skills of children. Children, who form sub-components of the family, must be raised to be responsible members of society with appropriate values, beliefs and training. The ability of the family to function effectively is a factor in child development. Child labour is a sign of family dislocation and disorganization. As a result of child labour, the welfare of the children is adversely affected, as they are exposed to other social ills and dangers. They are forced to live in the adult world away from their families.

**Social, Political and Educational Implications of Child Labour and Street Trading**

Research has identified the inherent hazards and risks that children are exposed to when working in exploitative industries. The physical consequences range from malnourishment, disease, musculoskeletal disorders from heavy labour, physical and sexual abuse (see Kathleen, 1988), injuries, and exposure to toxic agents (Korbin, 1983; Malinosky–Rummell R & Hansan, 1993). Socially, children can experience negative affects on their educational development and performance. Illiteracy, low school attendance, and low enrolment have developmental and performance implications and have been attributed to children’s economic participation (Basu & Van, 1998).

More still, the mental health of the child is negatively affected. Indeed, children engaged in hazardous industries have been observed to suffer verbal abuse from their employers, consistent fear of job termination, low self esteem, and a loss of imagination and future direction in life (Baland & Robinson, 2000).

In the rural employment sector, where agricultural activities prevail, some children work on family farms, while others are employed on farms not owned by their families. In both cases, child labour has been found to have negative consequences for the children. The heavy and intensive labour that children endure in the fields may be accompanied by a lack of pay and lead to physical exhaustion, physical abuse, and exposure to toxic pesticides and herbicides (Arat 2003; ILO, 1995; Gorey & Leslie 1997). Studies focused on child agricultural workers in Africa have found a high incidence of injury, inferior living conditions resulting from substandard housing, poor access to clean water and food, poor sanitation, and low wages (Anyanwu, 1993). It has also been noted that children employed in agricultural sectors also experience psychological and social consequences. In one Latin American study, child workers in agriculture were perceived negatively and their employment was a source of tension and change in inter-familiar relations (Waka, 1999).

In another study conducted in Asia, child labour was found to negatively affect the educational outcomes of children (although these effects varied depending on the gender of the child) (Charles & Charles, 2004). In Africa, and particularly in rural Nigeria, it has been observed that child workers engaged in farming have lower school attendance compared to their urban working peers (Robson, 2004). However, the results are inconclusive in terms of the effects of agricultural work on children’s lecture time (Ibid, 1992).

Children are engaged in the sales and services sector of the economy in both rural and urban areas as street hawkers, domestic servants, car washers, beggars and even prostitutes. In some studies children employed in these endeavours, often labelled "street children" or "children of the street", have run away from parental or guardian abuse, leaving them to eke out a living on their own (Finkelman, 1995). The physical and health consequences of children participating in the sales and service sector have been identified in Latin America, Asia and Africa and include various diseases such as respiratory problems, injuries, rape and molestation, malnourishment, extortion of income, police harassment and participation in harmful or delinquent activities. In other studies, child labourers face robbery, inadequate sleep due to fatigue and long hours on the job, and confinement in juvenile homes (Ross, 1996).

Children engaged in the sales and service sector of the labour market also encounter problems related to their psychological well-being. Stigmatization by the press and public, feelings of disheartenment, stress and irritability, personality disorders, anti-social behaviour, alienation, and isolation from their family have all been identified (Amin, 1994). Similar to other sectors of children’s employment, child labour in sales and services in less developed countries has a negative effect on the level of education attained, school attendance, grades, literacy, lecture time, and overall human capital formation (Murphy et al., 1991).

It is also a known fact that child labourers tend to keep bad company and are negatively pressured by peers to engage in delinquent behaviours (Hughes, 2009). One common thread emerging from the synthesis of literature in all
the three sectors is that child labour had detrimental effects for children's health-social and educational well-being, although such effects are common in the other two sectors.

Child Abuse and Neglect

The African Network for Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN) was established to help ensure the safety and security of children. However, Fuller-Thomson et al (2009) observed that child abuse is not limited to beating and inflicting visible injuries. He opines that a child is abused when the situation at home becomes threatening to the child's survival. Middlebrooks and Audaga (2009) expands on this perspective again by including malnutrition, sexual abuse, educational neglect, medical neglect and mental abuses. Such a broad approach was also supported by John (2004) who said that child abuse includes the abandonment of children, child labour, and the failure to protect a child from physical and social danger. For Hosin (2007), child abuse also implies the misuse or exploitation of under-aged children for economic reasons.

Government Policies to Avert Child Labour and Street Trading

Different forms of violence have been addressed by the Nigerian legal system. First, section 12(3) (Nigeria Constitution, 1999) provides that the state shall direct its policy towards ensuring that all citizens (children inclusive), without discrimination against any group, have the opportunity for security and suitable employment; that conditions of work are just; that there are adequate facilities for leisure, social, religious and cultural life; that the health, safety and welfare of all persons in employment are safe guarded and not endangered or abused; that there are adequate medical and health facilities for all persons; that there is equal pay for equal work without discrimination; that children and young persons are protected from any form of exploitation and against any moral or material neglect.

In addition to the above constitutional provisions, there are also provisions in federal and state legislation that seek to address other forms of violence against children. The Child's Right Act (CRA) 2003 under sections 21-40 provides for the protection of children against discrimination, and harmful and exploitative practices. This includes the prohibition of child marriage, child betrothal, infliction of skin marks, abduction, hawking for alms, prostitution, unlawful sexual intercourse and other forms of sexual abuse and exploitation prejudicial to the welfare of the child.

The CRA further prohibits the recruitment of children into the armed forces of Nigeria, and the importation of harmful publications which portray information on the commission of crimes and acts of violence, as well as immoral and indolent publications which can corrupt or adulterate children. In addition, the Sharria Penal Codes in the Zamfara, Kano, Kaduna, Kebbi and Sokoto states protect children and young persons by providing punishment for crimes against unborn children, exposure of infants to danger, cruelty to children, any concealment of birth, kidnapping of children or young persons, sexual exploitation of children, trafficking of the girl child, and forced labour.

The CRA (2003) in part (iii) provides for the protection of the rights of children through the prohibition of all forms of discriminatory, harmful and exploitative practices such as forced, exploitative or hazardous child labour, child hawking, begging for alms, and exploitation prejudicial to the welfare of the child in Nigeria.

The contribution of civil society organizations and groups to advocacy, public education, research, prevention, the rehabilitation and treatment of children harmed by violence, the provision of services, and the provision of resources cannot be over-emphasized. Their ability to work with and proximity to the children affected by abuse and mistreatment enhances their ability to network, capacity for advocacy, and ability to gather accurate data. Consequently, the Nigerian coalition of NGOS on the rights of children provide the expertise and technical competence necessary for policy formulation and issue assimilation into mainstream government plans. They are also able to influence legislative reforms and resource allocation. Some of the institutions, groups and non-government organizations that play active roles in addressing violence against children include: Women Trafficking and Child Labour Eradication Foundation (WTOCLEF), Africa Network for the Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN), the Girls Power Initiative, the Nigerian Children's Parliament, the Galilee Foundation, Mantel Consult and Adolescent Development Initiative, African Women Empowerment Group (AWEG) National Council of Child Rights Advocates of Nigeria (NACCRAN), National Council of Women Societies, and a number of faith-based organizations.

The Nigeria government has provided an enabling environment and support for these civil society organizations (CSOs) to thrive and has drawn from their work formulate policies, programmes and interventions for child victims of abuse and violence. Apart from the above, the government has established child rights implementation and monitoring committees at the national and sub-national levels with CSOs as active members, convened studies on the sexual exploitation of children in collaboration with CSO and development partners, and sought functional
membership in Interpol as well as massive workshop-based sensitization to the issue. In all of these activities, civil society organizations, through collaboration and networking, have provided expertise and technical know-how.

The Nigeria electronic and print media have also persistently participated in advocacy on issues dealing with the rights, welfare and protection of children through articulate and provocative publications that have influenced behavioural changes. Recently, a point main-committee/advocacy group made up of executives of the mass media, CSOs, NGOs child rights activists, legislators, judicial law enforcement officers, academics and government officials was formed to push the passage of the Child's Right Act at the National Assembly and eventually its promulgation into law. The group is currently advocating for the adoption of the Act as state law in the 36 states of the federation.

Before moving on to examine the theoretical framework of this research, it is worth reiterating that poverty recycles itself from parents to children and down through generations. This recycling is equally perpetuated through the phenomenon of child labour o earn an income thereby condemning themselves to future poverty. In turn, they may need their own children to work and earn an income. The deprivations associated with child labour ensure that the cycle of poverty and exploitation continues.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The primary concern of the founding fathers of sociology was to develop ways of examining the nature and functioning of society and social problems and changes from a scientific perspective. Among all of the early, theories, Marxian economic theory otherwise called the “political economy approach” will be used in this work due to its suitability to the subject matter. The Marxian political economy approach tends to search out the experiences of those oppressed, marginalized, victimized and exploited by capitalism, including poor families and exploited children. This approach also historical undertones in that it offers a materialistic analysis of the Nigerian society (historical materialism) and conflict in human society, which play a role in the formulation of social-economic strata (Ake, 1981).

This approach identifies two classes of people: those with the means of production and those without (the working class). The social relations of production tend to be oppressive and exploitative. Those who own the means of production, the bourgeoisie or the dominant class, misappropriate the labour and products of the working class given that they are only interested in the accumulation of wealth. This creates an unbearable situation for the working class, who often have to send their children into the labour force so that they can engage in activities that will generate income to supplement what is already earned and help to sustain the family. The Nigerian economy, which is the base structure of society, reflects the consequences of this conflict including unemployment, underemployment, poverty, insecurity, and inequality. This can be attributed to the country's incorporation of the capitalist mode of production, which has rendered Nigerians dependent on western powers. Prior to the colonial era, Nigerians were able to provide food and other basic necessities for their families. Following colonialism, there was a shift from local economies and sufficiency to the world economy, where Nigerians consume what they do not produce and are dependent on the global capitalist market to meet their needs. The disarticulation of the Nigerian economy accounts for the inability of Nigerian to develop a firm and solid economic base capable of sustaining all citizens. In the socio-political sphere, the general attitude of public office holders is a demanding one. The retrenchment exercise carried out in government establishments by the ruling class seeks to ensure that the gap between the ruling class and the ruled is maintained. The political economy approach, therefore explains the state of the ruled class, their acceptance of defeat, their inability to provide for their families, and consequently in their bid to survive, the use of their children as economic assets. This approach calls for governmental provision of equality in the distribution of goods and services. Should this be the case, over time class distinction would disappear and production would become concentrated in the hands of the majority of the nation. Global powers would lose their relevance and class antagonism would fade (Ake, 1981).

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

According to Asika (1991) and Ololube (2011), a research design is the structuring of an investigation aimed at identifying variables and their relationships to one another. This study is based on the use of a survey to determine the extent or degree of relationship between two or more variables and a major variable and to use such relationships in making predictions. Hence, the study seeks to establish a relationship between two or more variables, such as parents, poverty, and child labour and street trading, in the city of Yenegoa in the Bayelsa State.

Geographically Yenegoa lies between latitude 6° - 12° and 7° - 13 N and between longitude 5°E and 45°E. It is located on a fairly low lying coastal plain and it is about 78.64 meters above sea level. The total area covered by the
city is about 1.125Sq.km. Linguistically, Yenegoa is originally an Epie Atissa speaking environment. Owing to urbanization and the rapid influx of people from other parts of the state and the country, Yenegoa now has a heterogeneous population comprised of Ijaws, Ogbia, Nembe, Urhobos, Ibos, Hausa, Yorubas, and Efiks speaking groups.

Sample Size

For this research 300 surveys were distributed and 250 were returned. This sample of 250 is comprised of both parents and children that form the child labour and street trading phenomenon in designated market areas of Yenegoa. The majority were from the Swali ultramodern market, Kpansia market and Opolo market.

Sampling Techniques

The most common method of selecting a sample from the population is the random sampling technique. We used a combination of simple random sampling and accidental sampling so as to be able to cover a sizeable area of Yenegoa city.

Data Collection

Questionnaires and interviews, as the primary instruments of data collection, were administered directly to respondents. Respondents included both parents and children. Interviews were conducted largely in Pidgin English, the common language of the city. In all 60 girls and 40 boys were interviewed. To get the opinion of parents, 200 parents were interviewed or given questionnaires.

Questionnaires were divided into two sections, A and B, both dealing with street trading and child labour. Section A was for child respondents while section B was for parents. Thirty questions were used to get responses on the causes and implications of child labour and street trading in Yenegoa. The researchers also collected data from secondary sources such as text books, research papers and journals.

Data Analysis

We used simple percentages for data analysis. The number of responses in each response group were added together and divided by the total possible response and then multiplied by one hundred. The tabular form of analysis included percentages and frequencies of sex, ages, education, occupation and marital status of respondents.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This section presents the analysis of the data collected. Questionnaires were divided into two, one for parents and one for children. This was done in order assess the remote and immediate causes of street trading and child labour in Yenegoa.

Table 4.1: Respondents by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 4.1 shows that of 250 total respondents, 90 (36%) were male while 160 (64%) were female. This table suggests that more females are engaged in and promote street trading and child labour than males.

Table 4.2: Educational Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational status</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 shows that 70 (28%) of respondents had primary education, 35 (14%) respondents had secondary education, 20 (8%) respondents had their post secondary education, while 125 (50%) respondents had no education. This data shows that a better part of those children engaged in street trading and child labour are either those not in school or those with only a primary education.

Table 4.3: Age Range of children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-14</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data show that out of 100 children interviewed, 22 (22%) fall between the age range of 6-8 years, 38 (38%) fall between the ages of 9-11 years, 30 (30%) fall between the ages of 12-14 years, while 10 (10%) fall between the ages of 15-17 years. The data suggests that a large proportion of children involved in child labour are between the ages of 9 and 11 and between the ages of 12 and 14.

Research Question 1: Child labour and street trading on the increase in Yenegoa

Table 4.4: Respondent Assessment of Forms of Street Trading and Child Labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of responses</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic servitude</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Hawking</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bus Conductor</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostitution</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the above data, 70 (28%) of 250 respondents are involved in domestic servitude, while 180 (72%) are involved in street hawking activities. The findings show that hawking is on the rise more than domestic work.

Research Question 2: The economic level of parents necessitate children’s engagement in street trading and child labour

Table 4.5: Respondents Assessment of Economic Class of Parents and Guardians

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of responses</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very rich</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 indicates that children are prone to street trading and child labour because of their family’s economic situation. Only 5 respondents out of 250 (2%) are from rich homes, while 245 respondents (98%) are from very poor families opening the door to survival-driven occupations. This data is complemented by the assertions of Oruwari (1996) and Okojie (1987) that the socio-economic situation of poor parents leads to street trading and child labour.
Research Question 3: Dangers associated with street trading and child labour

Table 4.6 Danger and Street Trading and Child Labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of responses</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 shows that 180 (72%) of 250 respondents are aware of the dangers of the phenomenon while 70 or 28% are not.

Table 4.7: Types of Dangers Associated with Street Trading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of dangers</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kidnapping</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative peer influence</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above data, 60 (24%) of respondents out of 250 agree that children are prone to kidnapping as they go about hawking, while 100 (40%) saw the dangers of the job as the likelihood of accidents. Ninety or 36% concluded that children are likely to be influenced negatively by their peers as they go about these activities.

Research Question 4: Street trading and child labour have any negative impact on society

Table 4.8: Impact of Street Trading on Society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of responses</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 addresses the research question of whether street trading and child labour have negative implications for society at large in that they do not develop but rather hinder the nation’s progress. Of the 250 respondents, 35 (14%) felt that child labour and street trading led to development while 215 (86%) did not.

Throughout this study, a high percentage of participants perceived the work they did to be an indicator of poverty and they were not inclined to continue with their jobs. They did feel, however, compelled to work due to the harsh economic conditions experienced by their families. This study reveals that although child labour provides significant assistance in the sustenance of the family, children endure negative health and social consequences in the process. Many children are involved in accidents, attempted kidnapping, rape sexual molestation, and invitations to more harmful and criminal activities. Yet others suffer from physical exhaustion and illness as a result of their work. These health problems themselves have detrimental effects on children's school attendance, punctuality and school performance.

DISCUSSION

This research was interested in finding the causes and the consequences of street trading and child labour in the metropolis of Yenegoa. The study began by defining street trading and child labour, its nature and causes. Here premium was placed on low income as a cause of street trading and child labour. This is so because families who struggle to earn an income to provide the necessities of life may need to compliment what they earn by engaging their children in street trading and child labour. The researchers then reviewed other academic literature on street and child labour and their effect on the individual child and society at large. We also looked at policies of government enacted to fight street trading and child labour, and assessed the effectiveness of these policies.
This study is in line with Oruwari (c.f., 1996), Okojie (c.f., 1987) and Aderinto (c.f., 2000) assertions where they likewise linked the phenomenon of street trading and child labour to the socio-economic status of parents. The findings on the cause and effects of street trading and child labour were made possible through formulated and tested research questions which are as follows:

- Which forms of child labour and street trading are on the rise?
- Does the economic situation of parents necessitate that children engage in street trading and child labour?
- Is there any danger associated with street trading and child labour?
- Do street trading and child labour have any negative impact on society?

With respect to the first research question, the individuals polled suggested that prevalence of street hawking was increasing faster than domestic servitude, which is why the CRA (c.f., 2003) called for the protection of the rights of children. The second research question was answered largely in the affirmative with 98% of all respondents attesting to a compromised socio-economic situation (c.f., Aderinto, 2000). The third research question was tested and it was confirmed that street trading is associated with a number of dangers, including kidnapping, accidents and the influence of negative or criminal peer groups (c.f., Oruwari, 1996). Finally, the fourth research question was also tested and it was confirmed that street trading and child labour have a negative impact on society as they lead to underdevelopment rather than development of the nation (c.f., Humert, 2009; Humphrices, 2010).

This research work is anchored in the political economy approach which contends that society is polarized into two major groups or classes: the rich and the poor or the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. According to Ake (c.f., 1981), materialism influences the consciousness of man in society such that the children of the bourgeoisie do not engage in street trading and child labour, practices found more commonly among the children of the proletariat. This latter group of children are then rendered vulnerable to the dangers of street hawking/trading; dangers like rape, ritual killing, accidents, and the inability to complete their education. Hence we find a situation where the rich are getting richer and the poor getting poorer, as children engaged in child labour who sacrifice their education will rarely have the chance later in life to earn a sufficient income.

CONCLUSION

It is no stretch to state that street trading and child labour are a great menace to individual children and society at large. A poor individual or family has a high probability of staying poor as low income carries with it high risks of illnesses, limitations on mobility, and limited access to education. Poor parents often cannot give their children the opportunities for better health and education needed to improve their situation and so the cruel legacy of poverty is passed from parents to children. This situation is made worse when poor families encourage their children to pursue child labour or street trading as these activities further limit the future opportunities and possibilities likely to be experienced by the children.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On this note, the researchers offer the following concise recommendations:

- Government should enact laws restricting parents from encouraging their children to participate in street trading and child labour in Nigeria.
- Government should implement free education in Nigeria, to enable poor children to attend as this (school fees) is a factor in the phenomenon.
- Government and NGOs should organize different sensitization programmes for Nigerian citizens on the dangers associated with child labour and street hawking.
- Government should empower youth with different skill acquisition programmes to ameliorate the phenomenon of street hawking.
- Families should be sensitized to the importance of family planning to enable them to have fewer children. As discussed above, parents with low income who are unable to feed their families properly often introduce their children to the phenomenon of street trading to boost their income.
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Nigeria Constitution 1999 Section 12(3)


Wikepedian free Encylopedia (2007).
Perceptions of Agriculture Science Teachers Regarding Negative Deviant Behaviours of Students in Senior Secondary Schools in Botswana

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Department of Agricultural Economics
Education & Extension (AEE) Faculty
University of Botswana

Abstract

This descriptive survey study covers perceptions of agriculture science teachers regarding negative deviant behaviours of students in schools in the southern district of Botswana. A questionnaire was administered to gather the views of thirty (30) agriculture science teachers in six purposively selected secondary schools. The results showed that the majority (67%) of the respondents were males while only 33% were females. Teacher respondents’ perceptions indicated behaviours such as ‘regular missing agriculture lessons, bullying other students in the garden over the use of tools, vandalism of school agriculture tools, disrespecting technical staff members, fighting other students during class, and failure to wear protective clothing” with a mean of 2.50-3.49. Lack of parental guidance and peer pressure were revealed as primary factors influencing students’ behaviours.

Keywords: deviance, negative deviant behaviour, students, deviance, agricultural education, agriculture science.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Students’ negative deviant behavior has been the topic of discussion for the past twenty years beginning the 1990s as indicated by MacManus (1995) and Rigby (1996) cited in Moswela (2006). According to George (2009) negative deviant “behaviour constitutes a violation of principles and values that are assumed to be universal” (p.56). Berth and Theron (1999) describe behaviour deviation as a situation whereby a person moves away from ethical or normal codes of conduct thus creating discomfort to the people in the school. Defiance whether done by girls or by boys is an “unlawful, aggressive, sexual and social behaviour visible to others which creates discomfort for them” (Berth and Theron, 1999, p. 441). The concept of deviant behaviour can manifest itself in different forms that can cause physical and/or psychological harm to others to the extent that to its victim, schooling ceases to be safe and interesting.” (Moswela, 2005 pp.29).

According to Greydanus et. al. (2005) negative deviant behaviours can be in different forms which include suicide, abortion, class boycotting, homosexuality, prostitution, and gang affiliation, abuse, drug abuse, runaways,
suicidal ideation or attempt and self harm. In schools and generally in the society, these forms of defiance carry a negative importance and connotation which in most cases the society stigmatize people committing them. An important aspect of deviant behavior is the recognition that societies accept certain behaviors guided by their norms, standards and laws formulated to keep order in the society. In these circumstances, some people may be viewed as deviant while others engaged in the same behavior may not. Deviant behaviour can be good, odd and bad.

In educational institutions, efforts have been made by different countries to address negative deviant behaviors. For example in Botswana, the 1994 Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) established as a direct intervention the guidance and counseling department of the Botswana’s Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoE&SD) and pastoral care units in secondary schools to address negative deviant behaviors. The prevalence of negative deviant behavior in Botswana schools has been confirmed by a study on discipline crisis by Garegae (2008), one on peer victimization, bullying by Moswela (2005); Moswela (2006), and the other study on aggressiveness, disruptive behaviors by Malete (2007).

A number of schools in Botswana have experienced negative deviant behaviors in one way or the other. For example, Mmegi Online newspaper of the 20 February 2008 reported about discipline challenges and misbehaving students in form five who ill-treated the newly admitted form four students upon arrival at one of the schools in the south East district. In the same year Monkagedi Gaotlhobogwe (2008) staff of the same newspaper wrote about Juvenile behaviour where students were involved in selling illegal substances (dagga) in one of the senior secondary schools in the capital city, Gaborone. A study by Garegae revealed that generally the problem of discipline in societies has existed for as long as the human inception by God. However, the author has found that the discipline problem in Botswana schools has taken a more sensitive direction as cases of students misbehaving and breaking laws have become complex. The worst incident in Botswana reported by Shirley Nkepe (Staff Writer) the Mmegi newspaper of Friday 30 January 2004 following an incident where nine students died and some became blind after drinking a dangerous laboratory chemical called methanol. These examples and several other disobedience cases committed by students in school grounds including strikes may be viewed as crime Livesey and Lawson © www.onlineclassroom.tv (n.d ).

According to Moswela (2005) students who misbehave against other students in school were liable to make them fear school and also cause harm to them physically and psychologically. According to the development of aggressive behaviour in children and young people (n.d), being aggressive of a person is character that grows within that particular person from childhood influenced by several factors such as peer pressure, parental care, and parental attitudes, family dysfunctional, socio-demographic, and genetic factors. At an early age such misbehaviors may be linked with delinquency but at an adult stage of development such behaviors become associated with crime in the society.

According to Ezewu (1983) unusual behaviour in people is shown when the person fails to conform to the rules, regulations and norms that are set for that particular educational institution. Students’ behaviour in secondary schools as implied in Moswela (2006) is no longer showing loyalty, trustworthy, submissiveness, obedience, and respectfulness to their teachers. It is based on goals students set themselves (Decatur et.al., 2008). In the United States, misbehaviour in agricultural education has been observed as far back as the 1980s (Burnett. and Moore 1988) and is seen to be improving (Croom and Moore, 2003). An obvious misbehavior observed in students of agriculture as reported by Croom and Moore (2003) was that of negative attitudes toward school. In Botswana, agricultural education is a young subject in curriculum (Hulela and Miller, 2003) thus very little research has been done regarding student behaviors.

The Theoretical Framework

The framework of this study is supported by the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Figure 1) developed by Ajen and Fishbein (1980). Ajen and Fishbein theory explains that behaviors of people are influenced by outcomes of beliefs held as they impact on the attitudes to influence what the person would do (behaviours). In this regard behaviour is a product of beliefs and attitudes the person holds, as influenced by social environment including the shared norms and values. The theory also explains that behaviours performed by a child can be predicted from way of life. These go hand in hand with beliefs that what a person thinks she or he can do or not do (self-efficacy). The theory elucidates that the person's behavior is determined by goal put forward to carry out the behavior and that these targets may be influenced by social environment and norms. According to Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) as cited in Thompson and Warnick (2007) demographic variables, knowledge and observations influence beliefs, which impacts on attitudes, intentions, and finally behaviours.”
Ajen and Fishbein (1980) theory proclaims that the people’s attitudes can be used to explain actions that people take like the deviant behaviors committed by students in schools. That is, students’ attitudes can be used to predict the forms of behaviour, positive and or negative. The theory further advanced that deviant behaviour is a function of an individual's exposure to certain activities and their acquaintances, which also reinforces either socially acceptable or unacceptable behaviour. The Prochaska and DiClemente (1983) trans-theoretical model implies that behavior change occurs in stages that are different from one another through which people move in a cyclical or spiral pattern. This suggests that behaviors stages of development are not linear rather complex to be understood.

Figure 1: The theory of reasoned action (TRA)

A school can be viewed as a social organization with sections, rules and regulations established to govern the actions of all stakeholders in operation to meet the set goals. The goal of a school is for students to learn the set curricula, norms of society, the rules and regulations. This may be a form of prescribed documents or not written down at all but known to guide people in achieving the goal of education (Lynch, 1994).

According to Fellegi (2004) an educational institution is bound to have major consequences on delinquency behaviours of people for some reasons. This is so because, first, a school brings together a large number of young people who are still at the highest developmental capacity. Second, a school is a place for children to interact and get some experiences, as it may in a way confines and shields them through rules and regulations. In schools, delinquencies may include misbehaving to teachers and classmates, bullying, fighting, stealing, assaulting, robbing, and murdering (Fellegi, 2004). In agricultural education programs, eating and vandalizing crops in the garden are situations that are unacceptable to the teacher in the classroom. In schools, the behaviour problem can be of gender bias since boys tend to cause more problems in the garden than girls (Fontana, 1995). Theories of deviance suggest that social class was influential in delinquency (Kelly and Balch, 1971). In other words, the class in which a person is found places an impact on his or her behaviour. According to Kelly and Balch, 1971:

*We cannot change a boy's social class, but we can do something about his school. If we can make the classroom and school activities generally, more rewarding and more engrossing for students, perhaps we can reduce the amount of juvenile delinquency (Kelly & Balch, 1971, p. 428).*

There are several factors that contribute to human behaviours’ complexity or change. Similarly, several strategies have been suggested to address negative deviant behaviours (Garegae, 2007; Matoga, 2003, Morell, 2001). According to Bhatia (2005) people develop in stages in both physical and mental. From this sociological perspective, people become deviant because of factors related to friends, relatives and family members they interact with that support children and families. This suggests that single parent families need more help monitoring their children. If levels of instrumental control (monitoring) could be increased in these households, levels of deviance should decrease (Bates, et. al., 2003, p. 184).

**Purpose of the Study**
The purpose of this study was to profile teachers’ perceptions with regard to negative deviant behaviours in agriculture classes. The specific objectives were to:

a. Describe the respondents’ demographic characteristics
b. Describe the frequency of negative deviant behaviours as perceived by respondents in the study
c. Describe factors influencing students’ deviant behaviours as perceived by teacher respondents

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study used a descriptive survey design. This design was found appropriate for this study to measure the perceptions of the teacher of agriculture in terms of opinions, views and feelings of the respondents. The design has the advantage of gathering more information from the respondents. The purpose of the study was to describe the perceptions of teachers with regard negative deviant behaviours of students of agriculture science. The study described the patterns of demographic characteristics of teachers of agriculture science. Respondents’ views regarding factors perceived to influence deviant behaviours of agriculture students were also described.

Population and Sampling

The population of this study comprised of a census of teachers of agriculture in six senior secondary schools in the southern part of Botswana. A purposively selected sample of six senior secondary schools each with five teachers giving a total of 30 teachers were used in the study. The six schools were purposively selected to participate in the study because of their proximity to Botswana College of Agriculture where the researchers were based. The Regional Secondary Education office based in Gaborone provided the researchers with an up-to-date list of teachers of agriculture in the schools with the school name, telephone and address.

Instrumentation

A survey questionnaire was used to gather data. The instrument was developed by the researchers using the descriptions of behaviours listed by Ezewu (1983). The instrument consisted of four parts. In part 1, the respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which the selected behaviours occurred during agriculture lessons. Each behaviour was anchored on a Likert-type scale described as; 1 = Not occurring (NO), 2 = Less frequently occurring (LF), 3 = Moderately occurring (MO), 4 = Frequent Occurring (FO), and 5= Very frequently occurring (VFO). In part 2 respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to statements describing the factors perceived to influence deviant behaviours in secondary school students. Descriptions of behaviours were anchored on a rating scale for teachers to indicate whether they; 1= Strongly Disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (D), 3 = Not Sure (NS); 4 = Agree (A), or 5 = Strongly Agree (SA). In part 3 respondents were asked to provide their personal demographic information which included age, marital status, and educational level achieved, experience in teaching, position currently held and also to indicate whether or not they were involved in guidance and counselling of students as they teach agriculture in schools.

Face and content validity for the instrument was established by a group of lecturers at Botswana College of agriculture in the Department of Agricultural Economics, Education and Extension (AEE). Pre-testing of the questionnaire was conducted using teachers of agriculture at Kagiso senior secondary school in Ramotswa who were not part of the main study. Kagiso senior secondary school is in the south east region not included in the study. The Conbalch’s Alpha value was found to be 0.70 which according to Ary et.al (2001) indicates that the instrument was consistent enough to measure what it is meant to measure.

Data Collection Procedures

To collect data from the respondents, a letter was mailed to heads of schools participating in the study to request permission to allow teachers of agriculture science to participate in the study. The letter also introduced the researchers in the study and further explained the importance of the study to teacher respondents. The second letter was mailed seven days afterward attached to the questionnaire, requesting teachers to respond to the questionnaire, at the same
time providing instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. A self-addressed envelope was enclosed together with the questionnaire for respondents to enclose the completed questionnaire and handed over to the school head.

The questionnaire was self-administered. Teachers responded by checking on the answers they perceived best suitable to represent their perceptions. In order to control the non-response error, the researchers had explained to the respondents the importance of their response and contribution the study would make to the education system. The explanation was hoped to encourage teachers to participate in the study by giving their views or opinions.

**Data Analysis**

Frequencies and percentages were computed to show the gender of people in the study, educational level achieved, and number of years they have been teaching their subject of agriculture in secondary schools. The means and standard deviations were computed for behaviours studied. The higher means denoted positively perceived and most frequently occurring behaviour while lower means signified negatively perceived occurring behaviours in schools.

**Ethical Considerations**

The use of head teachers was not meant to pressurize the teachers into participating in the study. Respondents were told that they were free to participate or not and if they chose not to participate they were not going to be negatively affected in any way. The use of head teachers was to facilitate a central point where the questionnaire could be collected and delivered. The collection and return of the questionnaire was done in a way that ensured anonymity. Teachers were not asked to provide their names and whatever they said was not used in any other way except for the purposes of the study. The study did not pose any serious risk to the teacher respondents.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

The data gathered was analyzed using PASW/Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17. To examine the non-response bias, a t-test was used to compare early and late respondents. The t-value obtained indicated that there was no statistical difference between the early and late teacher respondents. The results of the study were presented in tabular and narrative forms sub divided according to the objectives of the study. There were three objectives. Results were also divided into three sections, namely; demographic characteristics, frequency of deviant behaviours and perceived influencers of students’ behaviours in schools.

**Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

This part of the study presents and discusses the demographic characteristics of respondents as shown in Table 1. The results showed that the majority (67%) of the teacher respondents were male while only 33% were females. This statistics may be unique to agricultural education in Botswana because agriculture was a new field introduced into schools in the late 1970s and taught only to male students. Majority of the teachers at its inception in education were mainly expatriates and were males. Culturally, agriculture was seen as the domain of males in Botswana (Hulela and Miller, 2003). These results were inline with Kesley (2006) who found that majority of teachers in agricultural education in the Oklahoma state were male. The study by Kesley further revealed that even though there were many women prepared as teachers of agriculture it was established that few of them enter teaching for some reasons. The same studies found that women teachers seem not to be committed to teach agriculture, were mindful of where they were posted and were prejudice from the administrators point as women.

Table 1 also showed that the ages of the respondents in this study ranged between 21 and above 41, with the majority aged between 31 and 40 years. The results imply that most of the teachers of agriculture in schools were relatively young. Educationally, the majority of agriculture science teachers in schools hold a Diploma in Secondary Education (32.3%), followed by those who hold Bachelor of Science on Agricultural Education (30.0%), then Bachelor of Science General agriculture (23.3%), and only 10 percent hold Master of Science degree in agricultural education. At least three percent teachers had a Diploma in Agric Education. These results imply that teachers of agriculture in schools were educated enough with ten percent having a Master of Science degree (MSc). The results were not surprising as Botswana had just started training teachers of agriculture in the late 1970s up to a level of diploma. The Bachelor of Science degree program was introduced in the early 1990s (Hulela and Miller, 2003) when the government started the Botswana College of Agriculture (BCA) agric education program and the Tonota College...
of Education secondary teacher preparations. Perhaps what needs to be investigated further is the impact of the highly trained teachers on the students’ behaviour modification.

The results in Table 1 illustrate that agriculture teachers in schools were not very experienced; close to two thirds (63.3%) having up to 10 years of teaching experience, followed by one third respondents with teaching experience of 11 to 20 years and only three percent have taught for a period of 20 to 30 years. These statistics may be close to accurate since agriculture was new and teacher preparation (Hulela and Miller, 2003) accelerated by teacher attrition (Kesley, 2006; Mojaphoko and Subair, 1999). The results of this study also explain the practice that experienced teachers in Botswana tend to graduate from the classroom to become education officers, school heads, and or leave teaching for other careers as implied by Subair and Mojaphoko.

Table 1 also showed that slightly above half (51%) of the respondents in this study hold positions of senior teacher I, senior teacher II and school deputy head. These positions in addition to the actual subject matter classroom teaching were attached with some responsibilities. Fifty percent (50%) of the respondents were also providing guidance and counselling roles. This may be due to realization of the need for behaviour modification in teenagers.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of respondents’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Category</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 and above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma Agric Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Secondary Education</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Science Agric Education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Science General</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSc</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position held</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior teacher I &amp; II</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Deputy Head</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance &amp; Counselling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perceived Student Deviant Behaviours

The respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which each of the negative behaviours occurred during their teaching of agriculture. The results in Table 2 show statistical means, standard deviations of behaviours descriptors ranked from the most frequently occurring to the least occurring. To interpret the statistical results, means ranging from zero to 2.49 (0.00 – 2.49) denoted behaviours perceived rarely occurring (denoted as RO=3), means of 2.50-3.49 denoted average occurrence behaviours (denoted as AVE = 2), and a mean of 3.50 and above denoted behaviours perceived to be most frequently occurring (denoted as MF=1) in agriculture science classrooms. The behaviour which had the highest mean indicated most prevalent and the lowest mean indicated the least occurring behaviours in the schools. Based on these criteria, the following mis-behaviours were perceived to occur frequently in the teaching of agriculture science; “coming to school late” with mean = 3.70; SD = 1.12, followed by “stealing from fellow students’ projects” and “absenteeism” both with means of 3.67; SD = 1.09. The behaviours as rated by the respondents could be
valid because students in schools were mainly teenagers. In a study conducted by Croom and More (2003) the findings revealed misbehaviours such as negative attitude toward school were frequently occurring. However, the measures of variability as seen in Table 2 were high for the four variables. The higher standard deviations implied some greater deviation of the group surveyed from the mean of each behaviour statement.

The results in Table 2 showed respondents’ perceptions of descriptors of students’ negative behaviours. Results show three descriptors “coming to agricultural lessons late” (M=3.70; SD= 1.12), “stealing from fellow students“ and “absenteeism during agriculture classes” both with (M= 3.67; SD= 1.09) ranked higher as most frequently occurring. Seven negative behaviour descriptors were categorized as moderately occurring (AVE=2) with means ranging from means 2.50-3.49. These included, “regular missing agriculture lessons” “vandalism of school agriculture tools”, bullying other students in the garden over the use of tools”, “disrespecting technical staff members”, “fighting other students during class”, failure to wear protective clothing” and taking drugs such as motokwane, glue and alcohol”. Generally, the results on bullying confirm the outcomes of a study by Moswela’s (2005) on ill-treatment practiced by some students in schools. The results are also inline with what Matsoga termed the increase on prevalence of indiscipline in schools. According to Laskorusky’s (2009) report delinquency children involved in run-away from their homes tend to affect their self-esteem. The results in Table 2 further showed that four behaviours were perceived to be rarely occurring (RO) such as stealing, strikes, taking alcohols and chemicals with means ranging between 1.27 and 2.43. These results could be close to accurate since such behaviours appear to be a crime and an indication of serious law breaking in the society. These behaviours occur in rare case (denoted RO) in schools as revealed in the study.

### Table 2: Frequency of occurrence of selected behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MF Coming to agriculture lessons late</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MF Stealing from fellow students’ plots</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MF Absenteeism during agriculture classes</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Regular missing agriculture lessons</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Vandalism of school agriculture tools</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Bullying other students in the garden over the use of tools</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Disrespecting technical staff members</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Fighting other students during class</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Failure to wear protective clothing</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVE Taking drugs such as motokwane glue, and alcohol</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO Stealing of agricultural produce in the garden</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO Taking alcohol during school/ agriculture hours</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO Taking laboratory chemicals</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO Strikes and demonstrations</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 3rd objective described the perceptions of teacher respondents on whether or not the factors related to parental, family and societal and development listed influence deviant behaviours on students. The statistics results in Table 3 showed that variables were ranked 1 to 9 based on means computed ranging from the highest influence Mean = 4.10; SD= 0.86 to a low Mean= 2.127; SD = 0.91 denoting lowest influence. The variable “Lack of parental guidance” (mean = 4.10; SD = .86) followed by “Peer pressure” Mean= 4.00; SD = 1.02) were perceived highly influential to students’ behaviours. The variable, “Staying with foster parents” (Mean =2.27; SD=0.91) and “Forming gangs to boycott projects” Mean =2.43; SD=1.28 were perceived less influential on student behaviours. These results were not different from what Subair (1999) viewed as factors affecting the Juvenile delinquency misbehaviour of children. The results of this study also affirm the findings and conclusions drawn from studies conducted by Garegae (2007) and Matsoga’ (2003) indeed several factors contribute toward negative behaviour or indiscipline in schools.

### Table 3: Means and standard deviations of Perceived influencers of behaviours (n=30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental guidance</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer pressure</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration from the family</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self esteem</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorces in the family</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family conflicts</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negligence by parents</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement in media images in the country</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of material support</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an orphan</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forming gangs to boycott projects</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staying with foster parents</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The study found that respondents agreed that negative student behaviours do occur during the teaching of agriculture science in the classroom, thus there was need for strategies and policies to guide the behaviours of students in agricultural education reduce negative behaviours.

2. The demographic characteristics as shown in the study revealed that teachers of agriculture science in schools were mainly men, relatively young, moderately educated and inexperienced but involved in counselling their students. However, what needs to be investigated further is the impact of the highly trained teachers on negative deviant student behaviours.

3. The study revealed that negative deviant behaviours can be categorized into three groups as perceived by respondents; behaviours that were perceived to be most frequently occurring during agriculture science classes. Agriculture as a practical science subject and the environment upon which it is offered in secondary schools in Botswana could provide that opportunity for students to misbehave if teachers are not vigilant. Depending on culture, students at the age at which they are in secondary schools may not know which behaviours to display during class. With regard to arriving late for agriculture science lessons, the situation in schools particularly in Botswana where students do not have base classrooms there is a high chance of late coming.

4. The findings also revealed that some behaviour perceived to be rarely occurring have implication on educational policies, rules and regulations that forbid ‘crime’ and related factors in school grounds. The respondents’ perceptions could be accurate because things like strikes, taking alcohol, chemicals and stealing are seen to be a crime and an indication of law breaking in the society, so they are rare.

5. Several factors such as lack of parental guidance, peer pressure, frustration from the family, lack of self esteem influence students’ deviant behaviours as shown by majority of the behaviour variables studied and ranked from high influence to low influence. These being psychosocial and developmental factors need to be monitored.

6. A national study be conducted to cover all schools in the country concentrating on strategies and policies helping to adjust negative deviant behaviours.

REFERENCES


