

PSYCHO-SOCIAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF TEACHING ANXIETY AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF OF BENUE STATE UNIVERSITY, MAKURDI

Joyce Mcivir Terwase¹, Iorpav Eric Tahav², Moses Denen Chiahemba³

^{1,2&3}Department of Psychology,
Benue State University,
P.M.B. 102119, Makurdi, Nigeria.

Abstract

This study examined psycho-social factors as predictors of teaching anxiety among academic staff of Benue State University, Makurdi. The study consists of 201 lecturers drawn randomly from the eight faculties of the University. The respondents were in the age range of 29-60 years with a mean age of 40 years. Out of this number, 128 (63.7%) were male while 73 (36.3%) were female. Data were collected using Teaching Anxiety Inventory (TAI) and Teacher's Efficacy Scale (TSES). Three hypotheses were tested using independent t-test and regression analysis. Results showed that there was no significant difference between male and female University teachers on teaching anxiety ($t(183) = .452, p > .05$). There was also a significant influence of work experience of university teachers on teaching anxiety ($R = .212$ and $R^2 = .039; f(1,181) = 8.484, P < .05$). There was a significant influence of self-efficacy of university academic staff on teaching anxiety ($R = .254$ and $R^2 = .065, f(1,181) = 12.479, P < .05$). It was concluded that gender did not predict teaching anxiety, meanwhile work experience and teacher's self-efficacy predicted teaching anxiety. The result further revealed that gender, work experience and self-efficacy jointly predict teaching anxiety ($R = .352$ and $R^2 = .124, F(3,177) = 8.365; P < .001$). Therefore, it is recommended that mentorship should be greatly encouraged and adopted in Universities, especially for the post graduate students. This will help to equip young lecturers to come into the University system with advance knowledge on how to teach and interact with students appropriately. This will help to heighten their self-efficacy and add to their years of experience.

Keywords: Psycho-social, Predictor, Teaching anxiety, Academic staff

INTRODUCTION

Teaching anxiety is a common experience among teachers. An estimated eighty percent of all teachers experience at least some degree of anxiety when they become the center of attention (Plaut, 1990). Teachers who are frequently required to teach under an array of stressful conditions are particularly susceptible to anxious thoughts and feelings. Although a little tension before a lecture is natural and may actually enhance the teaching (Kokotsaki & Davidson, 2003), excessive nervousness acts mostly as a determinant to effective teaching. For many teachers, the task of teaching and demonstrating in front of students can lead to a wide range of physiological, psychological, emotional, and/or behavioral problems (Ely, 1991).

In understanding the components of teaching anxiety and learning and how to overcome its effects are important steps toward improving teaching (Ely, 1991). Considering that the act of lecturing or teaching is essentially a performance experience in and of itself, there is a great need for more research in the area of teaching anxiety.

Thomas (2006) defines teaching anxiety as the feelings, beliefs, or behaviors that interfere with a person's ability to start, continue, or finish a teaching task. Teaching anxiety can be affected by any number of factors including matters relating to public speaking, classroom management, and

teacher preparation. Research suggests that teaching anxiety is a significant problem for many educators. Gardner and Leak (1994) surveyed a group of psychology professors and found that roughly eighty-seven percent of the respondents had experienced anxiety associated with the teaching process. In addition to university professors, teaching anxiety has also been identified among graduate teaching assistants (Halat, 2008), and student teachers (Oral, 2012). While no specific research regarding the anxiety of elementary or secondary teachers was uncovered in this inquiry, which remains plausible that educators at all levels are susceptible to anxious thoughts and feelings related to the processes of teaching.

As with music performance anxiety, the issue of teaching anxiety carries great relevance for educational sector. In the same manner that severe performance anxiety can handicap musicians, intense teaching anxiety can be a powerful detriment to teachers. According to Akinsola (2008b), anxiety for teaching is a frequent fear of inexperienced teachers and can lead to ineffective and other series of task avoidance.

In this way, the effects of teaching anxiety works against the nature of effective teaching. Indeed, research has shown that teaching anxiety is associated with a particular school subject. It may reflect real or perceived knowledge deficits in subject

content as well as in skill of delivery (Engelhard, 1990).

And university teachers might be at greater risk to suffer from anxiety than teachers in other levels of education. The act of teaching, when done well, includes aspects of classroom demonstrations. Teachers often provide a sound model for students and demonstrate on how to carry out a particular task before students. If these, and similar tasks are not accomplished well, perhaps due to some level of anxiety on the part of the teacher, the teaching process is hindered. As perceptions of ineffectiveness mount, the likelihood of teachers to experience some anxiety related to the teaching process increases. However, performance anxiety and teaching may function as a catalyst for the others when manifest within a lecturer.

Hence this study is on psycho-social factors as predictors of teaching anxiety, one psychological variable of self-efficacy and two social variables of gender and work experience and their influence on teaching anxiety were the point of focus. In our day to day activities, psycho-social factors play a significant role in predicting the outcome of our behavior and task performance to be specific. This is supported by Peker, (2006) who pointed out that there were several psycho-social factors, such as content teaching experience, gender, knowledge and self-efficacy related to teaching anxiety. Ameen, Guffey and Jackson

(2002), reported that accounting educators' intensity of teaching anxiety was affected by teaching experience and rank.

As regards to gender, Ameen, Guffey and Jackson (2002) claimed that the social aspect of the psycho-social factors called gender has no influence on the intensity of teaching anxiety. Though in another study, Fish and Fraser (2001) found that among the university professors surveyed about teaching anxiety, gender was a factor with female faculty reporting more teaching anxiety than males. Furthermore, Peker and Halat (2008) found that gender was not a psychosocial factor among the pre-service elementary school teachers' teaching anxiety.

With regards to self-efficacy as a psycho-social factor of predicting teaching anxiety, Albert Bandura assumed that the task of creating learning environments conducive to the development of cognitive competencies rest heavily on the talents and self-efficacy of teachers (Bandura, 1997). Perceived self-efficacy, as defined by Bandura is the belief that an individual has the ability to carry out certain actions that result in a desired outcome Bandura, (1997). A teacher's sense of efficacy is consistently recognized as an important attribute of effective teaching and has been negatively correlated to teaching anxiety (Tschannen-Moran & Woolforl-Hoy, (2001). How efficacious a person believes he or she is influences the choice of

activities, amount of effort spent, and the persistence put forth to complete the tasks when confronted with obstacles. Furthermore, teacher efficacy accounts for how competent a teacher feels in his ability to affect the performance of all students, no matter how unmotivated and difficult (Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Unfortunately, simply identifying high and low-eficacy teachers will not provide information on increasing levels of efficacy. Instead, a deep comprehension of the influences on teacher self-eficacy is needed. Schools of education and teachers preparation programs in particular need to be aware of the psychological factors associated with increased levels of self-eficacy in order to produce the most capable, innovative, and productive and dedicated teachers possible without any feeling of teaching anxiety.

Since little research especially in Nigeria has been done in the area of teaching anxiety among university lecturers regarding experience, sex and self-eficacy, this research is undertaken to contribute to this area. Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the psychosocial factors (gender, work experience and self-eficacy) as predictors of teaching anxiety among university lecturers at Benue State University, Makurdi. And the objectives are firstly, to investigate if there is a significant gender difference in teaching anxiety among university lecturers, to examine if there is a significant difference between

work experience and teaching anxiety among university lecturers, and to determine if self-eficacy will significantly relate with teaching anxiety among university lecturers.

Literature Review

Gender

Gender provides an important subject of study because it may be understood both at the macro level, as a position in the social structure (Ridgeway, 1993), and at the micro level, as an identity that persons apply to themselves (Burke & Tully, 2007). When gender is conceptualized as a position, the question is how a particular class of persons (either men or women) behaves and is treated in interaction, given the expectations attached to other status. When gender is conceptualized as an identity, we examine the meaning of male or female for persons when they are reflective, and how this self-meaning guides behavior in interactions. Gender as status comes from the viewpoint of society; gender as identity comes from the viewpoint of individuals.

In essence, examining gender only as status may address issues of power and inequality between the sexes, but it tends to mask individuals choice and agency (Molm, 2000). Alternatively, studying gender only as identity treats gender as an individual characteristic while ignoring how “doing gender” in interaction creates and reinforce

differences between men and women in social interactions (West & Zimmerman, 2009). The status of gender and identity of gender as seen as simultaneously produced and maintained in interaction. Gender signals one's social structural position and one's view of him/herself. The meaning of both influences behavior in interactions, this behavior, in turn, sustains identities and social interactions.

Work Experience

According to Hoy, (2000), work experience is conceptualized to be any experience that a person gains while working in specific field or occupation, but the expression is widely used to mean a type of volunteer work that is commonly intended for young people often students, to get a feel for professional working environment.

It is unclear however, if work experience, teacher efficacy beliefs are gender related. Some researchers suggest that female teachers gained fast, experience and self-efficacious than their male colleagues (Cheung, 2003; Evans & Tribble 1986), while others have found no such relationship exists (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

Research suggests that experienced teachers positively influence their attitudes towards their work (Coladarci, 1992), and their persistence in managing related challenges. Experienced teachers possess teaching qualities and experiment with a

wide repertoire of instructional strategies that are student-centered (Riggs & Enochs, 1990), especially strategies that require them to negotiate control with their students and manage their classrooms (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). They are more likely early adopters of innovations; take time to plan their lessons (Allinder, 1994); are more committed to teaching and their students.

Experienced teachers persist in their efforts with students who are struggling and positively influence their students' motivation (Perry, 2004), and academic achievement (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). These teachers experience lower levels of teaching anxiety than inexperienced teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy. Conversely, Bandura (1997) suggests that teachers who are inexperienced tend to set goals that they do not complete, become, and view themselves as less competent than their peers.

Self-Efficacy

The construct of self-efficacy can be traced to the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1994), who deconstructed self-efficacy into two behavioral constructs: efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Efficacy expectations refer to an individual's personal belief that she/he has the capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, (1997). On the other hand, outcome expectation is an individual's personal belief that a particular

behavior will yield a specific outcome (Swars, Hart, Smith, Smith & Tolar 2007).

However, this explanation of efficacy does not refer to an individual's actual abilities to perform a task, but he/her perceived ability to perform the task. Thus, two individuals with the same skills or abilities may experience different levels of success at the same task, depending on the beliefs about their own efficacy for performing the task. It is the combination of positive self-efficacy, skills and knowledge that are required for performing a given task (Humker & Madison, 1997), Pajares (1996), attribute efficacy beliefs to an individual's previous experiences, which are specific to situations and contexts. Bandura (1997) elaborated on four factors that develop efficacy. He suggests that teachers' mastery experiences strengthen efficacy, particularly when an appropriately challenging task is successfully completed with little assistance. On the other hand, vicarious experiences allow individuals to observe and assess the success of others whose abilities may not match theirs, and may affect efficacy beliefs. Bandura also suggests that social persuasion may strength the teachers 'efficacy beliefs when others express confidence in them. Finally, Bandura suggests that positive emotional and physiological environment builds efficacy.

A related construct, teacher efficacy, is defined as teachers' beliefs in their ability to

actualize the desired outcomes (Wheatley, 2005), and has attracted much research over the last three decades. Tschannen - Moran and Hoy, (2001), discovered a strong positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, effective teaching practices and improved student achievement. Teacher efficacy beliefs affect the way teachers feel about their work. They begin to take shape early in the learning process, and once, established they appear to be somewhat resistant to change and have implications for teacher development early in teacher's career (Tschannen - Moran and Nestor Baker, 2004).

For new teachers, it must be challenging to teach in a way that is at odds with their own experiences as students, particularly if these experience and successes were dominated by teacher-centered approaches (Huinker & Madison, 1997). Overcoming their self-doubt in this situation is often worsened if these individuals were successful at traditional academic discipline, at which they have attained some proficiency, but are required to engage in constructivist strategies to teach their students.

Teaching Anxiety

Anxiety is a complex emotional response which has behavioral, psychological, affective, physiological, and cognitive aspects that impede an individual's ability to constructively manage challenges, problems and opportunities (Kellerman &

Burphy, 2007). Though anxiety is often confused with fear, which is a response to an actual stimulus or threat, anxiety is a response to an anticipated stimulus or threat. Thus, an individual who faces a situation they perceive of as immediately threatening goes into fight-or-flight mode in preparation for action. They become agitated or anxious about the situation and experience mental and physical manifestations of their un-ease, such as sweating, tension, and increased heart rate (Anxiety Disorders Association of America, 2010), often appearing to respond irrationally to stimuli that others may not interpret as threatening. Anxiety-prone individuals often cannot distinguish between fear and anxiety. It is therefore natural that all individuals experience anxiety at some time in their lifetime. Though there are many forms of anxiety but however, the one that is related to teaching is referred to as teaching anxiety. Thomas (2006) defines teaching anxiety as the feelings, beliefs, or behaviors that interfere with a person's ability to start, continue, or finish teaching task.

Teaching anxiety has been linked to the teacher and the teaching of a course (Furner & Duffy, 2002). As a result, research on teaching anxiety has been broadened to include research into pre-service and in-service teachers' teaching anxiety (Peker, 2009). Gardner and Leak (1994) and Levine (1993), described teaching anxiety as the anxiety that teachers experience during

lesson preparation, and during instruction when they teach concepts, theories and formulas or during problem solving (Peker, 2009). This anxiety can be linked to teachers' content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, attitudes toward the chosen subject and self-confidence related to both teaching anxiety and subject teaching anxiety.

Manifestations of teaching anxiety include feelings of tension, heightened nervousness; difficulty in concentrating, especially in noisy environments; extreme agitation at students; and negative self-talk (Beilock, Gunderson, Ramirez, & Levine 2010). Negative self-talk in particular may reduce a teacher's self-confidence to teach a particular subject because they become convinced that they cannot do so competently (Godbey and Robinson, 1997).

Anxious Teachers who hold negative attitudes about their teaching of a particular subject tend to have a poor understanding of concepts and poorly developed problem solving competencies, thus they cannot teach what they do not know. They do not understand how students learn the subject, and so are unable to identify and assist students who experience difficulty in such a subject (Harper & Daane, 1998; Kennedy, 1998). They do not know how to listen to their students, thus, they do not know what student thinks about the subject, or how to encourage them to share what they think

(Kennedy, 1998). They generally find it difficult to cope with their fear of the anxiety-provoking subjects. This ought to raise serious concerns about teachers' ability to effectively teach the subject to young children and the likelihood that they will communicate and transfer their anxiety to their students (Gresham, 2008).

Swars, Daane and Giesen (2006), Vinson (2001a) and Hembree (1990), posited that anxious teachers tend to employ traditional teaching strategies such as lecturing, rather than collaborative strategies. They spend more time on whole group instruction, rather than differentiated instruction. Anxious teachers rely heavily on textbooks to direct instruction; promote role memorization; teach for skills acquisition rather than conceptual understanding of concepts. They assign the same work to all students, rather than meeting the needs of diverse learners in the classroom. They emphasize solving textbook problems rather than spending time on problem solving activities and linking concepts to the real world; are less confident about teaching (Bradley & Bowd, 2005), and have low teaching efficacy. (Swars, Daane & Giesen, 2006), Swars (2004) found that elementary teachers with low anxiety were highly efficacious teachers.

METHOD

Design

This study adopted the cross sectional

design.

Participants

Participants for the study were selected to cut across all gender, ages, educational qualifications, tribe, marital status, religion, rank, work experience and faculties. Their ages ranged from 29-60 years with a mean age of 40 years. Males were 128 (63.7%), while females were 73 (36.3%). Marital status indicates that 134 (66.7%) were married, 40(19.9%) were single, widowed were 5(2.5%), separated were 13(6.5%), and those who did not answer that item were 2 (1.0%). Educational qualification revealed that those participants with Doctoral degrees were 30(39.8%), Master's degrees were 84 (41.8%), first degrees were 21 (10.4%), and Professors were 16 (8.0%). Ranking revealed that senior lecturers were 102 (50.7%), junior lecturers were 97 (48.3%), while 2 (1.0%) failed to indicate their rank.

Sampling

Due to the nature of the participants, the accidental sampling technique which is a type of non-probability sampling was used to recruit participants to the study. This choice was informed due to the unique nature of the population who are University lecturers.

Instruments

Two instruments were used to collect data for the study, these are; Teaching Anxiety Inventory (TAI) and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Scale (TSES). These are all standardized instruments developed by Kenny and Osborne, (2006) and Schwarzer, Schmitz, & Daytner (1999) respectively. The TAI is a 27 item questionnaire which has a cronbach alpha of .73, while TSES is a 10-item scale with a cronbach alpha of .77.

Data Analysis

Data for this study were analyzed using

independent t-test to determine mean differences between male and female, while regression analysis were used to test the influence of work experience and self-efficacy on teaching anxiety using SPSS version 20. Also simple percentages and descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviation were used in analyzing demographic data.

RESULTS

Table 1: Difference between male and female lecturers on teaching anxiety

Variable	Gender	N	M	SD	df	t	P
Teaching Anxiety	Male	121	66.1405	14.34823	183	.452	.061
	Female	64	65.1719	12.90325			

The result in table 1 indicate that there was no significant difference between male and female lecturers on teaching anxiety (t(183)=.452, P>.05). This means that

gender is not a determinant of teaching anxiety among University academic staff. Thus the research hypothesis is rejected.

Table 2: Influence of work experience on teaching anxiety among academic staff of BSU, Makurdi

Variable	R	R ²	F	β	t	P
Constant	.212	.045	8.484		41.719	.000
Work experience				-.212	-2.913	.004

Table 2 reveals that work experience significantly predicts teaching anxiety among academic staff of BSU, Makurdi

(R=.212 and R²= .045 F(1,181) =8.484, <.05). Thus the research hypothesis is therefore accepted.

Table 3: Influence of Self-Efficacy on teaching anxiety among academic staff of BSU, Makurdi

Variable	R	R ²	F	β	t	P
Constant	.254	.065	12.479		17.452	.000
Self-efficacy				-.254	-3.533	.001

Table 3 indicates that self-efficacy ($R^2 = .065, F(1,181) = 12.479, P < .05$). Thus, significantly predicts teaching anxiety among staff of BSU, Makurdi $R = .254$ and the research hypothesis is therefore accepted.

Table 4: Joint influence of gender, work experience and self-efficacy on teaching anxiety of academic staff of BSU, Makurdi.

Variable	R	R ²	F	β	t	p
Constant	.352	.124	8.365		15.004	.000
Gender				-.33	-.460	.646
Work exp.				-.253	-3.405	.001
Self-efficacy				-.179	-2.400	.015

Table 4 above reveals that gender has independent contribution (33%), work experience contributed (25%) and self-efficacy has (17.9%) contribution to the prediction of teaching anxiety.

DISCUSSION

Having tested all the hypotheses, the result of the first hypothesis showed that there was no significant sex difference in the lecturer's teaching anxiety. This means that both male and female lecturers do not differ in any significant way on teaching anxiety, the implication of this result is that, both male and female lecturers do not experience unnecessary fear, tension and confusion while teaching their students. So, teaching

anxiety across sexes should not be born out of a cultural belief that females are weaker than males, so should go for less difficult tasks than males. This is because; attitude could subject females to believe that teaching/lecturing is a man's thing while women settle for clerical jobs. This finding contradicts a study by Casey, Nuttal, and Pezaris (2001) who found sex differences in teaching anxiety and performance in the classroom. According to these scholars, compared to men, women lacked confidence and had debilitating causal attribution patterns, perceived teaching as a male domain and were anxious about teaching. However, this finding is in line with (Farooq and Shah 2008), who also

found no significant difference in teachers' anxiety in teaching, since it is likely to depend on attitude towards subject. Therefore, this result clearly points out that sex difference is not a determining factor of teaching anxiety among University lecturers.

Hypothesis two found that there is a significant influence of work experience on teaching anxiety. This finding is true because experience is a great teacher as lecturers who probably stay long on their jobs tend to gradually learn over the years how to overcome tension when teaching, unlike the inexperienced teachers who are jittery, tensed up and confused when delivering lectures to students. This result is similar to the research outcome by Ameen, Guffey and Jackson (2002) who on the investigation of prevalence and severity of teaching anxiety among (333) accounting lecturers from over 600 different college institutions revealed that, over 80% of the respondents have experienced teaching anxiety, a majority having dealt with it on a perpetual basis. The most commonly reported triggers of anxiety were insufficient preparation and lack of familiarity with course content. Moreover, personal characteristics such as age and rank emerged as negative correlates of teaching anxiety. Therefore, this reveals that continuous teaching is likely to reduce teaching anxiety among university lecturers.

Hypothesis three found a significant influence of self-efficacy on teaching anxiety. This implies that self-efficacy predicts teaching anxiety. This further means that university teachers with low self-efficacy lack confidence and doubt their abilities to teach effectively; hence they become tensed up and confused in the presence of students. This category of lecturers suffer inferiority complex. On the other hand, lecturers with high self-efficacy have high level of confidence and so believe in their abilities to teach effectively and therefore are less vulnerable to teaching anxiety. This result tallies with the finding of Rashid, Saleh, Mohamed Salleh & Al-Ghafri (2011), who examined two hypothesized models in which teachers' efficacy beliefs are predicted by teaching attitudes and teaching anxiety. Attitudes and anxiety, as predictors, interchanged the role of being exogenous variable in the two suggested models. Results derived from pre-service teachers showed moderate relationships among the three variables with the strongest relationship reported between teaching anxiety and efficacy beliefs. These scholars maintained that teachers with high self-efficacy belief tend to be less vulnerable to teaching anxiety than teachers with low self-efficacy. Therefore, it is clear from this result that, self-efficacy significantly influences anxiety level among university lecturers and therefore, determines effective teaching.

Hypothesis four was tested and it was found that there was a significant joint influence of gender, work experience and self-efficacy on teaching anxiety. This by implication means that psycho-social factors like gender, work experience and self-efficacy are the determinants of teaching anxiety and should be given due consideration in the teaching profession.

Conclusion/Recommendations

Based on the results, it was concluded that gender does not predict teaching anxiety whereas work experience and teachers' self-efficacy are predictors of teaching anxiety. The result further revealed that gender, work experience and self-efficacy jointly predict teaching anxiety.

Therefore, it was recommended that firstly, University lecturers should always make intense and advance preparations before going to teach to avoid undue anxiety resulting from lack of self-efficacy.

Secondly, it is recommended that mentorship should be greatly encouraged and adopted in universities, especially for the post graduate students. This will help to equip young lecturers to come into the university system with advance knowledge on how to teach and interact with students appropriately. This will help to heighten their self-efficacy and add to years of experience.

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THE RELATIVE ROLES OF PERSONALITY TRAITS ON PREVENTIVE HEALTH BEHAVIOUR AMONG LAGOS STATE RESIDENTS

Damilola Fisayo Owolabi¹, Opeyemi Segun-Martins²,
Oluyinka Ojedokun³

^{1,2&3} Department of Pure and Applied Psychology, Faculty of Social and Management Sciences, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria.

Owolabi Damilola F, (Correspondence)
Department of Pure and Applied Psychology,
Faculty of Social and Management Sciences,
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria.
E-mail: damilolafizy@gmail.com,
Phone: +2347066416566,

Abstract

This study investigated the relative roles of personality traits on the preventive health behaviour of Lagos State residents in Nigeria. The study adopted a correlational design to seek the extent of relationship between personality traits and preventive health behaviour. The participants were drawn from Lagos, a mega city in Nigeria. Using purposive sampling technique, 290 participants (156 males and 134 females) who were known to have a minimum of secondary school education and are 21 years and above completed the questionnaire measuring personality traits and preventive health behaviour. Results showed that personality traits did not determine preventive health behaviour. That is, irrespective of personality traits, residents of Lagos are conscious of their health and engage in the preventive health practices. Since there has not been evidence that preventable illnesses or diseases are absent in Nigerian cities, the study therefore justifies that behavioural tendencies to practice preventive health behaviours are not only determined by personality traits but other environmental factors.

Keywords: Preventive health, Health behaviour, Personality traits, Lagos residents

INTRODUCTION

Among other health behaviours, Preventive Health Behaviour (PHB) is thought to be more favourable and beneficial to the individual and cost-effective to the government of any nation. Thoughtfully, PHB involves prevention and early detection of illnesses and diseases as opposed to incurred costs in curbing the outbreak of diseases especially those that are non-communicable. An estimate of 55 million deaths in 2011 resulting from non-communicable diseases including cancer, diabetics, and chronic cardiovascular and lung diseases was reported (World Health Organization, 2010). Apart from that, developing countries face multiple health challenges (Dupas, 2011) of which Nigeria as a developing country cannot be exempted. But, the intervention of agencies and organizations that hold much value about human health is expected to increase the occurrence of the preventive behaviours.

Preventive health behaviour is defined as “any activity undertaken by an individual who believes himself to be healthy for the purpose of preventive or detecting illness in an asymptomatic stage (Kasl & Cobb, 1966). Distinguished from the other two health behaviours; illness behaviour and sick-role behaviour that occur in response to specific symptoms or illness. As the first definition of preventive health behaviour, the definition conceptualised preventive health behaviour (PHB) to having cognitive

undertones, and performed for the purpose of protection against illness or identification of any quantity of illness that could creep into the body.

Additionally, (Langlie, 1977) defined preventive health behaviour as any medically recommended action voluntarily undertaken by a person who believes himself to be healthy, that tends to prevent diseases or disability and for disease detection in an asymptomatic stage while (Harris&Gutten, 1979) defined the concept as any behaviour performed by a person regardless of his or her perceived or actual health status in order to protect, promote or maintain his or her health, whether or not such behaviour is objectively effective towards that end.

Overall, preventive health behaviour is conceived as any medically recommended action, which implies that preventive health behaviours may be voluntarily adopted or medically recommended but has same ultimate goal of prevention or early detection of illness before the symptoms are present. Alternatively, PHB may also be any behaviour that are performed to promote or maintain health from the perspective (Harris&Gutten, 1979). Further, many studies have synonymously expressed their idea of PHB as health-promoting behaviour, health-enhancing behaviour, health-care behaviour and protective health behaviour. Also, some studies have researched on singular practice of PHB such as self-breast examination, dietary

control, weight control, regular exercise, vaccination, compliance to medical instructions, drinking of purified water, practice of safe sex, hygienic environment and so on, all to ensure prevention or early detection of illness.

Wheeler and Rundall (1980) distinguished between primary preventive health behaviour and secondary preventive health behaviour. Primary preventive health behaviour occurs when people engage in activities which may have positive influences on their health and refrain from engaging in activities which may have negative influences. Secondary preventive health behaviour on the other hand occurs when people have their health status professionally monitored so that deleterious changes can be detected and treated as soon as possible. In essence, primary preventive health behaviour is concerned with the prevention before the onset of disease while secondary preventive health behaviour is majorly concerned with prevention through medical recommendation. In view of this, preventive health behaviour may be defined as any anticipatory effort deliberately chosen or medically recommended to prevent, detect or control deleterious effect of illness or diseases in an asymptomatic stage.

Practically, there are expectations that there would be considerable practice of preventive behaviours especially in cities

including that of developing countries owing to industrialisation, standard of living and a reasonable degree of knowledge as against those in the rural areas. For instance Werner (2005) asserts that health-related preventive behaviour is influenced by knowledge. But in the real sense, these features that seem to be advantage of the cities may not be enough reason why Lagos residents in Nigeria may opt for the behaviour but, there may be other underlying factors as there has not been documented evidence that preventable illnesses or diseases are absent in Nigerian cities.

Among many factors that are likely to contradict expectations of intention to perform preventive health behaviour is individual differences. For example, it was reported that most communicable diseases can be prevented because they are a result of individual health behaviours (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014). Also, people know they should follow few preventive health behaviours to prevent serious future problems but still do not adopt them (Werle, 2011). This shows that humans react to situations differently no matter how beneficial or appealing the behaviour might appear. One notable way to understand individual differences is through personality traits.

Personality is an enduring and unique cluster of characteristics that may change in response to different situations (Schultz &

Schultz, 2005). This implies that certain traits are subsumed as personality and these traits are capable of influencing our behaviour in a varying manner irrespective of the consequences of the behaviour.

In the study of health behaviour, personality traits have been identified as one of the best psychosocial predictors of both general health status and specific outcomes (Hampson, 2012). However, neuroticism and conscientiousness were reported to be more strongly connected with more preventive health behaviours and less risky behaviours (Bogg & Roberts, 2012; Hampson, 2012; Hill & Roberts, 2011, Raynor & Levine, 2009). Further, personality traits represent tendencies to manifest particular patterns of cognitions, emotions, motivations and behaviour (John, Robins & Pervin, 2008). Among the many conceptualisations of personality is the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality by Costa and McCrae (1992) regarded as a widely used framework for studying the associations between personality and health (Chapman, Roberts & Duberstein, 2011). The FFM describes personality traits as having five dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and agreeableness.

Being neurotic predisposes individuals to experience negative emotions, to view the world pessimistically and to interpret various stimuli as threatening (Costa &

McCrae, 1992). Hence, individuals high in neuroticism are at greater risk for developing illness and have shorter life spans (Hampson, 2012; Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi, & Goldberg, 2007). Possibly, neurotics are more prone to illness because their negative emotions and negative thoughts may lead to continuous experience of panic attack, an unhealthy state. However, some have argued that high levels of neuroticism can benefit health under certain circumstances (Friedman, 2000). This assertion possibly holds in that the negative emotions and pessimistic thought may stir the need to practice activities that prevent illness and avoid risky health behaviours. However, most studies contended that healthy neuroticism may arise when paired with high level of conscientiousness (Friedman, 2000; Terracciano & Costa, 2004; Turiano, Whiteman, Hampson, Roberts, & Mroczek, 2012; Vollrath & Torgersen, 2002).

Extraversion describes people that are sociable, talkative, fun-loving and affectionate (Schultz & Schultz, 2005). With these characteristics, people high on extraversion seek to implement health behaviours that are associated with positive rewards such as physical activity and increased fruit intake (DeBrujin, Kremers, Van Mechelen, & Brug, 2005). On the contrary, people high on extraversion may perceive themselves to be less vulnerable and may be reckless in health decisions (Gruber, Mauss, & Tamir, 2011) probably

due to their high level of sociability, love to catch fun, less anxiety about health and less attention to deleterious changes in their health.

Conscientious individuals are described as dutiful, plan-oriented, goal oriented and orderly in the implementation of their actions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Individuals high in conscientiousness experience better health, as they live longer and are at a lower risk for a variety of illnesses (Chapman, et al., 2011; Kern & Friedman, 2008). Possibly, the quality of orderliness in conscientious individuals guides their action and channels them to course of actions that will help actualise their goals. The insinuation is that illness or diseases that can hamper their goal in life are brought to the barest minimum. For instance, Bogg and Roberts (2012) reported positive association of conscientiousness with preventive health behaviours and few risky health behaviours. Most studies have positively linked conscientiousness and health outcomes giving a positive impression unlike neuroticism with two sides.

Costa and McCrae (1992) described openness to experience as the extent to which an individual is intelligent, curious and a proclivity for various new experiences. In other words, people high in openness desires to acquire knowledge and seek opportunity for new experiences including preventive health practices, but

Woods and Hampson (2010) viewed them as non-conformist. Roberti (2004) described people high in openness as sensation seekers who tend to adopt unhealthy behaviours such as substance use. Similarly, Armon and Toker (2012) reported negative associations with health-promoting behaviours. On the contrary, individuals with this trait are “experience seekers” that might be more proactive in seeking out information that might serve as an advantage in managing their health (Iwasa, Masui, Gondo, Yoshida, Inagaki, Kawaai, Kim, Yoshida and Suzuki, 2009).

Agreeableness refers to a composite of several lower-order traits related to maintaining interpersonal harmony: trust, honesty, compliance, interpersonal deference, and altruism with a preference for cooperation. (Costa & McCrae, 1992). High agreeable personality demonstrates compliance and trust (Costa & McCrae, 1992), a good indication that they might be compliant with health-promoting behaviours, and predisposed to follow suggested health guidelines (Armon & Toker, 2012). As a compliant person, they may compare their health behaviours with the social context to determine their course of health action. Thus, agreeableness may lead to a variety of responses (Armon & Toker, 2012).

The role of personality traits in health issues identified by previous studies is a guide to investigate the extent of associations and

predictive tendencies of personality traits on preventive health behaviour among residents of a cosmopolitan state like the city of Lagos. From the ongoing, studies linking personality and preventive health behaviour has been investigated but the focus of this study is to investigate the phenomena among residents of Lagos bearing in mind the characteristics of cities such as industrialization, large population, increased social activities, knowledge and literacy, busy and hustling nature. Against this background, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relative roles of personality traits in predicting preventive health behaviour among city dwellers.

The findings of this study would complement previous literature on the role of personality traits on PHB, provide the link between the phenomena from the perspective of characteristic location, increase knowledge of patient attitude to health habits and affect health policy in developing countries like Nigeria.

Hypotheses

Based on the reviewed studies, it was hypothesised that personality traits will have significant independent and joint influence on preventive health behaviour among residents of Lagos, Nigeria.

METHOD

Design

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design in order to collect data on personality

traits and to find out the extent to which residents of Lagos engaged in preventive health behaviours. Also, the extent and direction of the relationship was investigated using this method.

Participants

Two hundred and ninety participants (290), 156 males (53.8%) and 134 females (46.2%) from different forms of occupation residing in Lagos participated in this study. Their level of education include: post-graduate (19%), first degree/ HND (79%) and secondary school education (9.3%). They were recruited from public areas such as place of worship, and their offices. The minimum age of the participants was 21 years (Mean= 27.70, SD= 4.97).

Instruments

Big Five Inventory (BFI-10) by Rammstedt and John (2007) was used to assess the participants' personality traits (Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness to experience). The instrument was a 10-item short version of the BFI rated on 5-point Likert scale from 1= disagree strongly to 5= agree strongly. Selecting 2 BFI items for each Big Five dimension, the test-retest correlation in United States was .72, .75 in Germany and .75 overall (Rammstedt & John, 2007). The first five items were opposite of the last five. For example on extraversion, "I see myself as someone that is reserved" was reversed-scored while "I see myself as someone that

is outgoing, sociable” was directly scored as stated by the inventors.

Preventive Health Care Scale developed by Jayanti and Burns (1997) was used to measure preventive health behaviour. It was a 17-item Scale rated on a 3-point scale ranging from 1= always to 3= never. The scale seeks to inquire how often participants undertake preventive health activities such as paying attention to sugar intake, eat fresh fruits and vegetables. The reliability of the scale ranged from .71 to .91 (Jayanti & Burns, 1998). High scores on the scale indicate high level of preventive health behaviours.

Procedure

The participants were drawn from different settings of the city of Lagos where we solicited for their consent before the administration of the questionnaires. A total

of 344 questionnaires containing six sections were distributed and only 290 were recovered yielding a response rate of 84.3 % and 287 was found usable. The participants were cautioned not to indicate on the questionnaire any information that could disclose their identity. Also, the recovered questionnaires were not sorted based on any of the demographic variables. This is to ensure that the responses are treated anonymously and guarantee confidentiality of responses.

Data Analysis

The data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 20). The inter-variable correlations was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation while multiple regression analysis was used to test the roles of personality traits on preventive health behaviour. Statistical significance of predictive relationship was set at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Table 1 Summary of Mean, Standard deviation and Inter-variable Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	N=287
Neuroticism	5.18	1.84	1						
Extraversion	5.81	4.97	.068	1					
Conscientiousness	7.91	1.62	.158**	.098	1				
Openness	6.77	1.83	.108**	.091	.151**	1			
Agreeable	7.94	1.70	.239**	-.036	.284**	.080	1		
6. PHB	27.68	1.46	.073	.069	-.087	.080	.001	1	

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level of significance

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level of significance

The table revealed that neuroticism [$r(287) = .073, p > .05$], extraversion [$r(287) = .069, p > .05$], conscientiousness [$r(287) = -.087, p > .05$], openness [$r(287) = .080, p > .05$] and agreeableness [$r(287) = .001, p > .05$] had no significant relationship with preventive health behaviour.

Table 2: Summary of Multiple Linear Regression of Personality Factors on Preventive Health Behaviour

Source	Beta	t	R	R ²	F	p
Extraversion	.081	1.45				
Agreeableness	.040	.64				
Conscientiousness	.114	-1.82	.165	.027	1.58	>.05
Neuroticism	.048	.785				
Openness	.097	1.60				

The result revealed that the personality traits did not independently determine preventive health behaviour (Extraversion ($\beta = .08, p > .05$), agreeableness ($\beta = .04, p > .05$), conscientiousness ($\beta = .11, p > .05$), neuroticism ($\beta = .04, p > .05$) and openness ($\beta = .09, p > .05$)). This was such that a personality trait does not determine the decision to practice preventive health behaviours.

The result in Table 2 also indicated that personality traits did not jointly determine preventive health behaviour [$R = .165, R^2 = 0.27, F = 1.58, p > .05$]. This implies that personality traits do not always determine preventive health practices rather, people would engage in preventive health practices

irrespective of their personality.

DISCUSSION

This study investigated the role of personality traits in predicting preventive health behaviour of Lagos State residents and found personality traits not to have correlational or predictive relationship with preventive health behaviours contrary to previous reports. Neuroticism and conscientiousness that were identified as the most personality traits predicting health behaviours (Hampson, 2012; Bogg & Roberts, 2004; Hill & Roberts, 2011) were not confirmed. Although there was relationship between neuroticism and conscientiousness, the healthy neurotic (Friedman, 2000; Turiano et al., 2013) but

there was no predictive report on preventive health practices in this study. Basic qualities of neurotics as anxious, guilt-prone, low confidence may override their conscientious trait such that they may become irresponsible, careless and distractible. In other words, such personality combination are not likely to take responsibility for their health, and even when the preventive practice is medically recommended they may not acknowledge viable reasons to adopt the behaviour. Also, agreeableness and openness to experience has been linked with negative health behaviours (Armon & Toker, 2012), a support for the findings of this study. On the contrary, openness may also demonstrate advantageous health practices (Iwasa et al., 2009) while agreeableness may lead to variety of responses (Armon & Toker, 2012). Extraversion was linked with health implementation (De brujin et al., 2005) but they may also be vulnerable to reckless health decisions (Gruber et al., 2011) which is similar to the findings in this study.

Subsequently, contrary findings here may result from our own method of holistic personality investigation on preventive health practices as most studies embark on individual investigations of the personality traits. Also, the context of investigation may be another contributing factor to the differences in this study and previous ones. Notably, most related research on this study in cities are few. In other words, the characteristics of the location

(industrialization) and characteristics of the city dwellers (literacy, knowledge and information) may be the confounding factors in the result. For example, 79% of the study participants have first degree/ Higher National Diploma. Additionally, personality of the individuals may be mediated by other health-related variables particularly, cognitive processes and more health-related psychosocial variables. For example, (Wolf, Gazmararian, Baker, 2005) noted the role of health-literacy while (Ademola & Brieger, 2007) reported the role of self-efficacy in the practice of safe sex in rural south-western Nigeria.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study begins with the use of the 10-item short version of the BFI and the correlational design. The short item version of the personality traits may not fully describe the personality of the city dwellers. Hence, future studies should endeavour to use the 44-item Big Five Personality Inventory. Also, further studies are advised to make comparisons on location context so as to control for the confounding influence of the characteristics of city dwellers.

Conclusion

Despite the findings and limitations of this study, the result indicates that Lagos residents engage in preventive health practices irrespective of their personality traits. Specifically, the study provided an exceptional understanding of health

behaviour outcomes on contextual basis even when previous studies justifies the link between personality traits and health behaviour. Furthermore, the rationale for this finding may prove questionable, to clear all doubts we may get a clearer picture from the scenario of the 2014 Ebola outbreak in the major city of Nigeria, Lagos where within a short time the pandemic disease was thrown out of place.

Also, the findings of this study are beneficial to health care studies. Behavioural tendencies to practice preventive health behaviours are not only determined by personality traits. As the study has attempted to throw light on other underlying possible causes resulting from environmental factors, it is recommended that further research should examine the role of information, health-knowledge, health-awareness and environmental factors.

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**INFLUENCE OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE NIGERIA POLICE
FORCE AND CRIME CONTROL IN MAKURDI METROPOLIS,
BENUE STATE**

by

Edward Kuruku

Department of Psychology,
Benue State University, Makurdi.

E-mail: edwardkuruku@gmail.com, Phone: 08036861756

Abstract

The study investigated the influence of public attitude towards the Nigeria police force and crime control in Makurdi metropolis, the Benue State Capital. There had been the problem of attitude between the Nigeria police and the general public on issues of human right, brutality, detention without trial, hostility of the police, accidental discharge and other unlawful behaviours on the part of the police, and this has alienated the police from the public instead of cooperation. The specific objectives of the study were to investigate the influence of public attitude towards the police and crime control, examine gender difference in public attitude towards the police and finally to determine the influence of age on public attitude towards the police in Makurdi metropolis. The study adopted a cross-sectional design and purposive sampling technique in collecting data for the study. A total of 200 police personnel and civilians drawn from Makurdi Metropolis were randomly selected for the study. Data was collected using the public attitude towards the police scale to measure public attitude towards the police force. Also used was the crime control Questionnaire. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested. The result for hypothesis one which states that, there will be a significant influence of public attitude towards the police and crime control was confirmed. The second hypothesis which states that, there will be significant gender difference in public attitude towards the police was not confirmed. Lastly, the hypothesis which states that, there will be significant age influence in public attitude towards the police was not confirmed. Finally, the study recommends measures that will address issues bothering on public attitudes towards the Nigerian police, which have direct influence on crime control and safety of the society.

Keywords: Influence, Public, Attitude, Nigeria Police force, Crime Control

INTRODUCTION

All over the world, the importance and relevance of the public institution as the Nation's number one law enforcement have been acknowledged (Aver, 2014). The acknowledgment is predicted on the need to secure society's interests in terms of rights, duties and obligations which are the different ways of the contractual nature of human society.

The society of any nation is a beacon of hope and pride at any point in time, they owe the duty to protect the citizenry in all ramifications in the society, different interests arise in the process of attaining political, economic social and cultural goals. Also, challenges do arise in the course of achieving these aims. The African culture generally puts premium value on the existence of law and order, the absence of which tends to threaten the stability of the society.

In a society in which citizens see crime as an immediate threat to the wellbeing of the people. The police play the most viable and strategic role in the control of crime and preservation of peace in a fashion that the constitutional rights of the individuals are not undermined (Adesina, 2003).

In contemporary Nigeria, the police constitute an enviable institution in the minds of the people in terms of management of social problems such as rising crime rate, civil disturbance, riots,

students' demonstrations terrorism and insurgency among others (Black, 2011). The unenviable trend is the way and manner members of the public relate with the police as such denying them information that would aid in crime control and prevention in contemporary society.

The state of the police force continued to be a reflection of the social consciousness of Nigerians unfortunately, the police, public relations has been neglected, what obtains is mutual distrust, suspicion and conflict, rather than cooperation.

The police cannot succeed in law enforcement without having good relationships with the community in which they dwell (Ekpimah, 2013) which explains the call for community policing across the nation. The police is established for the detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals, (Kuwe, 2014). They protect lives and properties of citizens in the course of their duties. They also maintain and enforce law and order, rules and regulations. They also go to the extent of performing military duties like peace-keeping operations around the world, if so requested by the Head of State and Commander in-Chief of the Armed Forces in times of war (Ogundipe & Ibobor, 2003).

In performing these duties there exist a huge gap between the police and the public on how the public wants to be policed and how the police want to police the public

(Alemika, 2000).

This often results to conflicts that adversely affect the freedom of a large proportion of population. The hostility between the public and the police often occurs at check points and police stations where they demand and receive bribes from members of the public with resultant public outcry and condemnations of the police in the country (Alemika, 2000).

Wide spread extortion, incivility intimidation and harassment could be found at several quotas, corruption and brutality have eroded the public cooperation that would have enhanced police efficiency and performance (Aver, 2014). There is no mutual relationship between the police and members of the public as such denying the police sensitive information that would lead to crime reduction and control (Alemika, 2000). It is against this backdrop that this work will avail police public relationship as antidote to crime control in contemporary society.

Brief History of the Nigeria Police Force

The Nigeria police force began with thirty-member consular guard formed in Lagos colony in 1861. In 1879, a 1,200 member armed paramilitary Hausa constabulary was formed in Calabar under the newly proclaimed Niger Coast protectorates. In the North, the Royal Company set up the Royal Niger Company Constabulary in 1888 with headquarters at Lokoja.

When the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria were proclaimed in the early 1900, part of the Royal Niger Company Constabulary became the Northern Nigeria Police and part of the Royal Niger Coast Constabulary became the Southern Nigeria, but their police forces were not merged, until 1930, forming the Nigeria Police Force with headquarters in Lagos.

During the colonial periods, most police were associated with local governments (Native authority). In the 1960s, under the first Republic, these forces were regionalized and then nationalized. The Nigerian police force performed conventional police functions and was responsible for internal security generally; for supporting the prison, immigration and custom services and for performing military duties both within and outside Nigeria as was directed by the president. Plans were announced in mid-1980 to expand the force to 200,000 members. By 1983, according to the Federal budget, the strength of the Nigeria police force was almost 152,000 but other sources estimated to be between 20,000 and 80,000 reportedly there were more than 1,300 police stations nationwide. Police officers were not usually armed but were issued weapons when required for specific missions or circumstances. They were often deployed throughout the country, but in 1989, Gen. Babangida announced that, the larger number of officers would be posted to their native

areas to facilitate police-community relations.

The Nigeria police force is designated by section 194 of the 1979 constitution as the national police of Nigeria with exclusive jurisdiction throughout the country. Constitutional provisions also exist however, for the establishment of separate Nigeria police forces of the Federation or for their protection of harbours, waterways, railways and airfields. One such branch the port security police was reported by different sources to have a strength in 1990 of between 1,500 and 12,000.

Moreover, the Nigeria police force maintains a three-tier administrative structure of department, zonal and state commands. The Nigeria police force was under the general operational and administrative control of an inspector General (IGP) appointed by the president and responsible for the maintenance of law and order. He was supported at headquarters in Lagos by a Deputy Inspector-General (DIG) and in each state by police commissioners.

The 1979 constitution provided for a police service commission that was responsible for Nigeria police force; policy, organization, administration and finance. In February 1980 Babangida abolished the police service commission and established the Nigeria police Council instead, under direct presidential control. The new council

was chaired by the president, the Chief of General Staff, the Minister of Internal Affairs and the Police Inspector General were members. As part of the government reorganization in September 1990, Alhaji Ismaila Gwarzo, former SSS Director-General was named to head the new post of minister of state police affairs. In late 1986, the Nigeria police force was reorganized nationwide into seven area commands which superseded a command structure corresponding to each of the states of Nigeria. Each command was under a commissioner of police and was further divided into police divisions. Nigeria police force headquarters which was also an area command supervised and coordinated the other area commands. Later, these commands were, grouped under zonal commands as follows:

- (a) Zone 1 Headquarters, Kano with Katsina and Jigawa Commands.
- (b) Zone 2 Headquarters Lagos with Lagos and Ogun Command.
- (c) Zone 3, Headquarters Yola with Adamawa, and Gombe Commands.

In mid-1989, the Nigeria police force was reorganized after the Armed Forces Ruling Council (AFRC)'s acceptance of a report by Rear Admiral Murtala Nyako. In 1989, the Nigeria police force also created a quick intervention force in each state, separate from the mobile police units, specifically to monitor political event and to quell unrest during the transition to civil rule. Each state unit command of between 160 and 400

police personnel were commanded by an assistant superintendent of police, equipped with vehicles, communications gear, weapons and crowd control equipment, including cane shields, batons and tear gas.

The directorate of operations was subdivided into four units under a deputy director operations, training, communications and the mobile police. The directorate of administration was composed of an administration unit headed by an Assistant Inspector General of Police (A.G) and of budget and personnel units are under the commissioners.

The directorate of logistics had four units: procurement, workshop, transport supply and work/maintenance was under the Inspector General of Police.

The zonal arrangements were retained, however, AIGs were authorized to transfer officers up to the rank of chief superintendent, to set up provost units to deploy mobile units and to promote officers between the ranks of sergeant and inspector. The above three directorates were renamed Departments. The Department of Criminal investigation (DCI) is the highest criminal investigation arm of the Nigeria police force. The Department is headed by a DIG. The primary functions of the unit include investigation and prosecution of serious and complex cases within and outside the country. The Department also coordinates crime investigation throughout Nigeria.

Scope of the Study

The research covers the broad operational outlook of the Nigeria police force and challenges facing them. It specifically looks at the operational setting of the police officers and men in police command, in the area of crime control. The study assesses the police force in the performance of its duties as stipulated in the constitution and other enabling laws.

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

The word "public" in English and in Latin refers to "Populous" or "populaces" in general denotes some mass population ("The people") in association with some matters of common interest. So in political science and history, a public is a population of individuals in association with civil affairs or state. In social psychology, marketing and public relations, a public has a more situational definition. Dewey (1927) looks at public as a group of people who in facing a similar problem, recognize and organize themselves to address it. Public is hence a group of individual people, and the entire population according to psychologist, is an expression of favour or disfavor towards a person, place, thing or events. The manner, disposition, feeling, position and so on with regard to person or thing (Wikipedia, 2012).

The Nigerian police is a constituted body of persons charged with the responsibility of controlling civil disorder among other duties, within a defined legal or territorial

area of responsibility Adebayo and Udegbe (2004). The police as an organ of government that is charged with public safety. According to the police act cap 359 and section 4, laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, charge the police with the responsibility of ensuring civil security. The nature of social reality is so complex that every social phenomena is subjected to various analysis and interpretation depending on which of the theoretical realm, it falls.

Attitude

Attitude refers to a predisposition or a tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain idea, object, person or situation, (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2001). Attitude influences an individual's choice of action and responses to challenges, incentives and rewards together called stimuli, (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2001).

Four major components of attitudes are (1) Affective; emotional or feelings (2) Cognitive; belief or opinions held consciously (3) Conative; Inclination for action (4) Evaluative; positive or negative response to stimuli.

Groups who feel less favourable towards the police or local law enforcement are less certain, they would report crime to the police. The attitude of the public according to Odinkalu (2004), has significant effect towards crime control and public order by

the police. This is because the public sees the police as institution and face of the government in power that is always ready to unleash terror at the slightest opportunity.

Hence they are held in low regard and do not enjoy the habitual cooperation of the public. To Alemika (2003), the public perception of the police is not shaped by the kind of job they are called to do but by the attitude of the personnel. Their roles in many cases denigrated the law, endangering the citizens and blotting the institutional reputation of the police that they represent.

The police no doubt know that they are not liked by the public, despite the fact that they risk their lives to protect them. At the slightest opportunity, they are booed and geared at by the public, calling them derogatory and disgusting names. This dislike or resentment of the police apparently has created serious problems for the police/public relations and public perception of the police on crime prevention and control Odinkalu, (2004).

Benjamin (2001) pointed out that the police have not been useful nor helpful in promoting its image before the general public as there are many cases of murder, assassination and robbery which take place in the society that have lasted for two or more years without the police identifying the culprits, talk less of arresting and prosecuting such groups or gangs. This failure of the police according to Benjamin

(2001) to either apprehend killers of robbery victims and assassins all over the country has apparently reinforced the belief of critics who describe the police as dubious, corrupt, inept and brutal.

The matter is more paradoxical as there have been instances whereby either robbers or assassins kill some police officers, yet it has failed to unfold the factors behind such scenes. Thus, such actions provide fresh evidence to cynics who have argued that if police cannot provide justice, even it posthumously, for one of its own then it has got no business posturing as credible guarantor of public security and well-being of the people (Benjamin, 2001).

Similarly, in 2003, the United States Department of States on Human Rights Practice (2002) indicted the Nigerian police over cases of poor relationship with citizens ranging from forceful arrest, illegal detention, torture to extra-judicial killing of law abiding civilians.

Groups who feel less favourable towards local law enforcement are less certain they would report a crime they witnessed, (Tom et al; 2008). For instance black and Hispanic Americans are more than 20 points less likely than white Americans to say they definitely would report a crime. Research finds that, when the police have legitimacy, the law has legitimacy, which encourages compliance and cooperation, (Tom et al; 2008).

Although some groups have less positive view of the police, survey findings weaken the assertion that these groups are anti-police, (Andrew et al; 2009). For instance few individuals have unfavourable views of law enforcement.

Crime Control

Crime control refers to the method taken to reduce or eradicate crime in the society, (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2003). This include the use of criminal penalties as means of deterring people from committing crimes and temporary or permanently incapacitating those who have already committed crimes from re-offending. Crime prevention is also widely implemented in some countries around the world.

There are many theories in line with this study, however, social conflict theory, General strain theory and rational choice theory are the ones considered for review.

Social Conflict Theory

Social conflict theory is a Marxist based social theory which argues that, individuals and groups (social class) within society have different amount of material resources and non-material resources (such as the wealthy vs the poor) and that the more powerful groups use their power in order to exploit groups with less power. Social conflict theory states that, groups within a capitalist society tend to interact in a destructive way that allows no mutual

benefits and little cooperation. The solution Marxism proposes to this problem is that of workers revolution against the capitalist class with the aim of reorganizing society along the lines of collective ownership and mass democratic control.

Therefore, consider paying rent towards housing, the conflict theories argue that this relationship is unequal and favours the owners. Renters may pay rent for 50 years and still gain absolutely no right or economic interest with the property. It is this type of relationship which the conflict theorist will use to show that social relationships are about power and exploitation. Pudgett (2013) continues "Marxist argued that though a dialectical process, social evolution was directed by the result of class conflict. Marxist argue that human history is all about this conflict, a result of the strong-rich exploiting the poor-weak-from such a perspective, money is made through the exploitation of the worker. It is argued thus, that in order for a factory owner to make money, he must pay his workers less than they deserve social conflict theory produces a discourse that the poor and the weak who are exploited in the society engage themselves in one crime or the other and the police in trying to control crime, favour the rich because of their wealth and power.

Rational Choice Theory

In criminology, the rational choice theory adopts utilitarian beliefs that man is a

reasoning actor who weights means and ends, cost and benefits and makes a rational choice. This approach was designed by Corrish and Clarke (2015) to assist in thinking about situational crime prevention. It is assumed that crime is purposive behaviour designed to meet the offender's common place needs for such things as money, status, sex and excitement, and that meeting these needs involves the making of sometimes rudimentary decisions and choices constrained as these are by limits, ability and the availability of relevant information.

Rational choice is based on numerous assumptions, one of which is individualism. The offender sees himself as an individual. The second is that goals and the third is that individuals are self-interested. Offenders are thinking about themselves and how to advance their personal goals. Central points of the theory are described as follows;

The human being is a rational actor. Rationality involves ends/means calculations, People, freely choose behaviour both conforming and deviant, based on their rational calculations.

The central element of calculation involves a cost benefit analysis, pleasure versus pain or hedonistic calculus. Choice with all other conditions, all things being equal, will be directed towards the maximization of individual pleasure.

Choice can be controlled through the perception and understanding of the potential pain or punishment that will follow an act judged to be in violation of the social good, the social contract. The state is responsible for maintaining order and preserving the common good through a system of laws.

The swiftness, severity and certainty of punishment are key elements in understanding a law's ability to control human behaviour. Rational choice theory postulates that people freely choose criminal behaviour. Choice can be controlled through the perception and understanding of the potential pain or punishment that will follow an act.

The police play a crucial role of controlling crime by punishing the offenders. The attitude of the public according to Odekunle (2004) has significant effect towards crime control and public order by the police. This is so because the public sees the police as an instrument and face of the government in power that is always ready to unleash terror at the slightest opportunity. Hence they are held in low regard and do not enjoy the habitual cooperation of the public.

To Alemika (2003), the public perception of the police is not shaped by the kind of job they are called to do, but by the attitude of the personnel. Their roles in many cases denigrate the law, endangering the citizens and blotting the institutional reputation of

the police that they represent. The police no doubt know that, they are not linked by the public, despite the fact that, they risk their lives to protect them, at the very slightest opportunity they are booed and jeered at by the public calling them derogatory and disgusting name. This dislike or resentment the police apparently have created serious problems for the police/public relations and public perception of the police on crime prevention and control, (Odinkalu, 2004).

Benjamin (2001) pointed out that the police have not been useful nor helpful in promoting its image before the general public as there are many cases of murder, assassination and robbery which take place in the society that have lasted for two or more years without the police identifying the culprits, talk less of arresting and prosecuting such groups. The failure of the police according to Benjamin, (2003) to either apprehend killers of robbery victims and assassins all over the country has apparently reinforced the belief of critics who describe the police as dubious corrupt, inept and brutal. The matter is more paradoxical as there have been instances whereby either robbers or assassins kill some police officers, yet it has failed to unfold the factors behind such scenes. Thus such actions provide fresh evidence to cynics who have argued that if police cannot provide justice even if posthumously for one of its own then it has got no business posturing as credible guarantor of public security and well-being,

(Benjamin, 2001).

Also, in 2003, the U.S Department of States on Human Rights Practice (2002) indicated the Nigeria police over cases of poor relationship with citizens, ranging from forceful arrests, illegal detentions, torture to extra-judicial killings of law-abiding civilians. In addition, the report also revealed that Nigeria police and other security forces allegedly use excessive force to apprehend suspects and quell several incident of ethno-religious violence. The punch (13, November, 2007) reported that the police disrupted anti Obasanjo rally in Kaduna. The paper further stated that, the organizer of the rally, Abiodun Aremu was arrested and quizzed by the police.

Also, the former governor of Kaduna State, Alhaji Balarabe Musa who was chairman of the occasion was prevented from addressing the gathering. This is a glaring evidence of what the US. Department of States rightly stated. Akinkputu (2013), reported that, a police man killed a teenager and others during Christmas party. He further reported that on December 14, 2013, 18 year old Ikenna Onyeizu and 21 year old Moses Aiyenuro who attended a Christmas party at Dele Hotel, Ijora Badia area of Lagos State where they were shot and killed by the police in the course of the party.

Epimah (2013) reported that four people were killed as police, and the community clashed over celebration on Wednesday

December 25, 2013. The report further confirmed that four people from Okoh in Eket Local Government Area, Akwa-Ibom State were killed during the town's annual celebration.

The people blocked the Eket Uyo Road, an attempt by the state security outfit, "Operation Thunder" to disperse the crowd led to the tragedy. The police opened fire into the crowd which four Okon people were stricken by the police bullet and two died instantly while the remaining two were taken to the hospital and died on the way, other people who sustained various degree of injuries resulting from police bullets were receiving treatment in a hospital (Ekpimah, 2013). Although the police public relations officer, Akwa-Ibom police command Mr. Etim Dickson denied the allegations and revealed that none of the victims died from police bullets. He further maintained that two people who died instantly were killed by Okon people who inflicted marched cuts on them. This situation aggravated the youths who marched to Eket police state to burn it down, but their attempt was quashed as the police from the division joined hands to protect the station.

The punch (February, 24, 2005) reported the shooting to death of Suleyol Henkyae in Makurdi by the police. The police alleged that Suleyol and her boy-friend were making love in a moving vehicle. The daily sun (December 20, 2007) also reported that

the police short 15 year old secondary school students in Orile area of Lagos. Moreso, it reported that the police short and the incident attracted a violent mass protest in Mina, Niger State in the course of protest, the angry mob attacked and wounded men of the police force (NTA news Extra, Jan 18, 2008). Situations as these affect police public relations in Nigeria. The problem with the Nigeria police is that, their investigations are always ongoing without ever coming to an end, in this way the public finds it difficult to cooperate with the police. One of the problems of Nigeria police force is that, they are always on top of crime situations without getting down whenever they get to the top of the situation.

The Nigeria police force swears an oath of allegiance to the Federal Republic of Nigeria, to perform the functions of crime detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals to generally create tranquil environment for sustenance of Nigerian society. Unlike many other police forces in the world, the Nigeria police force was intended to be servant of the state, but of the communities they serve. Their powers are personal, used at their own discretion and derived from the crown. This essential feature of Nigerian police force policing by consent is now in jeopardy.

It is evident that no security formation can strive without a good relationship with members of the public. Good police public relations help Nigeria police to overcome

complex of crime problem in the pluralist, society to reach its desired goals and functions of crime detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals. Good police public relations serves to bring police and the public into harmony thereby enabling the public to volunteer information of criminals to the police for proactive policing. The police need to understand the attitudes and values of the public, they serve, in order to achieve their objectives of crime detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals. These processes of crime detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals cannot be complete without the role of information from the key informant. It is these informants that volunteer information to the police on the where about of criminals. The police need to understand the attitudes and values of the community which they relate to in order to illicit information from them (Aver, et al, 2014).

A good rapport and goodwill between the police and the public enable the police to serve the public better and the public also feels better. Black (2011) maintains that under modern conditions, no government organization of any kind can operate successfully without the cooperation of its public. These public may be both at home and overseas, but mutual understanding will be a potential factor for success in every case. The police require knowledge on how the community operates in order to take full advantage of the facilities and

services provided by the police. There is clearly the need for good police public relations to help citizens understand the responsibilities of the Nigerian police in the society.

Good police public relations enables the police to have a better understanding of the public's concerns especially crime related issues and citizens are more inclined to report crime that occur to the police, provide tips and intelligence to the police willingly to service as witness and happily participate in criminal justice system. Incidentally the police also become more proactive, thereby preventing crimes before they occur or minimizing their impact, instead of simply reacting to calls for service from members of the public. Good police public relations prevent the possibility that the public thinking that police are simply a mechanism for intelligence gathering as such denying them vital information that would aid in crime detection, prevention and apprehension of criminals.

Poor police-public relations enables the police to typically lack a basic understanding of public problems, goals, desires and in turn, the public also are denied access to the police especially those in need of the police services, (Odekunle, 2003) they perceive the police as an out of touch force that does more harm than good to the public. In these situations the police rarely assume a reactive mode of response

to public problems. It is evident that the Nigeria Police is highly and visibly subservient to the rich and powerful, even in the rendering of services and as such spoiled their relationship with the public. (Odekunle, 2003).

The Nigeria police have engaged themselves in much brutality on the poor masses (Kunle, 2014). These are hindering the desired public cooperation for instance Kunle (2014) reported that 55 year old Evangelist Bose Basulaye, was dragged on the floor by the special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS) men after asking them about her arrested son and the dragging resulted to the women's paralysis by stroke. The report further added that four months ago, the woman's son was arrested and taken to the Ojodu Police Division, Lagos on the allegation that he stole a tricycle and sold it. 33 year old Joseph indeed stole the tricycle, though he confessed to have stolen the tricycle. The report confirmed that two officers Idoko and Babo Ngama who were aware of the case threatened the woman and asked some police men to drag her on the floor out of the premises after which it resulted to the woman becoming paralyzed by stroke (Kunle, 2014). The situation appears to have significantly deteriorated relationship between the police and the public today. According to Adejo (2002), the level of operational efficiency of any law enforcement agency depends largely on the adequacy of the logistic support provided for it. This is however, not there in

the police force. The former IGP, Mr. Sunday Adewusi; had lamented that, there has always been a beggar waiting for the crumbs.

He suggested that a standard requirements of a police division are: 4 lorries, 6 landovers, 2 salours cars, 4 motor-cycles, wireless set, accommodation, generator, stationary, register, books and forms. In line with this, Agaba (2003) opined that it is not enough to have good police men, they must be sufficient in number. He further maintained that, if our police force were well equipped as it ought to be, its minimum numerical strength should be about 1,000,000, given all other factors which undermine their effectiveness such as ignorance on the part of those who ought to cooperate with the police (Agaba, 2002). Towards the same direction, Danbazau (1989) argues that, the problem of inefficiency of the police is as a result of both corruption and poor condition of service.

The opinion of the scholars stated above is without doubt, the manifesting obstacles in the efficiency of performance of the police in Nigeria today. It is however, worthy of note that in recent time, the number of men and women recruited into the police has increased remarkably due to the monthly recruitment exercise embarked upon by the police. The problems of vehicle and communication gadgets, to some extent have been addressed. Nevertheless it is

apparently true that the police suffer from the hurdles of poor conditions of service and inadequate manpower. (Ekpimah, 2013).

However, in as much as their efficiency and effective performance, where as the public have expressed their dissatisfaction with the role of the police, the various ways through which effectiveness of the police can be enhanced have been stated.

Law enforcement outreach programs; education of citizens about police activities and increase community support for law enforcement and crime prevention. Community-resident are, often uninformed about the services provided by law enforcement agency and about success of apprehension and prevention programmes in the community. This lack of information can lead to apathy or even hostility among residents and law enforcement. Law enforcement agents can bring important information to the public through large community meetings, citizens, academics, small seminars, public classes on police service, printed information and local television or radio talk show.

Ejembi (2015) reported that a nine man kidnap syndicate whose stock in trade was to buy and sell babies of unsuspected young ladies are now cooling their heels in the net of the Benue State Police Command. Among the arrested was a lady who sold her two month old baby for a pitted sum of

N14,000 and the parading of the suspected women whose children had been kidnapped at different locations in Benue State in the last two months.

Gender, Age and Public Attitude towards the Police

Gender here refers to the biological and classification attribute of an individual (usually male or female), (Kunle, 2014) while age has to do with one of the stages of life. Gender and age have been viewed by Adebayo and Udegbe (2004) as issues in public perception of the police. According to the researchers, the relationship of gender, age and public perceptions of the police is well documented particularly in Nigeria with studies showing conflicting results. Some studies have found significant differences in gender and age on public perceptions of the police. For instance, Obioha (2004) reported that females consistently exhibit stranger attitudes than their male counterparts. In another survey of gender and age differences of public perception of the police by Jike (2003), it was found that females displayed higher judgment than their male counterparts. In contrast, Onyeozili (2005) in his study found that gender differences are similar.

From the above foregoing facts, the study concluded that the gap between the public and the police has to be bridged. One can run to the police in time of trouble and the police is expected to ensure the peace and security of the public.

METHOD

Design

The study adopted the cross-sectional research design to assess the influence of public attitudes towards the Nigeria Police Force, and crime control in Makurdi metropolis. The study was conducted at two different locations in Makurdi Local Government Area of Benue State. Firstly in the Nigerian Police headquarters and the generality of Makurdi Metropolis.

Participants

A total of two hundred (200) respondents drawn from Makurdi Metropolis took part in the study. Their ages ranged from 18-50 years. This was made up of 105 males while 95 were females.

Instruments

To collect the data for this study, the researcher utilized standardized and validated questionnaire developed by Hiemika, (2001). The questionnaire measure public attitude and crime control. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses in the questionnaire and that, the exercise was purely for research purpose only.

Hypotheses

1. There will be a significant influence of public attitudes towards Nigerian Police on crime control among the people in Makurdi Metropolis.
2. There will be a significant gender

- difference in public attitude towards the Nigerian Police.
3. There will be a significant influence of age on public attitude towards the Nigerian Police.
- the simple linear regression. This statistical tool was chosen because the researcher wanted to determine the influence of public attitude towards the police and crime control among the people in Makurdi metropolis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The statistical tool used for the analysis was \

Table 1: Distribution of Participant by Age

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
18-24	30	15%
25-34	60	30.0%
35-49	70	35.0%
50 and above	40	20.5%
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

Data presented in table 1 above shows that, out of the 200 participants, 29 (14.5%) were between 18-24 years, 60 (30.0%) were aged 25-34, 70 (35.0%) were aged between 35-49, while 40 (20.5%) were aged between the ages of 50 and above.

Table 2: Distribution of Participant by Sex

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Male	105	52.5 %
Female	95	47.5 %
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

The data in the table 2 above shows that, out of the 200 participants, 105 (52.5%) were males, while 95(47.090) were females.

Table 3: Distribution of Participant by Religion

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Christianity	161	80.5 %
Islam	34	17.0 %
Traditional Religion	5	2.5 %
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

The data in the table 3 above shows that 161 (80.5%) of the participants were Christians, 34 (17.0%) were Muslims and 5(2.5%) were traditionalists.

Table 4: Distribution of Participant by Education

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Educated	105	52.5 %
Uneducated	95	47.5 %
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

Table 4 above shows the educational distribution of participants. 105 (52.5%) participants were educated, 95 (47.5%) were uneducated.

Table 5: Categories of participants

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Civilians	100	50.0 %
Police	100	50.0 %
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

The Table 5 above shows the categories of participants. 100 (50.0%) were civilians and 100 (50.0%) were police officers.

Table 6: Distribution of Participant by Rank

Variables	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Constable	31	15.5%
Corporal/Sergeant	51	25.5%
Inspector	61	30.5%
ASP/DSP	57	28.5%
Total	200	100.0%

Source: Field Research 2015.

The data in the table 6 above shows the ranks of the police officers who participated in the study. 31 (15.5%) were constables, 51(25.5%) of the participants were on the rank of corporal/sergeant, 61(30.5%) were of the rank of inspector and 57 (28.5%) were ASP/DSP.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: This hypothesis states that, there will be a significant influence of public attitude towards the police on crime control among the people in Makurdi Metropolis. This hypothesis was tested and the result tabulated below;

Table 7: Summary of scores from regression analysis for the significant influence of public attitude towards police on crime control among the people in Makurdi metropolis.

Variables	R	R ²	β	F	T	P
Constant	.278	.077		16.555	10.395	.000
Public attitude			.278		4.069	.000

Source: Field Research 2015.

The table 7 above is the result of the hypothesis, which stated that, there will be a significant influence of public attitude towards the police on crime control among the public in Makurdi Metropolis. Result shows; R= .278 and R² = .077, F (1,198) = 16.555 P<0.05 with this result, the hypothesis was confirmed, meaning that

public attitude towards the police affect their crime control effort positively or otherwise.

Hypothesis 2: This hypothesis states that, there will be a significant gender difference in public attitude towards the police in Makurdi Metropolis.

Table 8: Summary of result of t-test analysis of gender difference in attitude towards the police among members of the public in Makurdi Metropolis.

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Male	105	36.56195	5.42594	.782	198	.435
Female	95	35.9789	5.11772			

Source: Field Research 2015.

Table 8 above shows that, there is no significant gender difference in public attitude towards the police. t = (198.782 p >0.05). With this result, the hypothesis was not confirmed.

Hypothesis 3: Summary of result of simple linear regression analysis showing the influence of age on public attitude towards the police.

Table 9: Summary of Linear Regression Showing Influence of Age on Public Attitudes towards Nigeria Police

Variables	R	R ²	β	t	F	Sig
Constant	.074	.005		32.789	1.077	.000
Age			.074	1.038		.301

Source: Field Research 2015.

Table 9 above shows that, there is no statistically significant influence of age on public attitudes towards the Nigeria police force ($R = .074$ and $R^2 = .005$, $F = (1,198)$ 1.077 $P > 0.05$). With this result, the hypothesis was not confirmed.

DISCUSSION

The study was aimed at investigating the influence of public attitude towards the Nigeria Police force and crime control, in Makurdi metropolis. Three hypotheses were formulated and the result analyzed and presented.

Hypothesis one states that, there will be a significant influence of public attitudes towards the police and crime control. The result revealed that, public attitude towards the police, significantly influence crime control. This findings collaborates that of Odinkalu (2004) who maintained that, dislike or resentment of the police apparently has created serious problems for the police/public relations and public perception of the police on crime prevention and control. The result also concurs with Odekunle (2004), who found out that public attitude towards the police has significant effect towards crime control and public order by the police.

Hypothesis two, states that, there will be a

significant gender difference in public attitude towards the police in Makurdi Metropolis. The result revealed that there is no statistically significant gender difference in public attitude towards the police in Makurdi Metropolis. This findings is consistent with Jike (2003) , who founded that females displayed higher judgment attitude towards the police than their male counterparts. The result also concurred with Onyeozili (2005) who found that, gender differences are similar.

Finally, the third hypothesis examined the influence of age on public attitude towards the police in Makurdi Metropolis. It was discovered that there is no statistically significant influence of gender on public attitude towards the police in Makurdi metropolis.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The influence of public attitude towards the police and crime control has been conducted, using field data analysis. It was generally discovered that, there is significant influence of public attitudes towards the police and crime control. Also the gender difference in public attitude towards the police was explored; the result revealed no significant influence of gender in public attitudes towards the police and

lastly, it was hypothesized that, there will be a significant influence of age on public attitudes towards the police. The result revealed that, there is no significant influence of age on public attitudes towards the police.

In order to address public attitude towards the Nigerian police, which has a direct influence on crime control, the authority should carry out an awareness campaign about police public relations as an antidote to crime control in contemporary Nigerian society. The enlightenment campaign should enable the general public to see the police as friends indeed that could succeed in the discharge of their duties with public support.

Lastly, in respect to the issue of police shady practice, such as brutality and corruption. They should be made to obey the rules guiding ethical conduct.

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ASSESSMENT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF RETIREES IN MAKURDI METROPOLIS OF BENUE STATE, NIGERIA

Judith Ayangeawam Mase¹, Tertindi Lordsent Tyokyaa²
Mercy Agidike³

^{1, 2 & 3}Department of Psychology,
Benue State University, Makurdi
Nigeria.

Abstract

This study assessed psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis. The cross-sectional survey design was adopted. One hundred and ninety seven (197) retirees were selected using purposive sampling technique. They were 106(53.8%) males and 91(46.2%) females within the age range of 53-71 years, mean age of 60.38(SD = 5.040). The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSS) and Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale (RPWB) were used to measure retirees' self-esteem and psychological well-being respectively. Four hypotheses were formulated and tested using simple linear regression, independent t-test and One-Way ANOVA. The results revealed a significant influence of self-esteem on psychological well-being among retirees. There was a significant gender difference in psychological well-being among retirees. The result however showed no significant difference in levels of educational attainment on psychological well-being among retirees. Finally, it was found that there was a significant influence of duration of retirement on psychological well-being among retirees. It was concluded that self-esteem, gender difference and duration of retirement significantly influence psychological well-being while levels of educational attainment do not. It was recommended that the government and other agencies should make practical attempts within policy framework to help prepare the employees adequately for life after retirement.

Key words: Retirement, retirees, psychological wellbeing, Makurdi metropolis

INTRODUCTION

Being in employment is considered a source of existence and security for many people. Oludwmi and Fashiku (2014) pointed out that in addition to employment being a source of security, it serves as a means of livelihood that makes the individual(s) feel fulfilled, responsible and recognized as a person of worth and integrity who is seen contributing to the growth and development of his community. This understanding is however, threatened in most developing countries and Nigeria in particular, because of the restriction of working age and length of service of public and civil servants. In Nigeria, statutory working age in the public service is fixed at sixty five (65) years of age or thirty five (35) years of unbroken active working service after which comes retirement (Buah, 2011). Abdullahi and Mamman (2014) observed that, this has become so necessary because as a worker becomes older, his marginal physical productivity of labour declines. Thus retaining such a worker in employment at this point will amount to running the organization at a loss.

Retirement as defined by Abdullahi and Mamman (2014) is an inevitable stage of ageing where the individual gradually disengages from the main stream of active work, social work and is eventually replaced with young ones. Oludwmi and Fashiku (2014) on their part see retirement as a transition from the world of work into a world of less rigorous work activity and

rest. In Nigeria, three different forms of retirement are identified as voluntary, compulsory and mandatory retirement (Nwajagu, 2007; Okechukwu & Ugwu, 2011). Voluntary or self retirement occurs when the individual decides to quit active service for personal reason(s) irrespective of age, experience, length of service or retirement policies. This type of retirement depends more on the employee than the employer. Compulsory or forced retirement is a situation in which the individual is forced or compelled to retire against the individual's expectation and when he is ill-prepared for it. It is usually viewed negatively in that it is unplanned (Abdullahi & Mamman, 2014). Okechukwu and Ugwu (2011) identified reasons for compulsory retirement to include inefficiency, old age, ill-health and indiscipline (misconduct). Mandatory or statutory retirement is normal (or expected) in the sense that the person involved has reached the statutory age of retirement as specified in the condition of service of the establishment.

Retirement is an inevitable activity in the lives of workers and therefore, all workers must retire at one point in time or the other for rest from active employment. Unfortunately, the thought of retirement to some workers breeds anxiety, apprehension, and disillusionment attitude (Samuel & Salami, 2010). Taylor, Goldberg, Shore and Lipka (2008) attribute the cause of apprehension and disillusionment attitude of retirees to the

thought of being disconnected from functional discontinuation of their financial source of livelihood and its corresponding decline in social status. Okechukwu and Ugwu (2011) on their part attribute it to the thought of sharp reduction in income of retirees which is further aggravated by delay in payment of pensions and gratuities which are capable of hampering the psychological wellbeing of the retirees.

Psychological well-being involves feeling good which does not only involve positive emotions, contentment and happiness but also interest, engagement, confidence and social relations (Huppert, 2008). It relates to functioning which includes having a goal in life, control, developing one's potentials, and a satisfying social relationship. Notably, the term psychological well-being can be subjective depending on what each individual decides are important in his/her life. According to Huppert (2008), subjective well-being is good living which comprises a combination of feeling good and functioning effectively. Bakare (1996) refers to it as an individual's perception of overall quality of life. Thus, psychological well-being is the sum total of satisfaction that makes life worthwhile for an individual.

Despite the importance of psychological wellbeing to human life, Ode (2005) noted that there is increased incidence of stress on retirees. Buttressing on the above assertion, Tor-Anyiin (2007) observed that retirement

shocks could be traumatic especially for those who have made no preparation for it. He added that some retirees get so frustrated with life to the extent that they develop depressive condition which accelerates their age and at time leads them to early grave. In a similar vein, Denga (1996) pointed that the anxiety of the prospective worker is often heightened and compounded by a lack of security, especially among those who have little to fall back on after retirement. All these could harm the psychological well-being of such retirees.

The effectiveness of a retiree's well-being is mainly determined by the perception of what retirement is to the retiree which may boil down to the gender of individual, the level of educational attainment, self esteem and duration of retirement of the retiree. However, research evidence is very insufficient as regards to how the psychological well-being of a retiree can be affected by these factors. It is in view of the above that this research assessed the psychological well-being of retirees in Makurdi metropolis on the basis of their gender, level of education, self-esteem and duration of retirement.

Psychological Well-being

The term psychological well-being can be subjective depending on what each individual decides are important in his/her life (Moen, 2001). It is a subjective term that means different things to different

people. A typical definition of subjective well-being states that it is about lives going well which comprises a combination of feeling good and functioning effectively (Moen, 2001). It is defined as the individual's own interpretation and evaluation of his/her present and past life, satisfaction or happiness (Chadha *et al.*, 2000).

Research evidence points to three factors that contribute to retirees' psychological well-being. These are economic resources, social relationships, and personal resources. First, people with inadequate incomes and financial problems are especially likely to experience dissatisfaction and maladjustment in retirement which causes negative effect on the psychological well-being of such an individual (Kim & Moen, 2001).

Secondly, studies have also shown that marriage and family relationship play an important role in predicting psychological well-being following retirement. For instance, a study of retirees and workers age 58 to 64 found that being married is associated with positive attitude toward retirement which enhanced or buffer psychological well-being, possibly because being married buffers the uncertainty of retirement (Mutran, Ratzes & Fernandez, 2000). Kim and Moen (2001) further showed that marital quality, rather than simply marital status, is positively related to retirement adjustment.

Thirdly, personal resources include not only socio-demographic status but also health and personality variables. Having a higher level of education and higher prestige job prior to retirement has been linked to greater satisfaction with retirement and higher morale after retirement. A substantial body of research such as Oniye (2001) has shown that health is positively correlated to adjustment to retirement. Personality characteristics also play a crucial role.

An anticipated social interaction in retirement is a psychological factor that may determine the psychological well-being of the retiree (Taylor & Shore, 2002). Whether one is likely to experience psychological well-being in retirement is determined by one's current satisfaction with amount of social interaction with family or friends. Studies have shown that marriage and family relationship moderate the psychological well-being of retirees. Strong family bonds play an important role in providing support during adjustment hence an important predictor of psychological well-being of a retiree. Social relation that leads to quality interaction with others within the society are important pre-retirement investment. Kim and Moen (2001) have argued that quality rather than simple marital status is positively related to personal adjustment that bring about positive psychological well-being of the retirees.

According to Ode (2005), the basic psychological factors that results to a negative psychological well-being of retirees are; stress, depression and general mental health. Stress is the sense of being under pressure. This is often experienced by people at work. The question as to whether stress level tends to fall after retirement is a complex one. Once people are no more in jobs, they gradually have less direct sources of stress and more time for relaxation. However, this tendency may be counteracted by the fact that retirees may face increased stress due to health problems, less mobility and less social interaction. Furthermore, it is difficult to say precisely whether stress increase or decrease after retirement because a whole lot of these issues depend on the situation or the individual.

Depression is a sense of great sadness that persists for a lengthy period of time. People who have retired tend to suffer more from adverse psychological condition like depression, (McLeod & Owens, 2004). This may be due to a reduction in the number of social interaction that retirees engage in. It may also be associated with loss of job and the sense of purpose that people often get from their careers. This tendency is offset if the retiree is married or continues to have an active social life.

General mental health is more likely to be sustained after retirement if the retiree is married or retains close contact with friends

and family members. However if all this is not the case, mental health deterioration will become certain for the retiree. There are evidence that retirement has a great negative impact on mental health if the retirement is involuntary (Forceful retirement) continued exercise and engagement in social activities is associated with better psychological and general well-being, (Lambert & Battaglini, 1998). It is helpful if retirees develop a daily routine in which they perform interesting activities that will keep them busy and engage with families and friends.

Self-Esteem

In sociology and psychology, self-esteem reflects a person's overall subjective emotional evaluation of his or her own worth, it is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude towards the self. Self-esteem encompasses beliefs such as I am competent, I am worthy, and emotions such as triumph, despair, pride, and shame, (Hewitt, 2009). Smith and Mackie (2007) defined it by saying, self-esteem is the positive or negative evaluation of the self, as in how we feel about it. Self-esteem is attractive as a social psychological construct because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential predictor of certain outcomes such as academic achievement, happiness, satisfaction in marriage and relationships, and criminal behaviour (Orth & Robbins, 2014).

The identification of self-esteem as a

distinct psychological construct is thought to have its origins in the work of William James in 1892 who identified multiple dimensions of the self with two levels of hierarchy process of knowing (called the I - self) and the resulting knowledge about the self (the me-self). Observation and storage by the I – self create three types of knowledge, which collectively account for the me-self. These are the material self, social self, and spiritual. The social self comes closest to self-esteem, comprising all characteristics recognized by others. The material self consists of representations of the body and possessions, and the spiritual self of descriptive representation and evaluative dispositions regarding the self. This view of self-esteem as the collection of an individual's attitudes towards oneself remains today.

Many early theories suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation. Maslow (1987) include self-esteem in his hierarchy of human needs. He described two different forms of esteem: the need for respect from others in the form of recognition, success, and admiration, and the need for self respect in the form of self-love, self-confidence, skill or aptitude. According to Maslow, without the fulfillment of self-esteem need, individuals will be driven to seek it and unable to grow and obtain self-actualization. Maslow also states that the healthiest expression of self-esteem is the one we take the serve from others. Modern theories of self-esteem

explore the reasons human are motivated to maintain a high regard for selves (Greenberg, 2008). Self- esteem is important because it shows ourselves how we view the way we are and the sense of our personal value. Thus, it affects the way we are related to everybody else (Bono & Judge, 2003).

Experiences in a person life are a major sources of how self-esteem develops (Baumeister, Campbell & Vohs, 2003). In the early years of a child life, parents have a significant influence on self-esteem and can be considered a main source of positive and negative experience a child will have (Raboteg & Sakic, 2014). Unconditional love from parents helps a child develop a stable sense being cared for and respected. These feelings translate into later effects of self-esteem as the child grows older (Olsen, Breckler & Wiggins, 2008).

The concept of self-esteem has traditionally been divided into two: high self-esteem and low self-esteem (Kernis, 2003). People with high level of self-esteem, firmly believe in certain values and principles and are ready to defend them even when finding opposition, feeling secure enough to modify them in light of experience (Bono & Judge, 2003). They do not lose time worrying excessively about what happen in the future, they learn from past and plan for the future, but live in the present intensely (Bono & Judge, 2003). They can work towards finding solutions and voice

discontent without belittling themselves or others when challenges arise (Bono & Judge, 2003). Low self-esteem can result from various factors including genetic, physical appearance or weight, mental, health issues, socioeconomic status, peer pressure or bullying (Jones, 2003). A person with low self-esteem may show some of the characteristics: (Baldwin 1996), heavy self-esteem criticism and dissatisfaction, chronic indecision and an exaggerated fear or mistakes, neurotic guilt, dwelling on or exaggerating the magnitude of past mistakes, excessive will to please and unwillingness to displease any petitioner (Bono & Judge, 2003).

Self-esteem and Psychological Well-being

Andrew and Kernis (2002) conducted a study to examine the extent to which self-esteem (SE) level and SE stability predicted scores on Rulf's (1989) multidimensional measure of psychological well-being, 389 samples were collected among college workers in Oklahoma. Main effects for SE level emerged on all six subscales, indicating that high self-esteem was associated with greater well-being than low self-esteem. In addition, main effects for SE stability emerged for the autonomy, environmental mastery, and purpose in life subscales, indicating that stable SE was associated with higher scores than was unstable SE. Finally, SE level x SE stability interactions emerged for the self-acceptance, positive relations, and personal

growth subscales indicating more complex relationships between self-esteem and these aspects of well-being.

Tayfun, Tarik and Fatma (2013) conducted a study to examine the effects of self-esteem, psychological well-being, emotional self-efficacy and affect balance variables on happiness. It was found that psychological well-being, emotional self-efficacy and affect balance; and that psychological well-being and affect balance have positive effect on self-esteem and that self-esteem has a positive effect on happiness. In addition, it was concluded that 46% of the total variance regarding self-esteem is explained by psychological well-being, emotional self-efficacy and affect balance. It was also concluded that psychological well-being, emotional self-efficacy, affect balance and self-esteem explain 51% of the total variance regarding happiness.

Demographic Factors and Psychological Well-being

Pugliese (2010) conducted a study to investigate the relationships among gratitude, variables associated with well-being, and negative affectivity. Specifically, the study addressed gender differences among gratitude, psychological well-being, and negative affectivity. It also addressed whether the prediction of gratitude by psychological well-being and negative affectivity was different for women and men. Two hundred and sixty-four

participants were included in the data analysis. Women had higher scores on negative affectivity and higher scores on gratitude than men. Higher scores on gratitude were positively correlated with higher scores on life satisfaction, well-being, authentic-durable happiness, positive affect and attending to emotions. Higher scores on gratitude were negatively correlated with higher scores on subjective fluctuating happiness. Results indicated different predictor variables for gratitude for men and women.

Wendy, Nancy and Melanie (2013) conducted a study that reviews all published studies reporting tests for gender differences in well-being. Women were found to report greater happiness and life satisfaction than men. This gender difference was explained in terms of men's and women's social roles. The female (vs. male) gender role specifies greater emotional responsiveness. Furthermore, past role-related experiences provide women with appropriate skills and attitudes. Women's (vs, men's) greater well-being was also found to hold for married but not unmarried SS for both sexes the married state (vs. Unmarried) was associated with favorable well-being, but the favorable outcomes proved stronger for women than men, given that most SS were married, the overall gender difference in well-being can be attributed to SS' marital Status.

Kubicek, Korunka, Raymo and Hoonakker

(2011) conducted a study that points to the gendered nature of work and private routines. Drawing on resource theories and theories on the gendered division of labour, this study examine how pre-retirement resources relate to retirees psychological well-being by using data from the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study. It was hypothesized that possessing key resources prior to retirement as well as losing or gaining resource in the transition to retirement influence retirees' well-being and that these effects are partially conditioned by gender. Results indicate that pre-retirement physical health, tenacity in goal pursuit, and flexibility in goal adjustment are beneficial for men's and women's well-being alike. By contrast, financial assets and job dissatisfaction are more strongly related to men's psychological well-being in retirement and pre-retirement social contacts to that of women.

Oniye (2010), in a descriptive study investigated the problem and prospects of education among civil servants in Ekiti. The sample size for his study was 400 civil servants (male and female) in Ekiti State selected from the entire 16 Local Government Areas of Ekiti State base on purposive and stratified random sampling techniques. His study revealed that some of the problems that necessitated his study were the problems being faced by retired civil servants as expressed in the media and pensioners. These problems include delay

in the payment of pension and maladjustment arising from economy, social health and psychological variables. The resultant effects of the problems observed include; sickness, rejection and even untimely death among the retired civil servant, it was discovered that there is no significance between the psychological adjustment of male and female civil servants.

Most of the respondents both male and female indicated that they have a sense of accomplishment as retired civil servants. Ekiti State being an agrarian and educated environment provided the retirees with opportunities of psychological arising from educational opportunities, that is teaching in private schools and engaging in subsistence farming, this in turn makes the retirees to be dissatisfied with the present predicament in Ekiti State, many of the retirees became adjusted because they were busy with peasant farming and part time teaching. These opportunities made them to be happy as retirees and invariably many of them were psychologically adjusted either male or female.

James and Jeong (2008) investigated whether the association between educational attainment and psychological/emotional well-being depends on prior experience of work-family conflict. They used data from the 1993 and 2004 waves of the Wisconsin Longitudinal study to estimate linear

regression models of emotional well-being including symptoms of depression and positive psychological functioning. They also used fixed effects models to investigate whether key findings persist after controlling for stable but unobserved characteristics of individuals. It was found that retirement is associated with a relatively greater reduction in depressive symptoms among individuals previously experiencing high levels of work stress interfering with family life.

They find suggestive evidence of a similar improvement in well-being with respect to positive psychological functioning after accounting for unobserved characteristics of individuals such as personality or coping style. Among those previously exposed to high levels of family stress spilling into work at midlife, their results suggest that retirement tends to bring greater improvement in emotional well-being among men than women.

Jungmeen and Phyllis (2012) conducted longitudinal study to investigate the relationship between retirement transitions and subsequent psychological well-being using data on 458 married men and women (aged 50 – 72 years) who were either still in their primary career jobs, retired or had just made the transition to retirement over the preceding 2 years. The findings show that the relationship between retirement and psychological well-being must be viewed in a temporal, life course context. Specifically,

making the transition to retirement within the last 2 years is associated with higher levels of morale for men, whereas being “continuously” retired is related to greater depressive symptoms among men. The results suggest the importance of examining various resources and contexts surrounding retirement transitions (gender, prior level of psychological well-being, spouses circumstance, and changes in personal control, marital quality, subjective health, and income adequacy) to understand the dynamics of the retirement transition and its relationship with psychological well-being.

Terry, David and John (2012) conducted a study to evaluate the impact of retirement, monitor the change in adjustment across time, and identify the resources predictive of short and long term adjustment in retirement. A sample of 117 male retirees was assessed on indices of physical and psychological health, perceived control, retirement satisfaction, and life satisfaction at 2 – 4 months pre-retirement, 1 years post, and 6 – 7 years post-retirement. The results provided support for a positive impact of retirement, as retirees evidenced increases in well-being during the first year. There was also evidence of a retirement adjustment process, in that aspects of well being (i.e., psychological health) changed from short to long term retirement.

Finally, physical health, income, and voluntary retirement status predicted short-

term adjustment, while internal locus of control was an additional resource for long-term adjustment. Changes in resources over time also differentially predicted short and long term adjustment (e.g, an increase in internal locus of control predicted an increase in activity satisfaction at 1 year but not at 6-7years post-retirement).

Hypotheses

- i. There will be a significant influence of self-esteem on psychological well-being of retirees in Makurdi Metropolis.
- ii. There will be a significant gender difference in the psychological well-being of retirees in Makurdi Metropolis.
- iii. There will be a significant difference in levels of education on the psychological well-being of retirees in Makurdi Metropolis.
- iv. Duration of retirement will have a significant influence on the psychological well-being of retirees in Makurdi Metropolis.

METHOD

Design

The research design used for this study is a cross sectional survey design. This is a method of measuring or describing the characteristic of variables of interest for several groups at the same time. It is suitable for this study because data on the variables of interest, (self-esteem,

demographic factors and psychological well-being) are collected from retirees using the questionnaire.

Participants

The participants for this study were 197 retirees from all pensionable jobs within Makurdi metropolis. Their demographic data showed that participants' age ranged from 53-71 years with mean age of 60.38, (SD = 5.0). They were 106(53.8%) males and 91(46.2%) female. They had post retirement experience ranging from 1-13 years, while in terms of educational qualification, 12(6.1%) of the participants had First School Leaving Certificate, 29(14.7%) had SSCE, 67(34.0%) had Diploma/NCE certificate course, 69(35.0%) held first degree and 20(10.2%) had masters degree and above.

Sampling

The convenience sampling technique was used in the selection of both male and female retirees from the population of retirees in Makurdi metropolis. The researcher sought and obtained permission from the Chairman, Benue State Pension Board Makurdi in order to collect data from retirees in the Board. The researcher waited at the board for one week to meet whosoever came around and was confirmed to be a retired civil servant. They were approached, sought permission, and briefed on the purpose of the research before administering the questionnaire to them.

Instruments

In order to collect data for the study, the Rosenberg self-esteem scale and Ryff's scales of psychological well-being were used in addition to the demographic factors including age, gender, marital status and duration of retirement.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSS)

Self-esteem was measured with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). The 10-item Likert gauge is rated on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree. The scale has been used globally in the assessment of self-esteem. The scores of the RSS were obtained by reversing the scores on items 1, 3, 4, 7 and 10 and then summing all the scores of the 10 items. The higher the scores obtained in the RSS, the greater the level of self-esteem. The RSS has acceptable internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of between .85-.88.

Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well being (RSPWB)

The 42-item Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being (RPWB), a widely-used instrument designed by Ryff (1989) to measure psychological well-being was adopted for use in this study. The RPWB was originally scored on a 6-point rating scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree. In this study however, the scale is scored based on 4-point likert scale of strongly agree=4; agree=3; disagree=2 and strongly disagree=1. The total score for

each respondent is arrived at by sum up scores for each item. High scores on the total scale indicate that the respondent records high psychological well-being and vice versa. RPWB was originally validated on a sample of 321 well-educated, socially connected, financially-comfortable and physically healthy men and women (Ryff 1989). The internal consistency coefficients were quite high (between 0.86 and 0.93) and the test-retest reliability coefficients for

a subsample of the participants over a six week period were also high (0.81-0.88).

Data Analysis

The data for this study were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Inferential statistics involving simple regression analysis, independent t-test and one-way ANOVA were used in testing the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Table 1: Simple linear regression showing influence of self-esteem on psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis

Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	df	β	t	P
Constant	.562	.316	89.933	1,195		8.029	.000
Self-esteem					.562	9.483	.000

The result presented in Table 1 revealed a significant influence of self-esteem on psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis (R = .562, R² = .316; F(1,195)= 89.933, p <.001).

This result showed that self-esteem contributes 31.6% to the total variance in psychological well-being of retirees. Based on this result, hypothesis one was confirmed.

Table 2: Independent t-test showing gender differences in psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
Male	106	128.02	33.725	195	-3.043	.003
Female	91	142.64	33.494			

The result presented in Table 2 showed that there is a significant gender difference in psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis (t(195)=-3.043,

p<.01). The result further revealed that female retirees scored higher on psychological well-being (Mean=142.64, SD=33.494) compared to their male

counterparts (Mean=128.02, SD=33.725) respectively. Based on this result, hypothesis two was confirmed.

Table3: One-Way ANOVA showing differences in levels of educational attainment on psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis

Levels of education	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
FSLC	12	128.50	32.208			
SSCE	29	133.79	33.057			
Diploma/NCE/Cert. Course	67	135.24	32.731	4,192	0.121	.475
First degree	69	135.75	36.287			
Master's degree and above	20	135.00	38.404			

The result presented in Table 3 showed that there is no significant difference in levels of educational attainment on psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi

metropolis ($F(4, 192) = 0.121, p >.05$). Based on this result, hypothesis three was not confirmed.

Table 4: Simple linear regression showing influence of duration of retirement on psychological well-being among retirees in Makurdi metropolis

Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	B	t	P
Constant	.221	.049	10.024		21.631	.002
Duration of retirement				.221	3.166	.002

The result presented in Table 4 showed that there is a significant positive influence of duration of retirement on psychological well-being among retirees ($R = .221, R^2 = .049, (F(1,195) = 10.024, p < .01)$). The result indicates that duration of retirement contributes 4.9% to psychological well-being of retirees. Based on this result, hypothesis four was confirmed.

influenced psychological well-being among retirees in makurdi metropolis. The influence of self-esteem on psychological well-being was found to be relatively high (31.6%) and positive. This implies that to a large extent, increased levels of self-esteem lead to high levels of psychological well-being among retirees. This is possible because people with high self-esteem are expected to experience positive emotions which have the tendency to enhance their psychological well-being. In this wise, self-esteem serves as a buffer against the challenges of retirement that could lead to loss of well-being. This finding is in line

DISCUSSION

The hypotheses in this study were tested using appropriate statistical techniques. The findings that emerged from the analysis showed that self-esteem significantly

with findings of Tayfun, Tarik and Fatma (2013) who reported a strong relationship between self-esteem and psychological well-being. The finding is also in line with Andrew and Kernis (2002) who obtained a similar main effect of self-esteem on all the six sub-scales of psychological well-being.

It was also found that female retirees have higher psychological well-being compared to their male counterparts. This finding implies that female retirees adjust better after retirement and therefore experience better psychological well-being. Although it is not clear the reason behind the gender difference in psychological wellbeing of the retirees, it is suspected that women tend to enjoy life of dependence better with fewer issues than men who despite retirement still have multiple issues to attend to. This finding is in line with the findings of Puglies (2010) who examined the impact of retirement men and women psychological well-being and found a positive effect on the psychological well-being for men and no effect for women. It also tallies with Wendy *et al.*, (2013) who found a similar higher psychological well-being among women compared to men.

The results from this study further revealed no significant difference in the different levels of education on psychological well-being among the retirees. This finding implies that retirees with different levels of educational attainment experience similar psychological well-being during

retirement. The differences that may be observed in psychological well-being of retirees could be explained by other factors outside their level of educational attainment. This finding contradicts the findings of Oniye (2010) who agrees that there is a relationship between educational attainment of retirees and psychological well-being.

Another important finding that emerged from this study is that duration of retirement exerts significant positive influence on psychological well-being of retirees. This implies that as the time spent out of service after retirement increases, so is the level of psychological well-being of the retirees. This means that people who stayed longer after retirement will adjust to retirement life and suffer less pain from the consequences of retirement while somebody who just retired will still be in the process of adjustment and therefore, find the challenges difficult to contend with. This finding contradicts the findings of Terry, David and John (2012), whose work showed that the psychological well-being of a retiree deteriorates with aging after retirement increase, so does the health of such retirees deteriorates.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the findings of this study, it was concluded that, there is a significant influence of self-esteem, gender difference and duration of retirement on the psychological well-being of retirees in

Makurdi metropolis. However, there are no differences in levels of educational attainment on psychological well-being of retirees not just in Makurdi metropolis but beyond. On the basis of these findings, it was recommended that the government and other agencies should make practical attempts within policy framework to help prepare the employees adequately for life after retirement.

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INFLUENCE OF WORK OVERLOAD AND GENDER ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING OF NON-ACADEMIC STAFF OF BENUE STATE UNIVERSITY, MAKURDI

by

Chinelo Helen Ogwuche¹, Ngbede Mathew Ogenyi²

^{1&2}Department of Psychology,
Benue State University Makurdi,
chineloogwuche@gmail.com

Abstract

This study examined influence of work overload on psychological wellbeing among non-academic staff. A total of 267 respondents were randomly drawn from Benue State University, Makurdi LGA with the age range of 18-52 years and the mean age of 26.3 years. Out of this number 196 (73.4%) were males and 71 (26.6%) were females. Data were collected using Ryff's Psychological Wellbeing Scale (RPWS) and Work Overload Scale (WOS). Three hypotheses were tested using Two-Way ANOVA and the results show that, in the first hypothesis, there was a significant influence of work overload on psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff. Secondly, there was a significant gender difference in psychological wellbeing of workers. While in the third hypothesis, there was no significant interactive effect of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff. Based on these findings, it was therefore, recommended that job incentives should be put in place to motivate resilient non-academic staff who showed commitment to duty in the face of work overload. Also, University managements should employ enough non-academic staff especially in the Establishment and Registry units to lessen their work and reduce stress at work place and promote psychological health. Furthermore, work-shift should be encouraged and maintained to reduce stress due to over time. Finally, university Management should employ occupational therapists to help both male and female non-academic staff to cope with the stress for enhanced psychological wellbeing.

KeyWords: Work Overload, Gender and Psychological Wellbeing

INTRODUCTION

Workers' psychological well-being issues are currently expanding in educational organizations especially of those dealing with heavy work activities and longer hours at work such as the non-academic staff of Nigerian universities. The necessity of maintaining psychological wellbeing among non-academic staff members is important to guarantee performance at work and effective service delivery that entails long-term benefit to the society. Psychological well-being is a subjective term that means different things to different people. For the present study it is defined as the individual's own interpretation and evaluation of his present and past life, his satisfaction or his happiness (Chadha & Van Willigen, 1995).

The literature in psychological well-being has progressed rapidly since the emergence of the field over five decades ago. Psychologists and other social scientists have taken huge steps in their understanding of the factors influencing psychological wellbeing. Work overload has been identified as one of those. According to Mojinyinola (2004), work overload seems to have adverse effect on the mental well-being of non-academic staff. Work overload is an important phenomenon that can affect health, well-being and service delivery in negative dimensions (Mojinyinola, 2004). Workload can be characterized as a mental construct that reflects the mental strain resulting from

performing a task under specific environmental and operational conditions, coupled with the capability of the operator to respond to those demands. Workload is not only task specific, but also person specific. It involves individual capacities and motivation to perform a task. Workload is also referred to as the total energy output of a system, particularly of a person performing strenuous task overtime. Workload is the portion of operator information processing capacity or resources that is actually required to meet system demands. It is a demand placed upon humans. Mental workload is the difference between the capacities of the information processing system that are required for task performance to satisfy performance expectations and the capacity available at any given time (Backs & Ryan, 1992).

Work overload has been identified as an occupational hazard and safety risk throughout the world, including Nigeria (National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, NIOSH, 2007). The International Labour Organization's (ILO) report (2008) shows that an additional 160 million new people suffer from work overloads. Work overload manifests in employee's behaviour in the form of depression, anxiety, headache, frustration, fatigue, aggression, alcoholism, and loss of concentration.

Elevated scores on work overload measures

among different professionals have been associated with higher levels of perceived role conflict and role ambiguity (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982), lessened self-actualization and lack of perceived support (Pierce & Molloy, 1990). Research suggests that professionals in educational settings are susceptible to mental problems because of work-overloads, lack of autonomy in the work setting, ambiguity about professional roles and performance constraints. (Watkins, 1983)

The interconnection between these pressures of meeting up job challenges, family expectations and group needs usually lead to work overload generally reported in work burnout. Thus, conflict may arise between a person's roles as an employee and a spouse and on being the president of a social club. University is a place where many things take place almost at the same time. There is ample evidence that university staff in the course of their careers, experience a great deal of mental strain due to work overload (Waterloo Gazette, 1995). The experience of overload at work often results in depressed mood, exhaustion, poor performance, and attitude and personality changes, which, in turn, lead to illness and premature retirement (Burke & Greenglass, 1995; Cherniss, 1989; Friedman & Farber, 1992). University system as an educational institution gives equal employment opportunity to every citizen without bias for gender, tribe or social status. This is because

employment in the system is more rooted in academic and administrative potentials and capabilities. Thus, the university community comprises of different strata of human beings who are daily working together to keep the system going in their own ways.

In the last one decade, Nigerian University system has run ceaselessly without the usual holiday breaks for staff to refresh unless interrupted by sporadic strikes. The resultant effect of the pressures mounted on staff is the heavy workload that is continually increasing with the associated increase in stress, which appears to be a major threat to quality of life. Many staff members now feel they can no longer complete the jobs they are expected to do. It is equally noteworthy that while expectations are increasing, attempts at complementary improvements in efficiency to make the workload manageable remain very few. Non-teaching staff carry extra loads through new part-time programmes being established despite the fact that the number of staff in relation to expected job to be done remains fairly constant. Many staff could not take full vacations in the last one-decade leading to syndrome of accumulated leaves. Staff workloads are on the increase; many are working longer hours and have assumed responsibilities as staff complements have been reduced through attritions without replacements (Adekola 2012).

In spite of the efforts of the university management to ensure the wellbeing of non-academic staff, it seems issues of work overload impact on their psychological wellbeing. A search through Nigerian literature showed paucity of research in the study of non-academic staff in relation to work overload experience and psychological wellbeing. This study seeks to determine the level of differences experienced by non-academic staff of different gender in their level of work overload and its effects on their psychological wellbeing.

Given this obvious knowledge gap, this study has become an imperative to bridge this gap in our local setting by assessing the influence of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing. Hence, it was hypothesized that: (i) work overload will significantly predict psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff. (ii) gender will significantly predict psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff. (iii) work overload and gender will jointly and significantly predict psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff.

METHOD

Design

This study employs a cross sectional survey which allows for the use of questionnaires to collect data from respondents. The variables tested in the study are work overload and gender which serve as

independent variables. While psychological wellbeing was measured as a dependent variable.

Participants

This study consisted of 267 participants drawn from members of non-academic staff of Benue State University, Makurdi. 196 (73.4%) were males and 71 (26.6%) were females. Distribution of respondents according to age revealed that 131 (41.9%) were in the age range of 18-25 years and 136 (50.9%) were aged between 26 to 52 years. The study was made up of 51 (19.1%) senior and 216 (80.9%) junior staff. Furthermore the study was also made up of 55 (20.6%) non-academic staff who were single, 177 (66.3) were married, 18 (6.7%) divorced their partners, 17(6.4%) lost their partners. The religious affinity of respondents indicated that 191 (71.5%) of the respondents were of Christian faith, 58(21.7%) were Muslims and 18 (6.7%) did not specify their religion. Verification of respondents' income revealed that 122 (45.7%), 88 (33.0%), 57(21.3%) fall in low, moderate and high income categories respectively. Results with regards to ethnic group showed that 123 (46.1%), 79 (29.6%), 53 (19.9%) and 12 (4.9%) were Tiv, Idoma, Igede and other respectively.

Sampling Technique

This research work relied on purposive sampling technique for selection of participants. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method that is applied

when using population that is not commonly found. It was therefore applied in sampling non-academic staff members who were available and willing at the time of this research to respond to questionnaires.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study. The first instrument adopted was the Ryff's Psychological Wellbeing Scale (RPWB) which is a widely-used instrument designed by Ryff (1989) to measure six dimensions of psychological well-being. Ryff's scales of psychological well-being (RPWB) include the following six components of psychological functioning: a positive attitude toward oneself and one's past life (self-acceptance), high quality, satisfying relationships with others (positive relations with others), a sense of self-determination, independence, and freedom from norms (autonomy), having life goals and a belief that one's life is meaningful (purpose in life), the ability to manage life and one's surroundings (environmental mastery), and being open to new experiences as well as having continued personal growth (personal growth).

RPWB is scored based on 4-point likert scale of strongly agree=4; agree=3; disagree=2 and strongly disagree=1. However, items 1, 6, 17, 23, 34, 42 and 57 are scored in a reverse order. The total score for each respondent is arrived at by sum up scores for each item. The internal

consistency coefficients of 0.86 and 0.93 was obtained, and the test-retest reliable coefficients for a subsample of the participants over a six week period were 0.81 and 0.88).

The second instrument that was adopted in this work was the Job-related Tension Scale developed by Kahn, et al (1964) to assess the nature, causes and consequences of two aspects of organizational stress which is defined as the feelings of tension, discomfort, uncertainty, indecisiveness and distress a worker experience as a result of the social and physical circumstances of work setting. The two components of organizational stress which the inventory assesses are role conflict and role ambiguity. This instrument is administered individually or in groups after establishing rapport with the clients. There is no time limit for completing JTS. The inventory is scored on a 4-point Likert response scale starting from Never = 1, Rarely = 2, Sometimes = 3, Rather often = 4 to Nearly all the same = 5. The items are scored directly by adding together the values of the numbers shaded. The coefficient Alpha reported by Sheridan et al., (1978) is .87 while a concurrent validity coefficient of .01 was obtained by correlating JST with rated performance (Sherian, et al., 1978).

Kahn *etal* (1964) provided psychometric properties for American samples while Oseghare provided the properties for Nigerian sample through extrapolation on

his findings on Stressors Checklist by McLeans (1969) which is equivalent to JTS. Out of the 12 items of Stressor Checklist, 11 are exactly the same as those of the 15 items of the JTS.

interactive effect of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing among non-academic staff. Also descriptive statistics were used to analysis demographic data.

Data Analysis

Data for this study were analyzed using Two- Way ANOVA to test the main and

RESULTS

The mean scores of the groups of participants on psychological wellbeing are

shown in Table 1, while Two-Way ANOVA summary table is presented in Table 2

Table 1: Showing Mean Scores (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) of Groups non-academic staff on psychological wellbeing

Variables	Levels	Mean	SD	N
Workload	High	62.21	22.61	160
	Low	70.90	17.91	107
Gender	Male	63.96	22.59	196
	Female	70.48	16.22	71

The results presented in Table 1 revealed that non-academic staff members who perceived high work overload recorded lower mean score on psychological wellbeing ($M = 62.21, SD = 22.61$) than their counterparts who perceived low level of work overload ($M = 70.90, SD= 17.91$)

The results further showed that male workers scored lower on psychological wellbeing ($M = 63.96, SD = 22.59$) than males ($M = 70.48, SD = 16.2245$).. Tests of significance of the means are reported in table 2 below.

Table 2: Two-ANOVA summary table showing the main and interactive effects of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff of Benue State University, Makurdi

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	7860.450 ^a	3	2620.150	6.136	.000	.065
Intercept	894876.194	1	894876.194	2095.632	.000	.888
Overload	2879.607	1	2879.607	6.743	.010	.025
Sex	1977.021	1	1977.021	4.630	.032	.017
Overload * Sex	372.532	1	372.532	.872	.351	.003
Error	112306.188	263	427.020			
Total	1272428.492	267				
Corrected Total	120166.637	266				

a. R Squared = .065 (Adjusted R Squared = .055)

Results in Table 2 show that there was a significant difference between non-academic staff who perceived high and low work overload on psychological wellbeing ($F(1, 263) = 6.743, p < .05$). This implies that work overload has a negative influence on psychological wellbeing of non-academic staff. The results clearly showed that work overload has effect size of 2.5% ($\eta^2 = .025$) on workers' psychological wellbeing. Also, the results indicated that there was a significant difference between male and female non-academic staff on psychological wellbeing ($F(1, 263) = 4.630, p < .05$). This means that gender is a likely determinant of psychological wellbeing with an effect size of 1.7% ($\eta^2 = .017$). Finally the results showed that there was no significant interactive effect of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing ($F(1, 263) = .872, p > .05$). This means that interplay of work overload and

gender is less likely to influence psychological wellbeing among non-academic staff. This further implies that work overload and gender are not co-determinant of workers' psychological wellbeing.

DISCUSSION

The discussion of findings was done according to the tested and verified hypotheses. The first hypothesis of the study which states that there will be a significant difference between non-academic staff who perceived high and low work overload on psychological wellbeing was tested and it was found that there is a significant difference between non-academic staff who perceived high and low work overload on psychological wellbeing. This means that workers who experienced low work overload are more likely to enjoy psychological health than their counterparts

who experienced high work overload. This finding is in line with Ozioko et al. (2014) finding which indicated that psychological, emotional, technological, physiological, situational and accidental stresses were the constituents of work overload among staff; environmental hazard, lack of social support, poor communication and leadership style, job insecurity, lack of control and role ambiguity together with health related factors were the major causes of job stress among them; job stress had the following consequences on the polytechnic library staff; absenteeism, sleeplessness, health deterioration, depression and tiredness. Functional inconsistency and job dissatisfaction; the extent to which work overload had affected them had resulted in prolonged headache and pains constant breakdown of rules and regulations, intermittent impairment of vision, loss of attention and lowered productivity among others.

Also, hypothesis two was tested to find out if there will be a significant difference between male and female non-academic staff on psychological wellbeing. This hypothesis was confirmed. It is obvious from the results that male score less on psychological wellbeing when compared with female workers. This implies that male workers suffer the burden of work overload more than female workers. This finding contradicts the research outcome by Adekola (2012) which revealed that there is no difference in the levels of emotional

exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment of both male and female staff. He however, reported that the mean of the scores on the de-personalisation of both sexes shows a significant difference. It was confirmed also that male staff experienced higher level of de-personalisation than their female counterparts.

Finally, the results derived from test of hypothesis three showed that there was no significant interactive effect of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing. This means that the interplay of work overload and gender is less likely to influence psychological wellbeing among non-academic staff. This further implies that work overload and gender are not co-determinants of psychological wellbeing. This finding contradicts research outcome by Fallon-Hogan (2013) who examined patterns in working hours and behaviours and associated levels of work-life conflict and psychological strain in Irish academics and found that a number of organizational, personal and individual variables including work intensity, workaholism, job involvement, organizational support and having children were found to directly and indirectly influence work hours, work-life conflict and psychological strain. Gender was found to moderate some of these effects.

Conclusion

In a bid to investigate the influence of work overload and gender on psychological

wellbeing among non-academic staff, theories and empirical literature were reviewed, data were collected and tested. Based on the results, it was concluded that:

- i. There was a significant difference between non-academic staff who perceived high and low work overload on psychological wellbeing.
- ii. There was a significant difference between male and female workers on psychological wellbeing.
- iii. There was no significant interact effect of work overload and gender on psychological wellbeing.

Recommendations

With regards to the findings of this research work, it was recommended thus:

- i. Job incentives should be put in place to motivate resilient non-academic staff who showed commitment to duty in the face of work overload.
- ii. University management should employ enough non-academic staff to lessen their work and reduce stress at work place and promote psychological health.
- iii. Work-shift should be encouraged and maintained to reduce stress due to overtime.
- iv. University Management should

employ occupational therapists to help both male and female non-academic staff to cope with the stress for enhance psychological wellbeing.

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**PERCEIVED EMPATHY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AS PREDICTORS OF
SELF CONCEPT CLARITY AMONG A SAMPLE OF NIGERIAN
UNDERGRADUATES**

by

Olukayode Ayooluwa Afolabi¹ Uba Dennis²

^{1&2}Department of Pure & Applied Psychology,
Adekunle Ajasin University,
Akungba-Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria
E-mail: olukayode.afolabi@aaua.edu.ng

Abstract

The study investigated the roles of perceived empathy and social adjustment as predictors of self concept clarity among a sample of Nigerian undergraduates. To achieve this, the researcher employed cross sectional survey design method to randomly select 260 undergraduates of a Nigerian university. Out of the two hundred and sixty (260) undergraduates sampled, only two hundred and fifty seven (257) returned the questionnaire for analysis. The sample comprised of 114 (44.4%) females and 143 (55.6%) males. The hypothesis which stated that empathy and social adjustment would independently and jointly predict self concept clarity was partially significant. It was found that perceived empathy [β (257) = .044, $p < 0.01$] independently and significantly predicted self concept clarity. However, social adjustment [β (257) = .372, $p < 0.01$] predicted self concept clarity. Both empathy and social adjustment also predicted self concept clarity jointly with an R square of 0.145. It was recommended that schools should organize workshops/training programmes for both old and new students on how their self-concept clarity can be enhanced.

Keywords: Clarity, empathy, interpersonal relationship, self concept, social adjustment

INTRODUCTION

The social environments of academic campuses have been known to be arduous owing to the several activities students engage in and are confronted with. Academic calendars are often tasking, students are expected to attend several hours of classes in a week, with several assignment deadlines that must be met, etc.

Nevertheless, some students writhe through 'academic pressures' with good grades while, others do not. However, it is well established in the field of psychology that the study of self has many dimensions (Okoiye, Nwoga & Onah, 2015). Thus far, researches have not extensively investigated self-concept clarity among students especially in the tertiary institutions (Mittal, 2015).

This is particularly important, reason being that university campuses are filled with adolescents who are at the peak of personality crisis (Theo, William, Quinten, Raajimakers & Wim, 2010). At adolescence, young individuals attempt various personalities and it is a common observation that adolescents tend to temporarily adopt the conducts and lifestyles of individuals or a group of persons. They later turn them down for another on the way to finding their unique self (Meeus, 1996).

Empathy refers to the ability and tendency of a person to understand and interpret what

another person is thinking and feeling in a given situation (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987). To empathize is to show a shared feeling or thought in relation to what another person might be undergoing. In modern times, empathy has found its way to be more applied to human interactions with more emphasis on affective and cognitive components of empathy (Preston & de Waal, 2002). Empathic individuals may show significant self-concept clarity; this may be attainable because an individual must first understand himself before embarking on understanding someone else.

Empathy has both physiological cognitive or psychological offshoots (Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley & Lehman, 2006). When individual empathize they either sense the situation non-verbally or infer by observing behaviours and mannerisms of the individual or group in a given situation. Empathy is often referred to a type of emotional literacy (Campbell, et al., 1996). This is because earlier literature has described empathy as a condition in which an individual infer or show compassion and genuine concern for the emotional state of another. Unlike sympathy where emotions are often sad or agonizing, empathy is often shown in more wide-ranging circumstances and various situations (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987).

On the other hand, social adjustment is a response to psychological and environmental cues by which a person

maintains stability or balance in the face of situations of everyday life (Afolabi & Durosawo, 2015; Weissman, & Bothwell, 1976). Maintaining this stability requires an individual to operate within ethical standards of approval. Booth, Rose-Krasnor, McKinnon, & Rubin, (1994) explained that social adjustment is a process by which an individual develop adaptations in behaviour to realize state of accord with oneself, significant others or the situation. Social adjustment has been described as an achievement as well as a process in psychology (Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simin-Morton & Scheidt, 2001). The same way Afolabi (2014) defines social adjustment as the adaptation of the person to the environment or by changing the environment. Thus, interpreting adjustment and self clarity would necessitate effective behaviour validation.

Self concept clarity has emerged for over two decades; however it has been largely overlooked by researchers (Mittal, 2015). The reason for this has not been recorded in literature, though, several scholars have clamored for more research in this area (Okoiye, Nwoga & Onah, 2015). Self-concept clarity is often described as the degree to which the constituent self-concept of an individual are clearly and assertively identified, defined and understood (Campbell et. al, 1996; Osborne & Taylor, 2010). Self-concept clarity is perceived as a stable individual characteristic that can be assessed and subjected to scientific enquiry

(Campbell et al., 1996; Meeus, 1996).

In academic environments such as campuses, interpersonal influences are almost inescapable and they tend to influence individual choice and decision making (Meeus, 1996). The self-concept clarity makes students less vulnerable to interpersonal influence (Okoiye, Nwoga & Onah, 2015). Self-concept clarity may be important or used effectively as a coping strategy to reduce outcomes of stressful or disconcerting events. Furthermore, in recent years, health care professionals, social support groups, non-governmental organizations (e.g., society for family health) and other stake holders in Nigeria have assisted internally displaced persons (IDP's) especially in Northern Nigeria by providing socio-economic support like orientation programmes geared towards developing self-concepts like self-esteem, self efficacy, self reliance, self confidence, resilience and so on.

However, in the last one decade, self-concept clarity in adolescents has been a subject of investigation in the United Kingdom, and the United States of America (Mittal, 2015) and only recently in Africa (Okoiye, et. al. 2015). However, despite the growing body of literature on self-concept constructs among adolescents, only few African studies have explored self-construct clarity among this 'special' group of children (Okoiye, et. al. 2015).

The process of self conceptualization begins with positive family interaction at the primary level, leading to proper school adjustment and social integration, and then leading to membership in a peer group (Singh, 2012). Some researchers have described social adjustment as a process of conformity, whereby well adjusted students choose to conform to socially acceptable rules and norms (Spruijt, 2007). These students exhibit the ability to find equilibrium or balance when socially related issues are eminent. Singh (2012) asserted that socially adjusted students demonstrate knowledge of school/social norms as well as expectations and consistently demonstrate a pattern of intentionally choosing to obey rules and abide by norms of acceptable behavior (Spruijt, 2007).

In view of this gap, this study investigates perceived empathy and social adjustment as predictors of self-concept clarity among undergraduates in Nigeria. Exploring self-concept clarity from this angle might help identify and proffer lasting solution to psychosocial requisite for self-concept clarity among Nigerian undergraduates.

In the light of these, it would be pertinent to ask some relevant questions:

1. Would perceived empathy predict self concept clarity among undergraduates?
2. Would social adjustment predict self-

concept clarity among undergraduates?

3. Would perceived empathy and social adjustment predict self-concept clarity among undergraduates?

The objective of this study is to examine perceived empathy and social adjustment as predictors of self concept clarity among a sample of Nigerian undergraduates. However, the specific/major purpose of this study is to examine whether perceived empathy and social adjustment would jointly or independently predict self-concept clarity among a sample of Nigerian undergraduates.

The outcomes of this study would have some pragmatic relevance for specialized institutions like the Amnesty International, Society for Family Health, Ministries and Welfare Departments of various organizations in Nigeria. It would help to know where to focus self-concept clarity on and when to redesign their curriculum to develop, promote and sustain an enlightened society.

In addition, this study provides real-life relevance as it would help with learning and educational practice which will be useful in Nigerian colleges including universities, in training medical, psychological, social and human science students on the importance of developing and sustaining self-concept clarity. The results of this study, will also

inform healthcare professionals like Sociologists, Occupational Therapists, Psychiatric Doctors and Nurses, Counsellors, Psychologists and other stakeholders in related disciplines about the need and requirements for adolescents (especially those in tertiary institutions) to successfully inculcate the needed psychological attributes required for optimal behaviour.

Finally, findings of this study would have some practical relevance for other researchers as the study has ecological validity, conducted in a real setting using undergraduates from a Nigerian University. The findings from this study will serve as a reference point and stimulate more research in this direction among relevant groups and other researchers that are interested in similar studies. It would also be of huge benefit for academic purposes. The findings of this study will also broaden the knowledge of other researchers interested in similar studies because it will help them realize reasons why undergraduates need to develop and maintain self-concept clarity qualities needed for everyday interactions.

Hypothesis

1. Perceived empathy and social adjustment will independently and jointly predict self-concept clarity among Nigerian undergraduates.

METHOD

The study examined perceived empathy and

social adjustment as predictors of self concept clarity among undergraduates in Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, AAUA, Ondo State. The study made use of Pearson Product Moment Correction (PPMC) and multiple regression analysis to test the extent and degree to which the predictor variables (perceived empathy and social adjustment) predict self-concept clarity among undergraduates in AAUA. A total of 257 undergraduates' participated in the study. Accidental sampling technique was used to select the participants.

A cross-sectional survey design was adopted in the study. The participants across various faculties in the Institution who formed a representative sample were accidentally sampled. Moreover, variables of this study were not actively manipulated. The dependent variable is self-concept clarity while the predictor variables are perceived empathy and social adjustment.

This study was conducted using ex-post facto since it attempted to explain consequence based on antecedent condition, determine the influence of a variable on another variable and also, that the independent variables were not manipulated but only measured.

Participants

The sampled population consists of 257 undergraduates during the 2015-2016 academic years. They were undergraduates

of a Nigerian University. Although all the 260 copies of the instrument were distributed to the respondents, only 257 of them responded to the instruments properly. This yielded a response rate of 98.8%. The demographic data obtained from the research study are as follows: The gender ratio is 114 (44.4%) for female and 143 (55.6%) for male participants. The mean of the ages was 17 and a standard deviation of 2.56. The research only sampled undergraduates from each of the five Faculties (i.e. Education, Law, Arts, Sciences, Social and Management). Only undergraduates who are currently on admission within the academic year were sampled. The research did not sample the post-graduate and part-time students of the university.

Instruments

The data in this study were collected using the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), Social Adjustment Scale for Undergraduates (SAS-U) and Self-concept Clarity Scale (SCC).

Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI)

The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) was developed by Davis, (1983) and it was designed to measure empathy. The 28-item scale answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Does not describe me well" to "Describes me very well". The measure has 4 subscales, each made up of 7 different items. These subscales are: i. *Perspective Taking* (the tendency to spontaneously

adopt the psychological point of view of others), ii. *Fantasy* (taps respondents' tendencies to transpose themselves imaginatively into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays), iii. *Empathic Concern* (assesses "other-oriented" feelings of sympathy and concern for unfortunate others), iv. *Personal Distress* (measures "self-oriented" feelings of personal anxiety and unease/intense interpersonal settings). The present study reported a Cronbach's alpha of .761 for the scale.

Social Adjustment Scale (SAS-M)

Social Adjustment Scale (SAS-M) was developed by Weissman & Bothwell, (1976) and it is a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "all the time" (5) to "not at all (1)," consisting of 42 items within three dimensions called "cognitive," "affective," and "behavioral. Higher scores computed for each dimensions denote a higher level of social adjustment. Scores for the asterisked items were all reversed, so responses to them were rated 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1 rather than 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5. In general higher scores indicate better "social adjustment". With several questions it is certainly arguable that the "healthiest" score is 2, 3 or 4 rather than 5 for example questions; 13, 15, 23, 26, 31, 32, 34 & 36. The scale's coefficient of the overall scale internal consistence was .67.

The SAS scale has been used with many different groups of people including

standard community samples, arthritis sufferers (Staner, Tracy, Dramaix, Genervois, Vanderelst, Vilane, Bauwens, Pardoën, & Mendlewicz, 1997), undergraduates (Lloyd & Turale, 2011), alcoholics (Wild, Hinson, Cunningham, & Bacchiochi, 2001) and people who are recovering from heart surgery (McCullough & Willoughby, 2009).

Self-Concept Clarity

Self-Concept Clarity Questionnaire (SCC) was designed to measure self-concept clarity. The 12-item scale was developed by Campbell, et al. in (1996). The scale was rated on Likert-type self-report with 5 point ratings with 1= strongly disagree to 5 =strongly agree. The author reported a Cronbach's alpha of .87. The SCC has been adapted to different cultures like Estonia, Germany, Nigeria, etc. Response ranged from 1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3 = undecided 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree. Sample of items include: 'My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another', 'In

general, I have clear sense of whom, I am and what I am'. The author reported a Cronbach's alpha of .77 while among Nigerian authors. Okoiye, et. al (2015) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .64. However, for the present study, a Cronbach's alpha of .65 was established.

Data Analysis

In order to determine the extent and direction of associations among the study variables, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) analysis was conducted. Multiple regression analysis was also used to test the hypothesis. Some of the socio-demographic variables were codified. For example, gender was coded male 0, female 1. All analyses were conducted using SPSS 17.0 Wizard.

A multiple regression analysis model was used to predict the roles of perceived empathy and social adjustment on self-concept clarity.

RESULT

The first analysis involved inter-correlations of all the variables of the study.

The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Correlation Matrix showing the Mean, SD and Inter-variable Relationships among Variables of the Study

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	1.46	-	1					
2. Sex	1.44	-	.146*	1				
3. Religion.	1.05	.227	.057	.062	1			
4. Empathy	96.90	13.35	-.01	.106	-.09	1		
5. Social Adj.	-	-	.09	-.88	.11	.13	1	
6. Self-C. Clarity	43.05	6.27	.03	.09	.01	.09	.38	1

** p < 0.01, *p, < 0.05 N= 257. P. Empathy = Perceived Empathy ; *Social Adj. = Social Adjustment Self C.Clarity.= Self-Concept Clarit

In table 1 above, the findings revealed that age, sex and religion did not considerably influence social concept clarity among the sample. Also, perceived empathy did not significantly correlate with self-concept clarity influence [r (257) = .09, p > 0.05] among the sample. However, social

adjustment showed significant relationship with self-concept clarity [r (257) = 0.38, p < 0.01] among the sample. The test for the formulated hypothesis was carried out using multiple regression analysis and the result was presented below in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Prediction on Self-Concept Clarity.

Variables	β	t	R	R ²	df	F
P. Empathy	.044	4.681*	.380	.145	256	2.149*
Social Adj.	.372	6.352*				

p < 0.05 P. Empathy = Perceived Empathy ; Social Adj. = Social Adjustment

In Table 2 above, the findings of the study revealed that perceived empathy predicted self-concept clarity among the sample [β (257) = .044, $p < 0.01$]. Also, social adjustment significantly predicted self-concept clarity [β (257) = .372, $p < 0.01$]. The Table also showed that both perceived empathy and social adjustment jointly pulled an R^2 of .145 on the self-concept clarity. The results suggest that both perceived empathy and social adjustment jointly predicted self-concept clarity among the undergraduates. The results further revealed that social adjustments independently predicted self-concept clarity by 37.2% while perceived empathy independently predicted self concept clarity by 4.4%.

DISCUSSION

The hypothesis which stated that perceived empathy and social adjustment would independently and jointly predict self-concept clarity among undergraduates was partially accepted. The results in Table two revealed that perceived empathy predicted self-concept clarity among the sample. This finding is in consonance with the findings of (Spruijt, 2007) who revealed that self concept clarity makes individuals more susceptible to interpersonal influence. Although, several researchers have suggested that self-concepts in individuals are motivated by self interest (Hodges & Biswas-Diener, 2007; Batson, Ahmad & Stocks, 2004; Luchies, Finkel, McNully, Kumashiro, 2010). Also the study by Dusek

and McIntyre, (2003) asserted that self-concept clarity is described mostly as an attribute that is self-directed unlike empathy which is characterized by extending beyond the self into that of others in a given situation. As such undergraduates with significant self concept clarity may show less empathic tendencies than undergraduates with less self-concept clarity.

Several authors (Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley & Lehman, 1996; Dusek & McIntyre, 2003) have described self-concept in relation to domain-specific evaluations of the self. They explain that adolescents make self-evaluations in many domains, academic, athletic, physical appearance and so on. In sum, self-concept clarity refers to concise self-evaluations of the individual. These evaluations tend to limit empathy tendencies because empathic feelings are often directed outside the self. In addition, Hogg & Vaughan, (2005) have highlighted the significant role of empathy in adolescents with significant self-concept clarity, as tend to show high levels of independence or self-autonomy that seldom encourage empathic overtures. For example, undergraduates who live independently exhibit high personal standards, popularly referred to as 'mind my business lifestyle' with little room to show empathic concerns unless adequate attention is drawn to it (Luchies, et. al, 2010).

In Nigeria, self-concept is contingent on

cultural interaction and belief systems. It plays a frontline role in determining behaviour (Okoiye, et. al, Onah, 2015). For instance, adolescents who do not show empathic tendencies are often seen as lacking home training. Empathic individuals are remotely regarded as well behaved and considered altruistic. Thus, adolescents with significantly overt self-concept clarity are regarded as arrogant or having overbearing pride (Okoiye, et. al, 2015).

Part of the results also showed that social adjustment significantly predicted self-concept clarity. The finding of this study is in line with several studies (Booth, et. al, 1994; Berndt & Keefe, 1995; Demaray & Malecki, 2002) which revealed that the behavior of adolescents in academic institutions is an important factor in their general social adjustment. The school environment or campus provides the social context in which many students interact amongst themselves, and it is also where they inculcate considerable social skills e.g., social competencies, attitude formation, relationship formation through socialization channels, interpersonal relationships, and etiquette (Malecki & Demaray, 2003).

One possible explanation of these findings focuses on the likely effects of support structures or external cues like friends, and social groups. Presumably, undergraduates who are accepted by friends tend to possess

an awareness of their own individuality that precedes their actions. They may exhibit a sense of belongingness that transcends into self clarity. However, the paucity of literatures that relate social adjustment and self-conflict clarity means this assertion is open to research investigation as it does not rule out other plausible explanations. For example, among adolescents having friendships with more positive features correlates with greater involvement in school, higher self-perceived social acceptance, and increased general self-concept perception (Berndt & Keefe, 1995; Keefe & Berndt, 1996).

Lastly, perceived empathy and social adjustment jointly and significantly predicted self-concept clarity among Nigerian undergraduates. The findings of the present study are because social adjusted individuals are often able to adapt at putting themselves in positive affective states to avoid dysfunctional situations such as violence. Thus, they use this in adaptive ways to alleviate the feeling of frustration than undergraduates with low social adjustment (Crick & Dodge, 1994). All these would make them develop social adjustment than their other counterparts. This finding gained support in the works of previous researchers who reported that the higher the level of physical violence of an individual the higher the social adjustment problems (Demaray & Malecki, 2002).

Recommendations

It is recommended that educational institutions should create an interaction/counseling centre where students' empathetic response and social adjustment could be re-structured. This is because the variables have been found to be important predictors of self concept clarity. In addition, there should be regular workshops/training programs for both the old and newly admitted students on how their self concept clarity enhanced.

Conclusion

In academic environments such as campuses, interpersonal influences are almost unavoidable and they tend to influence individual choice and decision making. The self-concept clarity makes students more atoned to self thereby developing clear self concepts that are important for social interaction.). Self-concept clarity may be important or used effectively as a coping strategy to reduce outcomes of stressful or disconcerting events.

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**AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTS OF GLOBALISATION ON
THE PERCEIVED PERFORMANCE OF OPERATORS IN THE BANKING
SECTOR IN NIGERIA**

by

Owoseni, Omosolape Olakitan

Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences,
Ajayi Crowther University, Oyo, P.m.b. 1066, Oyo State, Nigeria.
E-mail: soolakitan@yahoo.com

Abstract

Globalization has caused dramatic changes to business practices around the world. Globalization is an interesting phenomenon since it is obvious that the world has been going through this process of change towards increasing economic, financial, social, cultural, political, market, and environmental interdependence among nations. Virtually, everyone is affected by this process because globalization brings about a borderless world. This study investigated how sustainable global market uncertainty, global market opportunities and global competitive threat affect the performance of bankers in Nigeria which can lead to a competitive advantage and an enhancement of industrial development that can bring about global partnership for development which is one of the pivotal goals of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Participants for this study were three hundred and one bankers in Lagos, Nigeria. Two hypotheses were tested and the findings of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between performance of operators and global market opportunities. The result also revealed that global market uncertainty, global market opportunities and global competitive threat significantly and jointly predicted performance of operators. Conclusively, the findings from this study support the argument that globalization not only benefits firms in terms of increasing opportunities, but also hurts business performance due to higher competitive threats. This study also confirms that globalization is a universal phenomenon and that firms are inevitably affected either positively or negatively. While global market opportunities are likely to enhance firm performance, global competitive threats tend to worsen it. Therefore, managers must be aware of such double-edged effects, and try to capitalize on opportunities while converting threats into opportunities. Appropriate strategies, such as developing networking relationships with other firms, must be carefully designed and implemented in order to take advantage of global market opportunities and minimize the threats from increasing competitive intensity.

Keywords: Globalization, global market opportunities, global competitive threats, global market uncertainty, Millennium Development Goals, operators' performance, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has caused dramatic changes to business practices around the world. Globalization is an interesting phenomenon since it is obvious that the world has been going through this process of change towards increasing economic, financial, social, cultural, political, market, and environmental interdependence among nations. Virtually, everyone is affected by this process because globalization brings about a borderless world (Eden & Lenway, 2001; Ohmae, 1989a). Globalization drives people to change their ways of living, prompts firms to change their ways of conducting business, and, spurs nations to establish new national policies. Events transpiring in different parts of the world now have dramatic consequences to other parts of the world at a faster pace than anyone could imagine in the past.

This study investigated how sustainable global market uncertainty, global market opportunities and global competitive threat affect the performance of bankers in Nigeria which can lead to a competitive advantage and an enhancement of industrial development that can bring about global partnership for development which is one of the pivotal goals of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Globalization also enables firms to outsource and find customers around the world, for example, the auto and electronics industries. The globalization of production

and operations benefits firms through the realization of economies of scales and scope (Corswant, 2002; Reyes, Raisinghani, & Singh, 2002). Hence, no one can deny that globalization has changed the way business is conducted in Nigeria.

Although globalization is a worldwide phenomenon, the extent to which each country is globalized is not identical. Thus, it is clear that globalization is an important phenomenon, one that cannot be simply ignored, because every nation—regardless of size or level of development—is globalized and affected by globalization. With the prevalence of this worldwide phenomenon, it is not surprising that businesses are inevitably affected.

The process of globalization creates new challenges and opportunities for firms (Bradley, Hausman & Nolan, 1993). The opportunities include access to new markets that were previously closed due to cost, regulation, or indirect barriers, the ability to tap resources such as labor, capital, and knowledge on a worldwide basis, and the opportunity to participate in global production networks that are becoming prevalent in many industries such as automotive, electronics, toys and textiles. Challenges come from foreign competitors entering firms' domestic markets, and from domestic competitors reducing their costs through global sourcing, moving production offshore or gaining economies of scale by expanding into new markets.

Globalization challenges firms to become more streamlined and efficient while simultaneously extending the geographic reach of their operations.

Responding to these opportunities and challenges increasingly requires a fundamental restructuring of organizational strategy and processes (Bradley et al., 1993). Due to increased competitive pressure, companies are using new technologies to extend their products and operations into the international marketplace (Snow, Snell, Davison & Hambrick, 1996). They are also using these technologies to achieve new innovative transnational organizational forms (Boudreau, Loch, Robey & Straud, 1998; Sturgeon, 2002).

Although, no conclusion can yet be drawn on how these aspects of globalization effects relate to organisational performance. Hence, this study is a step to investigating the magnitude and directions of the relationships between these globalization effects and organisational performance. This will help gain a better understanding about the directions of the effects, and determine appropriate strategies to better manage these effects and help organisations stay competitive in a globalized era.

The most apparent effects of globalisation in literature are global market opportunities and global market threats (e.g., Fawcett,

Calantone, & Smith, 1997; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Hafsi, 2002; Jones, 2002; Molle, 2002). Global market opportunities refer to the increases in market potential, trade and investment potential and resource accessibility (Contractor & Lorange, 1988; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). Global market threats refer to the increases in the number and level of competition, and the level of uncertainty (Burgers, Hill, & Kim, 1993; Fawcett and Closs, 1993; Jones, 2002; Ohmae, 1989a; Perlmutter & Heenan, 1986).

Globalization and Business

The opportunities and threats evoked by globalization have caused firms to adapt their organizational structures and strategies accordingly (Jones, 2002; Knight, 2000). Firms that respond to these trends have been found to improve their performance (Knight, 2000). Therefore, this study is interested in analyzing the effects of global market opportunities and threats on the performance of operators in Nigerian banks.

One apparent demonstration of globalisation is the introduction and adoption of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The adoption of ICTs such as the Internet makes it cheaper and easier for firms to extend their markets, manage their operations and coordinate value chains across borders (Cavusgil, 2002; Williams, Dale, Visser &

Wiele, 2001; Globerman, Roehl & Standifird, 2001). As Alan Greenspan (2001) has said, "By lowering the costs of transactions and information, technology has reduced market frictions and provided significant impetus to the process of broadening world markets". ICT adoption fosters globalization by reducing transaction and coordination costs and creating new and expanded markets with economies of scale (Mann, Eckert & Knight, 2000; Steinfield & Klein, 1999).

Globalization and Organisational Performance

Global market opportunities enable firms to access worldwide resources and expand into many new overseas markets; thus, enhancing firm performance (Hafsi, 2002; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994 include recent source here); while on the other hand, global market threats can be destructive to firm performance due to an increasing number of competitors and an increase in intensity of competition coupled with higher market uncertainty (Eng, 2001; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Hafsi, 2002; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Sanchez, 1997, Thoumarungroje, 2004).

In the wake of 1990s, the world has gone through the process of globalization, one that causes increasing economic, financial, social, cultural, political, market, and environmental interdependence among nations. Business, as well, is inevitably

affected by this process of change towards more interdependence. Many forms of organizational restructuring (such as downsizing, reengineering, implementation of cooperative strategies) have been witnessed as responses to globalization (Jones, 2002).

Effects of Globalization

Since the 1980s, dramatic changes have been witnessed in the international and global market place. Liberalization of world trade and capital markets led by globalization has created a new and challenging competitive arena for all firms (Nolan & Zhang, 2003). With the trend towards more interdependence among nations, several changes in the business environment have emerged. There has been an emergence of global markets for goods, services, labor and financial capital (Deardorff & Stern, 2002; Hansen, 2002). Consumers' demands around the world have converged (Fram & Ajami, 1994; Levitt, 1983; Ohmae, 1989a). Increasing trade and investment liberalization evoked by advances in transportation and communication technologies has resulted in larger volumes of international business transactions (Deardorff & Stern, 2002; Fawcett, Calantone, and Smith, 1997; Fawcett & Closs, 1993).

These trends have brought about two key effects of globalization, namely, global market opportunities and global market threats (Contractor & Lorange, 1988; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Hitt, Keats, &

DeMarie, 1998; Molle, 2002; Perlmutter & Heenan, 1986; Sanchez, 1997). It is obvious that globalization not only presents more opportunities to firms, but also higher levels of threats (D'Aveni, 1994; Eng, 2001; Jones, 2002; Oxley & Yeung, 1998; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). While opportunities can arise from globalization, competition and uncertainty are inevitable.

Global Market Opportunities and Organisational Performance

Global market opportunities can be defined as increases in market potential, trade and investment potential and resource accessibility resulting from globalization (Contractor & Lorange, 1988; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). Developments in information technology, removal of trade and investment barriers, privatization, and deregulation of trade and investment policies have provided firms seeking international markets with tremendous opportunities (Scully & Fawcett, 1994). Such changes in the business environment enable firms to not only access new markets but also lower costs by relocating their operations and exploiting cheap resources around the world (Czuchry & Yasin, 2001). Firms can out source their production in various locations to lower their costs (Chimerine, 1997). Market transactions have also become more efficient due to globalization of technology (Peterson, Welch, & Liesch,

2002). These new market opportunities have eventually fostered rapid growth in various economic sectors in many regions around the world (Graham, 1996).

Global Market Threats and Organisational Performance

Global market threats can be further categorized into 1) global competitive threats and 2) global market uncertainty. Global competitive threats are defined as the intensified competition in global markets resulting from larger numbers of competitors in the global marketplace (D'Aveni, 1994; Hafsi, 2002). Along with higher competition, another threat posed by globalization is global market uncertainty, which refers to the increasing complexity and demand uncertainty in the market (Burgers, Hill, & Kim, 1993; Chimerine, 1997; Courtney, 2001; Oxelheim & Wihlborg, 1991).

Global Competitive Threats

Although globalization enhances a firm's market opportunities, it also increases the amount and level of competition faced by such firms. Trade liberalization, technological developments, and convergence of governmental macroeconomic policies associated with globalization have made it easy for firms around the globe to enter different geographic markets, and thus, intensify the competitive atmosphere for firms around the world (Hafsi, 2002; Harvey & Novicevic, 2002). Globalization has

dramatically changed the competitive terrain faced by firms from both developed and emerging economies (Nolan & Zhang, 2003; Scully and Fawcett, 1994). Firms operating at different levels—domestic, regional, international and global—are now competing against one another. Hence, it is obvious that globalization has brought about a new competitive landscape referred to as “hypercompetitive markets” (Hitt, Keats, and DeMarie, 1998), one that presents enormous threats to firms in every economic sector since it makes a firm's relative competitive advantage very time-sensitive (Harvey & Novicevic, 2002).

In addition, globalization also enables consumers to gather information easier, faster, and at lower costs. Thus, they become well aware of alternative products, and are ready to switch.

Given a growing number of competitors, resources are becoming increasingly scarce (Castrogiovanni, 1991; Dess & Beard, 1984; Porter, 1980). Such hypercompetitive situations coupled with scarce resources is harmful to firm performance (Beard & Dess, 1981; Singh, House & Tucker, 1986). Firms are now faced with less pricing flexibility due to intensified competition and buyers' resistance, which have led to a lower rate of return (Chimerine, 1997).

Global Market Uncertainty

Global market uncertainty, which refers to

the increasing complexity and demand uncertainty in the market (Burgers, Hill, & Kim, 1993; Courtney, 2001; Oxelheim & Wihlborg, 1991) is another threat confronted by firms operating in the global marketplace. Firms are faced with increasing difficulties in planning and making decisions (Chimerine, 1997; Hitt, Keats, & DeMarie, 1998). Demand has become hard to forecast for various reasons. Since a growing number of firms now participate in the global marketplace, forecasting demand and/or competitors' responses has become increasingly difficult. Moreover, technology is changing at a rapid pace and information about new products is easily accessible by consumers. This has enabled consumers to shift between producers, making demand become less predictable and uncertain (Chimerine, 1997)

Since operating in the global marketplace increases the level of uncertainty encountered by firms, their performance is affected. In addition, past studies performance (Downey and Slocum, 1982; Gerloff, Muir, and Bodensteiner, 1991; Waddock and Isabella, 1989) found a negative relationship between perceived uncertainty and firm.

METHOD

Design

The design for the study is a survey design which measured two variables, independent

variable and dependent variable. The independent variable is globalisation effects which comprise global market opportunities, global competitive threat, and global market uncertainty and the dependent variable is perceived performance of operators.

Participants

This study is based on a sample of 301 staff of commercial banks in Lagos State. The respondents were selected conveniently. The participants comprised 199(66.1%) males, and their female counterparts were 102(33.9%). 173(57.5%) of the respondents were single, while 128(42.5%) were married. 157 (52.2%) were young and the older participants were 144 (47.8%). The educational qualification of the respondents ranged from B.Sc/B.Ed/B.A 279 (92.7%), to 12 (4.0%) NCE/OND holders, 6 (2.0%) M.A/M.Eddegree holders and lastly by those with Ph.Ddegree who were 4 (1.3%).

Instrument

The study made use of questionnaire for data gathering which was divided into three sections. The first section measured demographic information of the respondents; second section measured globalisation effects which is a 24 item

scale developed by Thoumarungroje (2004) with a 7-point Likert type response format ranging from strongly disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree (7) and the third section measures firm performance which was adopted for the study. The scale is a four self-reported items which reflect the level of a manager's satisfaction in terms of return on investment, sales goals, profit goals, and growth. These items were adopted from Grewal and Tansuhaj (2001) and was rated on a seven-point scale (1= very unsatisfactory, neutral, and 7= very satisfactory). The author reported Cronbach alpha of 0.92 for global market opportunities; 0.92 for global competitive threat; 0.81 for global market uncertainty; and 0.91 for firm performance. But for the present study, the researcher reported Cronbach reliability of 0.95, 0.91, 0.92, and 0.96 respectively.

Statistical Analyses

The demographic information was analysed using frequency counts and simple percentages. Also, the hypotheses for the study were analysed using regression analysis and Pearson correlation. Hypothesis 1 was tested using regression analysis and hypothesis 2 was tested using Pearson correlation.

RESULTS

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis one: There will be a joint effect of global market opportunities, global competitive threat, and global market uncertainty on perceived performance of operators.

Table 1a: Summary of regression table showing the joint effect of global market opportunities, global competitive threat, and global market uncertainty on the performance of operators.

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Regression	16096.836	3	5365.612	73.570	.000
Residual	21660.965	297	72.933		
Total	37757.801	300			

R = .653, R² = .426, Adj R² = .421

It was shown in table 1a that the joint effect of global market opportunities, global competitive threat, and global market uncertainty on the performance of operators was significant (F(3,297) = 73.570; R = .653, R² = .426, Adj. R² = 0.421; p< .05). About 43% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables while the remaining 57% was due to chance. The hypothesis is therefore accepted.

Table 1b: Summary table showing the independent effects of the variables on the performance of operators

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient	t	p	
(Constant)		2.486		6.477	.000	
Global Market opportunities	.401	16.106	.094	.291	4.270	.000
Global Competitive threat	.297	.218	.101	1.358	.175	
Global Market Uncertainty	.555	.111	.333	5.024	.000	

The result in table 1b shows the relative contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable Global Market opportunities (β = .291, p<.05), Global Competitive threat (β = .101, p>.05), Global Market Uncertainty (β = .333, p<.05), respectively. Hence, Global Market Opportunities and Global market Uncertainty were found significant while Global Competitive threat was not.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant relationship between global market opportunities and perceived performance of operators.

Table 2: Summary of correlation table showing the relationship between market opportunities and the performance of operators

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	r	p
Global Market Opportunities	38.8505	8.1380	301	.586**	.000
Performance of Operators	51.3654	11.2187			

It was shown in table 2 that there was a significant relationship between global market opportunities and performance of operators ($r = .586$, $N = 301$, $p < .05$). The hypothesis is therefore accepted.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS

The result of this study shows that there was a joint effect of global market opportunities, global competitive threat, and global market uncertainty on the performance of operators. This finding substantiates the argument that globalization brings about both opportunities and competition. The opportunities and threats evoked by globalization have caused firms to adapt their organizational structures and strategies accordingly (Jones, 2002; Knight, 2000). Firms that respond to these trends have been found to improve their performance (Knight, 2000).

Although globalization enhances an

organisation's market opportunities, it also increases the amount and level of competition faced by such organisations. Trade liberalization, technological developments, and convergence of governmental macroeconomic policies associated with globalization have made it easy for firms around the globe to enter different geographic markets, and thus, intensify the competitive atmosphere for firms around the world (Hafsi, 2002; Harvey & Novicevic, 2002). Globalization has dramatically changed the competitive terrain faced by firms from both developed and emerging economies (Nolan & Zhang, 2003; Scully & Fawcett, 1994).

The findings of this study also confirmed that there was a significant relationship between global market opportunities and performance of operators. This confirmed previous studies in this area. According to literature (e.g. Hafsi, 2002; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Shocker, Srivastava, &

Ruekert, 1994), global market opportunities enable firms to access worldwide resources and expand into many new overseas markets which enhances firm performance. Developments in information technology, removal of trade and investment barriers, privatization, and deregulation of trade and investment policies have provided firms seeking international markets with tremendous opportunities (Scully & Fawcett, 1994). Such changes in the business environment enable firms to not only access new markets but also lower costs by relocating their operations and exploiting cheap resources around the world (Czuchry & Yasin, 2001). Organisations can outsource their production in various locations to lower their costs (Chimerine, 1997). Market transactions have also become more efficient due to globalization of technology (Peterson, Welch, & Liesch, 2002). These new market opportunities have eventually fostered rapid growth in various economic sectors in many regions around the world (Graham, 1996).

Also, global market opportunities leads to increase in market potential, trade and investment potential and resource accessibility resulting from globalization (Contractor & Lorange, 1988; Fawcett & Closs, 1993; Jones, 2002; Levitt, 1983; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994).

The findings from this study nonetheless have some implications for managers. This

support the argument that globalization not only benefits firms in terms of increasing opportunities, but also hurts business performance due to higher competitive threats (e.g., Contractor & Lorange, 1999, D'Aveni, 1994, Jones, 2002, Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). This study elaborated on the different effects that globalization has on business. This study also confirms that globalization is a universal phenomenon and that firms are inevitably affected.

Globalization can affect an organisation's performance positively and negatively. While global market opportunities are likely to enhance performance, global competitive threats tend to worsen it. Therefore, managers must be aware of such double-edged effects, and try to capitalize on opportunities while converting threats into opportunities. Appropriate strategies, such as developing networking relationships with other organisations, must be carefully designed and implemented in order to take advantage of global market opportunities and minimize the threats from increasing competitive intensity.

In the short run, intense global competition may be deemed harmful for organisational performance. However, in the long run, such competition will provide a healthier economy that benefits the overall society. Higher competition will eventually encourage organisations to aim for continual improvements, which are good

for both the organisations and society.

Conclusion

This study has advanced knowledge on globalization phenomenon by looking at the effects it has on business operations. This study has provided considerable support for literature arguing that globalization acts as a two-edged sword, one that can be beneficial and detrimental to business. Therefore, managers should be prepared to cope with such effects and try to capitalize on global market opportunities while carefully managing its inherent threats.

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INFLUENCE OF COHORT AND GENDER ON DEATH ANXIETY AMONG ADULTS IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA

by

Olatunji Olabimpe Ajoke¹, Olagundoye Helen Foluke²

^{1&2}Department of Psychology, Faculty of the Social Sciences
Federal University Oye Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.
(jokolatunji@gmail.com)
(foluketosuccess@yahoo.com)

Abstract

The study explored the influence of cohort and gender on death anxiety among three age groups of adults; namely early adults (18–34 years), middle adults (35-60years) and late adults (60 years and above). A total of 468 adults (male = 230, female = 238) were drawn from among Nigerian adults residents in Ekiti State using a multi-stage random sampling technique. The Death Anxiety Scale (DAS) developed by Templer (1970) was used to measure death anxiety and a single item in the questionnaire measured age and gender of the participants. Four hypotheses were tested and the data were analyzed using One-Way ANOVA and Independent t -test. The results revealed that there is no significant influence of age cohort on death anxiety. The results also revealed that the female middle adult age group only significantly scored higher than their male counterpart on death anxiety. It was concluded that gender predicts death anxiety among middle age cohort while age is not a good predictor of death anxiety among adults. The results were discussed with the framework of the relevant theories in the field of psychology while it was recommended that the current modern societies should create a variety of mechanisms for removing and reducing the actual experience of fear of death from everyday life.

Keywords: Age cohort, sex, death anxiety, adults, Ekiti State.

INTRODUCTION

Death is one of the features that characterize human life. It is a common saying that death is certain in life. In spite of the certainty of this reality, people seem unable to escape anxiety at the prospect of death (Tomer & Eliason, 2000). As people live their lives day by day, they suffer different degrees of anxiety about death (Belsky, 2008). Humans are aware of the inevitability of their own death (Solomon, 2004). Death presents one of the most formidable challenges to the idea that human life has meaning and purpose. Giving these facts, it should be no surprise that fear has been one of the most commonly expressed responses of humans to death. Humans are psychological and social beings and it is people's interactions with other humans that complete individual's existence and gives their lives meaning. Death is thus separation from people and other things that gives individual's life form and reason for existence; Death is the loss of everything that an individual holds dear. It is thus no wonder that man is anxious about death which brings separation from all that an individual do not want to loose or part with.

Kalish (1985) defines death anxiety as the thoughts, fears and emotions about that final event of living that human beings experience under more normal conditions of life. Dickson and Leming (1996) explained death anxiety as a learned emotional response to death – related

phenomenon characterized by extreme apprehension. They explained that people view and interprets death differently based on their experiences with their environments. While some give it a positive meaning, looking upon it with pleasure, some others give it a negative meaning and view it with fear and anxiety. Death anxiety is a negative feeling a person experiences about death and dying. Fear and anxiety about death are universal and most individuals repressed or denied its truth and its negative feelings.

Anxiety about death is related in complex ways to factors such as age (Fortner & Neiyemer, 2000), religious belief (Suhail & Akram, 2002) and the degree to which the individual has lived a full and satisfying life (Rando, 1991). Also, gender has been linked to death anxiety in several ways (Zisook & Downs, 2000).

In all societies, lifetime is divided into socially relevant units and biological time is translated into social time (Togonu-Bickersteth, 1987). There is no evidence that a special orientation towards death develops in early adulthood (Arogundade & Adebayo, 2011). An increase in consciousness about death accompanies individuals' awareness that they are aging, which usually intensifies in middle adulthood. Researchers have found that middle-aged adults actually fear death more than do young adult or older adults (Kalish & Reynolds, 1976). Older adults though

think about death more and talk about it more in conversation with others than do middle aged and young adults. They also have more direct experience with death as their friends and relatives become ill and die. Older adults are therefore forced to examine the meanings of life and death more frequently than are younger adults (Cuddy-Casey & Orvaschel, 1996). Neugarten (1988) in his studies identified some of the ways whereby age has been conceptualized and concluded that chronological age has become a less accurate prediction of most life events including death anxiety in our society. He stated further that an individual age profile involves more than just chronological age; it also consists of biological age, psychological age and social age. Diena, Suh, Lucas, and Smith (1999) also concluded in their study that death does not seem to be related to chronological age but that death anxiety may be a function of past experience rather than current life circumstances.

Gender refers to the social and psychological dimensions of being female and male. Both gender and age are often related to death anxiety. Females tend to report higher death anxiety than males and they are more responsive and sensitive to the needs of the people with life threatening conditions (Togonu – Bickersteth, 1987), this could be due to the fact that expression of feelings especially those of vulnerability are encouraged in girls but discouraged in

boys (Gur & others, 2009). Also, the nature of the female jobs and their various professions expose them more to the less disadvantaged in the society, for example, nurses in hospitals or teachers of primary school pupils are mostly women in this part of the world, thus women are more exposed to situations where expression of feelings are needed.

The Research Problem

Most researches on adulthood identified age as a poor predictor of the timing of life events, as well as poor predictor of a person's health, work status, family status and of a person's interests and needs (Neugarten, 1994). How relevant is the concept of age in the prediction of death anxiety in adults is one of the major problems of this research work. Gender affects adult's lives profoundly in determining choices or whether one will have certain choices at all in relationships and sequences of experiences, thus, another important problem of this work is to identify the difference if any in the death anxiety level of both male and female age cohorts of adult.

Research objectives

Arising from the problem of the study, the following are the objectives of the research:

- I. Find out if there is any significant age difference in the level of death anxiety among the three age groups of early, middle and late adults in this part of the country.

- ii. Compare male and female in the three age groups of early, middle and late adult age groups in their levels of death anxiety.

Hypotheses

- i. Middle adults will significantly score higher on death anxiety than their early and late adult age groups.
- ii. Early adult female will significantly score higher on death anxiety scale than their male counterparts.
- iii. Middle adults female will significantly score higher on death anxiety scale than their male counterparts.
- iv. Late adult female will significantly score higher on death anxiety scale than their male counterparts.

METHOD

Design

This research work employs a cross-sectional survey design with the use of questionnaires. The approach to the design is comparative; this is because adults of three different age groups were compared at one time. The three cohorts of adults, viz: early (18 – 34 years), middle (35 – 60 years) and late (60 years and above) were compared on death anxiety.

Study Area

The study area was Ekiti State. This state is one of the many Yoruba states in what is today Nigeria. In the words of Babatola (2008), “Ekiti state is historically homogenous, culturally identical, geographically contiguous and religiously similar”. The present study employed a sample of participants from Nine Local Governments in Ekiti State: three Local Governments each from the three senatorial districts in Ekiti State. Ado-Ekiti (Ekiti Central Senatorial District), Ikole-Ekiti (Ekiti North senatorial district) and Ikere-Ekiti (Ekiti South senatorial district) are the headquarters of the three senatorial districts in Ekiti State which were purposively sampled for inclusion in the study. Additional two other Local Government headquarters from each of the three senatorial districts were randomly selected for the study and they are Aramoko-Ekiti, Efon-Alaaye, Ido-Ekiti, Iye-Ekiti, Ise/Orun and Omuo-Ekiti. All the nine Local Government headquarters were majorly dominated by Yoruba people though, other Nigerian ethnic groups were present sparingly in each of the towns.

Participants

The research participants in this study comprised a total of 468 adults spreading across three categories of adulthood viz: early, middle and late. These participants were sampled from among both literates and illiterates individuals in the entire state.

160 (61 males and 99 females) were early adults, 223 (103 males and 120 females) were mid-adults while 85 (66 males and 19 females) were late adults.

Sampling Technique

The study employed a multi-stage sampling technique. The purposive sampling technique was employed to select the three senatorial district headquarters while the systematic random sampling technique was employed to select the remaining six Local Government Areas (LGAs), two from each of the three senatorial districts.

The stratified random sampling technique was employed to select the proportion of the representative sample from the total population.

The quota sampling technique was used to select respondents from each of the group categories to ensure that each of the group reflect all the three age categories of adults (early, middle and late adults).

Instrument

The research instrument consisted of two parts, the first part required demographic information relating to age and gender of the individual respondent while the second part consisted of

Death Anxiety Scale (DAS) developed by Templer (1970) to measure concerns, fear, apprehensions and foreboding people often experience about dying. It is a 15 item inventory. Items 1, 5, and 15 marked for true "T" while 2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13, and 14 for false "F". A score of 1 point is given to each expected response and add together the number of "T" and "F" correctly marked in the item were added together to obtain the total score for DAS.

Templer (1970) provided the original psychometric properties for American sample while the properties for Nigerian sample were provided by Adebakin (1990), Erinoso (1996) and Uzosike (1998). The reliability coefficient reported by Templer, (1970) are KR- 20 internal congruency= 0.76, three (3) week test - retest = 0.83, Adebakin (1990); 3 week test-rest= 0.45. The concurrent validity coefficients were obtained by correlating DAS with Fear of Personal Death Scale (FPDS) developed by Florian and Kravetz (1990) and obtained 0.45.

The mean is the basis for interpreting scores of participants. Scores higher than the mean indicate that the participant manifests high or abnormal death anxiety while scores lower than the mean indicate that the participant manifests normal death anxiety level.

RESULTS

One -way ANOVA was employed to determine the influence of the three age groups – early adults, middle adults and late adults on death anxiety while the

Independent t-test was used to compare the male group and female group on death anxiety.

Table 1: Summary Table Showing the Mean Scores and Standard Deviation of the three Age Cohorts on Death Anxiety

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Early adults	160	5.73	1.846
Middle adults	223	5.85	2.177
Late adults	85	5.80	2.627
Total	468	5.80	2.158

Table 2: One -way ANOVA Summary Table Showing the Influence of Age Cohorts on Death Anxiety

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F
Between groups	1.503	2	0.752	
Within groups	2173.617	465	4.674	0.161 [#]
Total	2175.120	467		

= Not significant

The results presented in table 2 shows that there is no significant difference among the three age cohorts on death anxiety ($F(2, 467) = 0.161; P > 0.05$). Hypothesis one which states that middle adults age group will significantly score higher on death anxiety than early adult and late adults was therefore rejected.

Table 3: t- test Summary Table Showing Gender Difference in Death Anxiety among Early Adults

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t
Male	61	5.64	2.050	158	0.460 [#]
Female	99	5.78	1.718		

Not significant

The results presented in table 3 shows that there is no significant difference between male and female early adult group on death anxiety ($t(158) = 0.460$, $P > 0.05$).

Hypothesis two which states that early adult female will significantly score higher on death anxiety than their male counterparts was therefore rejected.

Table 4: t- test Summary Table of Results Showing Gender Difference In Death Anxiety among Middle Adults.

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t
Male	103	5.47	2.213		
Female	120	6.18	2.098	221	2.481*

* **Significant**

The results presented in table 4 show that there is a significant difference between male and female middle adult group on death anxiety ($t(221) = 2.481$; $P < 0.05$).

Hypothesis three, which states that middle adult female will significantly score higher on death anxiety than their male counterparts was therefore supported.

Table 5: t- test Summary Table Showing Gender Difference in Death Anxiety among Late Adults

Group	N	Mean	SD	Df	t
Male	66	5.53	2.591		
Female	19	6.74	2.600	83	1.787 [#]

[#] = **Not significant**

The results presented in table 5 show that there is no significant difference between male and female late adult group on death anxiety ($t(83) = 1.787$, $P > 0.05$). Hypothesis four which states that late adult female will significantly score higher on death anxiety than their male counterparts was therefore rejected.

DISCUSSION

The age cohorts of respondents did not have any significant influence on their death anxiety scores. This implies that death anxiety is not influenced by age cohorts of adults in Ekiti State. However, the mean score of middle adults is the highest but the difference is not significant. Early hypothesis focused on age as a probable

factor in death anxiety. The initial theories held that as people got older and closer to death they would have more anxiety about death but recent researches have remained inconclusive about the role of age in the level of death anxiety exhibited by adults. This has led to different contradictory conclusions about the relationship of age and death anxiety. According to Neugarten (1988), the current society is becoming an age irrelevant society, where age should be conceptualized biologically, socially and psychologically and not chronologically only. Diena et al, (1999) also argued that chronological age is not very relevant to understanding a person's psychological development which is an individual capacities compared to those of other individuals of the same chronological age. In predicting an adult's behavior, it may be more important to know an overall age profile of such an individual which involves more than just chronological age and which has become a less accurate prediction of most life events including death anxiety in our society.

The hypothesis that tested the role of gender on death anxiety was partially confirmed. Female middle adults group alone significantly scored higher than their male counterparts. However, the early and late adults groups did not show significant gender difference in death anxiety. A lot of researchers have found significant difference with women reporting higher levels of death anxiety. This could also be

due to the fact that, expression of feelings, especially those of vulnerability are encouraged in girls but discouraged in boys (Togonu- Bickersteth, 1987).

The implication of the results generated by this present study on the effect of gender on death anxiety is that, this study is an added advantage to earlier researches because it is a developmental research which compared three different age groups of adults on the concept of death anxiety. It has specifically identified the age group and gender of adults which are most prone to death anxiety in adults. That is, it has bridged the gap of different researchers who are either linking or not linking gender to death anxiety by identifying the middle adult female group alone having a significant influence on death anxiety. Thus, the language of generalization of female adults has been substituted to a language of specification of a particular female adult age group alone.

Conclusion

The two main conclusions of this research are that age is a less accurate measure in the prediction of death anxiety among adult age groups in Ekiti State, it may be necessary to involve the role of psychosocial or emotional maturity with age in future studies. Also, Gender is an important predictor of death anxiety. It identified female middle adults group as having the highest level of death anxiety.

Recommendation

It is recommended that societies should create a variety of institutional mechanisms for reducing the actual experience of death from everyday life. In addition to traditional mechanisms such as religion and culture, hospices, drugs, death education, psychotherapy, philosophical belief system and conducive environment equipped with adequate infrastructure serve to reduce the fear of death. This sanitizes and eases the pain of the transition from life to death. It thus becomes even less for societal members to fear such an abstraction as death.

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**PSYCHOLOGY OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP: PROMOTING TRUST AND
EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE MILITARY**

by

Ogwo Agatha Ogechi

Department of Psychology,
Nasarawa State University Keffi, Nigeria
Phone: 08035003954; 08093930346
Email:ogegbu@yahoo.com

Abstract

The military is a group of individuals who are usually trained and equipped to perform national security tasks in unique and often chaotic and trauma filled situation. In the armed forces, officers usually encounter different kinds of situations, there is need to have a deeper knowledge of men and appropriate ways of directing them to surmount these situations. Successful leadership requires special skills and traits, but more importantly, a basic knowledge of psychology because this will aid in understanding what motivates people's actions and perceptions and thus be in a better position to adjust their management style. This paper examines the psychology of military leadership with special emphasis on the psychological principles that officers can use in efficiently directing their men to achieve greater proficiency and success in battle.

Keywords: Psychology, Military, Trust, Effective Leadership

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is conceptualized by Vroom and Jago (2007), as a process of motivating people to work together collaboratively to accomplish great things. Historically, leaders are said to be born, not made (Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2000). People who adhere to this view believe that there is something about a person that determines whether he or she will be an extraordinary leader (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2000). In years past also, effective leadership is linked to charisma, intelligence and other personality traits; however, recent scholars believe that for leaders to be effective, they must work to understand the values and opinions of their followers about what the group embodies and stand for and thus how it should act. According to Haslam, Reicher and Platow (2011) effective leadership is grounded in the capacity of the leader to embody and promote a social identity that they share with others. These authors argued that leadership is the product of individual's 'We-ness' rather than of individual's 'I-ness'. Thus a good leader does not think in isolation, but believe in group process whereby leaders and followers are joined together. For this to succeed leaders need to represent and champion the group. They also need to create and embed a sense of shared identity. Ross and Staw (1993) asserted that effectiveness in leaders lies in their ability to figure out how to maintain a level of decisiveness even when the social cues do not point clearly to an appropriate

response. Psychological research has shown that those who perceive their own status accurately are more likely to be influenced (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, Spataro & Chatman, 2006). Also, leaders can incite members' to agree with and care intensely about organizational objectives by increasing member's openness to organizational influence which may include both unfreezing members' prior beliefs and influencing subsequent beliefs and behaviours through shared expectations of others (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996). In essence, leadership is more about the ability to shape what followers actually want to do, not the act of enforcing compliance using rewards and punishment.

Going by the social identity theory of leadership, a key function of leadership is to forge, transform and consolidate one's identity as a member of a group. This implies that if membership in a group is important to a person's sense of self, the person is more likely to be influenced by a leader who matches his or her understanding of what the group stands for, than by one who does not (Hoggs, 2007).

Military Leadership concept is not a new approach. It is widely used (Eicher & Eicher, 2001; Taylor, 1977), and it considers the interactions of a military leader and his subordinates in an organization. Responsibility and chain of command are usually, very important dimensions in military leadership. Military leadership

aims to support the productivity and effectiveness of a leader by providing security service. It encourages sympathy toward colleagues needs, considering the world issues from different perceptions, and critical thinking(Taylor, 1977).

Military psychology deals with the use of appropriate psychological methods in camp life in teaching military theory and practice, in combat situations. The officer, by definition, a human engineer is also a psychologist to the degree that he makes use of facts and rules of action available for sound and adequate handling of the men in his command. Military psychology is thus one of the many branches that are designated as human engineering.

The use of psychological techniques in handling men in wartime is as old as war itself but the application of accurately determined rules of human engineering for military situations is relatively recent. There are many approaches to the study of human engineering in military science, but of interest to this paper are the psychological principles that any officer can use in efficiently directing the activities of his men in order to attain ultimate success in battle and thus speeding the military man on his way toward greater proficiency in his handling of the men assigned to him (Eicher & Eicher, 2001).

Modern military jobs according to Janowitz (1960) are usually non combat jobs. In some

instance, they require knowledge from the very frontiers of science. Even in peacetime, however, the atmosphere is often one of crises, danger and stress. Operations are often conducted in environments that are exotic both physically and culturally, and involve complex, expensive, technically advanced, rapidly obsolescing equipment (Janowitz, 1960). On daily basis, every officer in the armed forces encounters numerous situations in which a more thorough knowledge of men and how to direct them would be of inestimable value. This is particularly true in the case of young officers in training and those who have recently graduated from officer training schools. The major task of the line officer when all has been said and done is that of controlling men.

Psychology as a matter of fact deals with the understanding, prediction and control of man's behaviour, and since the major task of a line officer is that of controlling men, his is the job of human engineering, since he directs his men and is in turn, directed by his superior officers. To serve efficiently in his capacity, the officer must readily acquire those tricks of the trade that make for effective functioning of his entire command. It is important for example to teach the men during their initial training periods that time, energy, morale is conserved. This is a practical problem in human engineering and it is closely related to the understanding and control of human

behaviour, namely to psychology in general terms (Hoggs, 2007).

Forsyth (2010), distinguished between task and relationship model of leadership which maintains that most leadership behaviours can be classified as performance maintenance or relationship maintenance. Task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership are two models that are often compared, as they are known to produce varying outcomes under different circumstances.

Task-oriented (or task-focused) leadership is a behavioural approach in which the leader focuses on the tasks that need to be performed in order to meet certain goals, or to achieve a certain performance standard. These leaders focus on getting the necessary task, or series of tasks, at hand in order to achieve a goal. These leaders are typically less concerned with the idea of catering for employees, and more concerned with finding the step-by-step solution required in meeting specific goals. Such leaders often actively define the work and the roles required, put structures in place, and plan, organize, and monitor progress within the team (Griffin & Ebert, 2010; Manktelow, 2012).

Relationship-oriented (or relationship-focused) leadership on the other hand is a behavioural approach in which the leader focuses on the satisfaction, motivation and the general well-being of the team members

.They are focused on supporting, motivating and developing the people on their teams and the relationships within. This style of leadership encourages good teamwork and collaboration, through fostering positive relationships and good communication. Relationship-oriented leaders prioritize the welfare of everyone in the group, and will place time and effort in meeting the individual needs of everyone involved. This may involve offering incentives like bonuses, providing mediation to deal with workplace or classroom conflicts, having more casual interactions with team members to learn about their strengths and weaknesses, creating a non-competitive and transparent work environment, or just leading in a personable or encouraging manner(Griffin & Ebert, 2010; Manktelow, 2012).

Officer as a Teacher

Every officer is a teacher. One of the skills of a teacher is their ability to instruct and the ability to instruct has a place among the skills of the officer. Making errors is a normal procedure in learning since men learn from their errors. To repeat the same error is quite unnecessary and inefficient. Most officers can and should improve their instructional methods if they watch for common errors that reduce in degree the effectiveness of their instruction.

Fundamental principles of instructions include the Principle of Decentralization which states that every officer must first

have learned military theory and tactics before teaching them to the subordinate officer. Thus he tells them what to do and when the task is completed (Schmitt, 1997). Decentralization is not merely one choice of command and control, but a basic nature of war. Centralized command and control represents an effort to muscle the system into some unnatural position. In decentralized command, young officers are rarely told how to carry out orders. The principle of decentralization makes every officer a learner and every officer a teacher. In this way, every officer is prepared by experience for leadership in the armed forces.

Whether orders are given by officers orally or in writing, the officer is responsible for the successful completion. When given orders, the subordinate officer should repeat the orders as he understands it. It is better to use slightly different words from those originally used to make sure that the orders are well understood. Second the officer should ask questions until the details of the duty are comprehended. Questions should however be limited to those absolutely necessary to a clear understanding of the mission and should refer to the ways in which the duty is to be accomplished. Third, the officer should avail himself of a convenient pocket sized notebook in which to write down orders and other facts. In line with this principle, each young officer must expect to be told what and when and not how because he is

expected to work out for himself, 'how'. To achieve this, he must be an efficient and rapid learner. He must likewise be an enthusiastic and clear headed teacher. To accomplish his goals, he must look upon his training orders as opportunities to learn and increase his effectiveness as a leader of his men. The principle of decentralisation therefore provides an avenue for the qualified officer with opportunities for advancement, according to their capacities and proficiencies (Schmitt, 1997).

Progressive training is another principle. In order to teach theory and skills to his men, the officer must always begin with simple facts and drills following each with progressively more and more complex ones. The instructor starts with the simple and builds step by step until the parts are linked with one another and until a complex series of ideas or skilled acts has been acquired by even the slowest learner (Morgan, Brown, Reglin, O'Conner & Ellickson, 1987).

For proper application of progressive training technique, Morgan, Brown, Reglin, O'Conner & Ellickson (1987) asserted that the officer should make inventory of the different segments of the military theory and tactics to be taught. This enables the officer to be familiar with the material and prevents him from forgetting major and minor points in his instruction. They should as well plan and schedule instruction times i.e., always determine in advance the length

of time allowed for class instruction as well as for field-drill. If the time is short, the class periods must be spaced at greater intervals. This makes possible the use of spaced practice in learning. Because time-place habits facilitate learning, they must always be a part of the training program. Again, the inventory should be broken into segments ranging from the simple to the complex. As the instructor knows what to teach his men, and how long it will take him to accomplish the task, he then proceeds to allot time for each section of the theory or drill to be learned. The most fundamental points are placed first, all others following in sequence and in conformity with the principle of progressive training(Morgan, Brown, Reglin, O'Conner & Ellickson, 1987).

Also, drills to be learned should be divided into segments, ranging from simple to complex, about four segments. After learning first part in the segment, each personnel in the outfit should proceed to learn the second part and after learning the first two parts the officer should require his men to execute the segments learned before proceeding to the next. At the end of the day the instructor must allow final drill periods. This provides for practice in combining all parts. It aids in achieving smooth efficient performance (Morgan, Brown, Reglin, O'Conner & Ellickson, 1987). Part of the Psychological principles underlying the principle of progressive training is that a people learn most rapidly when they

understand the nature of the subject and why they need to learn it. Again, people learn and remember best when the new subject matter is closely tied to the already known; A person attends to one item of experience at a time and the learner should practice in the manner in which he is later to use new facts and skills(Morgan, Brown, Reglin, O'Conner & Ellickson,1987).

Military leaders according to Eicher & Eicher, (2001) can use various psychological means to arouse officer's interest. These include; arousal of attitude of intent to learn by telling them how the lesson or drill conforms to the general pattern of combat preparation; Use of praise and reward following immediately upon evidence of successful termination of a worthwhile duty; Recognition given in the form of proficiency certificates and placements in more advanced courses; Promotion to special posts; Avoiding of negative incentives like fear of failure, demerit systems and extreme punishment. Also, officers or leaders preparing men for learning should sparingly use threats and fear of the consequences of poor performance. This is because genuine interest is hardly aroused by the application of force, fear and compulsion (Eicher & Eicher, 2001).

Trust in Military Leadership

Trust is defined by Boon and Holmes (1991), as 'a state involving confident positive expectations about another's

motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk'. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), defined trust as an individual's willingness to be vulnerable to another individual (e.g. a leader, subordinate or peer). In the armed forces, tasks in life and death situations are usually performed and this makes the issue of trust in military leaders very vital. Dirks and Ferrin, (2002) asserted that trust in leaders, particularly immediate leaders, is perhaps more important than trust between peers. Dependence on and trust in military leaders can involve considerable risk to the individual, as any mistakes made by the leader may result in serious injury or death. Obeying orders is an essential aspect of the military profession and Collins and Jacobs (2002) explain that trust is critical in a military context since individuals are expected to give up their right to self-determination and follow orders. Refusal not only puts the individual soldier at risk, but also his or her team members and leaders. The hierarchical military system puts subordinates in a vulnerable position in relation to the leader. This vulnerability not only creates the opportunity to trust but also increases sensitivity to negative manifestations of the leader's behaviours (Lapidot, Kark and Shamir, 2007). Another aspect of risk in this context is that leaders who fail to build trust from their subordinates are at high risk of becoming injured or even killed by their own subordinates.

Hamby (2002) states that 'Leaders who cannot identify with their troops and who cannot develop and maintain a bond of trust and faith with their men, contribute more than anything else to mutiny'. Trust in military leadership can be viewed either as a psychological state or as a choice behaviour.

Trust as a Psychological State

As a psychological state, trust is first, conceptualized as a state of perceived vulnerability or risk derived from individuals' uncertainty concerning motives, intentions, and prospective actions of others on whom they depend; general attitude or expectancy about other people and the social system in which they exist; and a complex, multidimensional psychological state that includes affective and motivational components (Hamby 2002).

Trust as a Choice Behaviour

Another way of conceptualizing trust is as an individual's choice behaviour. It looks upon trust as a rational choice (decisions about trust are comparable with decisions about other risky choices). Central elements in this perspective are the knowledge that enables a person to trust another and the incentives of the trustee (the person who is to be trusted). Hardin (1992) suggests that trust should be conceptualized as a three-part relation involving properties of a trustor, attributes of a trustee, and a specific context or domain over which trust is

discussed.

Distrust has been defined as “confident negative expectations regarding another's conduct” (Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998). On one hand, trust and distrust have been suggested to be separate concepts and not two ends of the same continuum (Lapidot, Kark, & Shamir, 2007). According to this view, trust and distrust are considered separate judgements, i.e. individuals in a complex relationship can hold both trusting and distrusting intentions and expectations towards another. Also, they have different antecedents and consequents. However, other researchers are of the opinion that trust and distrust are not different constructs.

Some researchers argue that distrust is inherently bad while others suggest that some distrust can be functional and healthy (e.g. when there are valid reasons to have concerns about the trustworthiness of others). Too much trust can lead to “blindness” which may lead to the individual being exploited (Lewicki Tomlinson & Gillespie, 2006).

Qualities of a good Leader

According to Charan (2007), leaders are expected to be ambitious, which is a desire to achieve something visible and noteworthy. This propels leaders to push themselves and others. However, when leaders have blind ambitions they make

flashy acquisitions that are financially unsound or set attention-getting goals or even take on more priorities than the organization can handle out of a desire to do everything. Overambitiousness, and lack of integrity, can lead undesirable behaviour and even corruption.

Another characteristic of a leader is Drive and Tenacity; some leaders have an inner motor that pushes them to get to the heart of an issue and find solutions. They drill for specific answers and don't give up until they get them. Their high energy is infectious. They consistently drive their priorities through the organization. They search tenaciously for information they're missing and keep tweaking their mental models until they arrive at a positioning that works. But drive and tenacity can cause a leader to stick to a plan that isn't working, or outdated assumptions, or an investment that is no longer promising (Charan, 2007).

Rutherford, (2005) suggested that good leaders also have self confidence. These manifests in the ability of one to be able to listen to one's own inner voice and endure the lonely moments when an important decision falls on ones shoulders. Leaders have to be able to speak their minds and act decisively knowing that they can withstand the consequences. It's not a matter of acting tough. It's having a tough inner core, or what some refer to as emotional fortitude. Underlying fears and insecurities can be just as detrimental to your know-how as can

excessive self-confidence in the form of narcissism or arrogance.

Some leaders have a need to be liked. They therefore tend to go easy on people. They have an especially hard time dismissing people who have been loyal to them. Such leaders often find their own progress slowed because they promote people for the wrong reasons, tolerate non performers, and allow the social system to corrode (Rutherford, 2005). Also, leaders who are afraid of response tend to avoid conflicts and find it hard to challenge people on their performance or point of view. They back off when they should be giving brutally honest feedback and sometimes have a third party do that work for them (Rutherford, 2005).

Again, leaders with a fear of failure are often indecisive, defensive and less likely to spot opportunities because they are risk-averse. They find it hard to select goals for fear of choosing the wrong ones and wait too long to connect the dots in the external environment or to reposition the business. Self-confidence also affects your use or abuse of power. Every leader has to use power from time to time in assigning tasks, allocating resources, selecting or promoting people, giving differentiated rewards or redirecting dialogue. An excessive fear of failure or fear of response can make a leader uncomfortable using power, and not using power appropriately actually erodes it. Failure to deal with a recalcitrant direct report, for instance, diminishes the leader's

power. On the other hand, narcissistic leaders tend to abuse power, using it irrationally or against the interests of the organization (Rutherford, 2005).

Leaders are supposed to be willingly open so as to allow themselves to be influenced by other people and their ability to share their ideas openly enhances the know-how, on the other hand, being psychologically closed can cause problems. Leaders who are psychologically open seek diverse opinions, so they see and hear more and factor a wider range of information into their decisions. Their openness permeates the social system, enhancing communication. Those who are psychologically closed are secretive and afraid to test their ideas, often cloaking that fear under the guise of confidentiality. They're distant from their direct reports and have no one outside to bounce ideas off of or to provide information that counters their own beliefs. In the new environment of complexity, being psychologically closed makes it particularly difficult to reposition the business, because the leader lacks perspectives from diverse disciplines, functions and cultures (Charan, 2007).

Leaders' know-how improves with exposure to diverse situations with increasing levels of complexity, so an eagerness for new challenges is essential. Leaders who seek out new experiences and learn from them will build their know-how faster than those who don't.

Conclusion

For success to be recorded in the military or any organization, good leadership is the key. It takes years of knowledge and experience for one to become a great leader. Failing a number of times on the road to becoming a great leader is normal as long as the individual arise immediately, dusts his/her skin and move on. Also one must be willing to learn constantly from others and be ready for change in order to become a great leader. Imbibing the qualities discussed above by leaders will make way for a more thorough knowledge of men and more appropriate way of handling them, which in the long run will promote trust and effective leadership in the military.

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TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION TECHNIQUES FOR BOLSTERING LEARNING OUTCOMES AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

by

Akuto Grace Wandoo (PhD)¹, Atser Comfort Iveren (PhD)²

^{1&2}Department of Educational Foundations and General Studies
University of Agriculture Makurdi, Benue State

Abstract

The study investigated into secondary school teachers' perception of the use of differential behaviour modification techniques in bolstering student's learning outcomes. The study used descriptive survey research design. A 20-item questionnaire was used to collect data from a sample of 216 teachers. Data was analyzed using means and standard deviations while the hypothesis was tested using the t-test statistics. The major finding shows that a significant number of teachers agree that positive behavior modification techniques are more successful in bolstering learning outcomes but a lot still depend on the use of aversive or punitive behavior modification techniques which likely have negative influence on students learning outcomes. Use of punitive techniques in the learning process raises anxiety, frustration and hate for learning which breeds maladaptive behaviors like aggression. It was recommended among other things that the teacher should be sensitized, trained and retrained in the proper use of different positive behavior modification techniques and how best to apply them in managing learning outcomes in classroom situations.

INTRODUCTION

Behaviour Modification is the traditional term for the use of empirically demonstrated behaviour change techniques to increase or decrease the frequency of behaviours. This may have to do with altering an individual's behaviours and reactions to stimuli through positive reinforcement of adaptive behaviours as well as the reduction of behaviour through its extinction and/or satiation. First used by Edward Thorndike in 1911, the term behaviour modification is now used in clinical psychology to refer to psychotherapeutic techniques derived from empirical research. It has since then come to refer mainly to techniques for increasing adaptive behaviour through reinforcement and decreasing maladaptive behaviour through extinction or punishment (with emphasis on the former). Behaviour modification is actually a form of Behaviour Therapy that is now known as Applied behaviour analysis. Behaviour modification techniques may thus include a series of teacher-implemented activities and actions aimed at improving productive classroom behaviour. According to Akinade (2012) Behaviour Modification is a process of changing weak, deficit or excessive behavior using learning theories like classical and operant conditioning approaches. It is a psychotherapy that is aimed at identifying and dealing with undesirable behaviour by use of relevant treatment like reinforcement or punishment. According to Zirpoli and

Mellow (1993) behaviour modification is one of the different methods and philosophies of dealing with “inappropriate,” “abnormal,” or “undesirable” behaviour that focuses mainly on observable, describable, and measurable behaviours. The emphasis in behavior modification is on increasing positive behavior rather than just attempting to decrease maladaptive behaviours hence the idea on bolstering learning outcomes rather than punishing poor performance.

According to Zull (2003) Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) are the specific observable or measurable results that are expected subsequent to a learning experience. These outcomes may involve knowledge (cognitive), skills (behavioral), or attitudes (affective) that provide evidence that learning has occurred as a result of a specified course, programme activity, or process. An SLO refers to an overarching outcome for a course, programme, degree or certificate, or level of attainment at the end of a learning experience. SLOs may thus describe a student's ability to synthesize many discreet skills using higher level thinking skills and to produce something that asks them to apply what they've learned. It encompasses a gathering together of smaller discrete objectives through analysis, evaluation and synthesis into more sophisticated skills and abilities. There is a wide array of modifying learner behavior that can be grouped under

two; those for increasing desirable behavior (positive behavior modification techniques) and those for reducing excessive or maladaptive behavior (aversive behavior techniques). Example of positive behavior techniques include shaping, prompting, chaining, flooding, modeling and stimulus control while those for aversive behavior techniques include aversive therapy, over correction, extinction reprimands time out and proximity control.

Notwithstanding the wide array of these positive techniques, it is not uncommon to find that most teachers still find it much easier to use only coercive disciplinary measures to modify learner behavior. This is based on the belief that it is necessary to cause suffering to teach or like the teacher has to hurt the learner to get an edge over him in order to teach him (Marshall, 2000). Teachers are always on the lookout for deviants who are immediately given punishment that may range from flogging, kneeling down, grass cutting, washing dirty toilets and suspension to outright expulsion depending on the magnitude and perpetuity of the deviant act. The situation is so bad that some teachers don't believe students can be better handled using softer, subtle and more positive means of modifying their learning behaviors. Teachers assume or satisfy themselves with the illusion that they have the control of their students using these techniques. But the irony of punitive or aversive techniques is that the more you

use it to control student's behavior the less influence you have over them and if a teacher begins to have less positive influence over the learner then the learning process is marred. One cannot expect better learning outcomes from such situations. It is therefore necessary to investigate teachers' understanding and use of alternative behavior modification techniques that can bolster learning outcomes in the class.

Statement of the Problem

The researchers discovered in recent times that students' poor academic performance may be attributable to the school teachers' poor student behaviour management. The use of punitive or aversive techniques does not seem to yield any significant success in managing classroom behavior let alone bolstering positive learning outcomes. As rightly observed by Nwokeji and Ezeawurukwe (2009) punishment and aversion elicit pain and coercion that may be counter-productive. The resultant effects on learning outcomes as well as the academic achievement of learners have been a very controversial issue that gives a cause for further research. Teachers still rely on punitive measures that rather instill fear or hate in the learner, notwithstanding that they have better alternatives. It is apt to find out what teachers perceive of the use of positive or aversive means to bolster learning outcomes using psychological approaches like behavior modification techniques in classroom situation. Hence

the problem of the study is to determine the teachers' perception of the influence of both positive and aversive behaviour modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcomes with the view to propagating the more productive ones.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to measure teachers' perception on the use of different behavior modification techniques in bolstering learning outcomes among secondary school students. More specifically, the study is concerned about the influence teachers' perceive positive behavior modification techniques can have on bolstering learning outcomes in order to suggest interventions for re-engineering the teaching professional for higher productivity.

Research Questions

The study was guided by two research questions

1. What will be the teachers' perception of the use of positive behavior modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcomes?
2. What will be the teachers' perception of the use of aversive behavior modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcomes?

Research Hypothesis

This null hypothesis was formulated and tested at 0.05% level of significance.

There will be no significant difference between teachers perception of positive and aversive behavior modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcomes.

Literature Review

There are many different methods and philosophies of dealing with inappropriate, "abnormal," or "undesirable" behavior but the traditional student disciplining approaches of subduing and hurting in the course of teaching/learning are fast losing their potency even among Africans. According to Nwokeji and Ezeahurukwe (2009) these are no longer successful for many of the young people. In the same vein, Marshall (2009) maintains that people learn better if they feel better and are motivated. According to Zirpoli and Mellow, (1993) behavior modification is based on behaviorist principles which operate on the tenets that behavior is controlled by antecedents, events which occur before a behavior is exhibited, and by consequences which occur after a behavior is exhibited. These antecedents and consequences can be changed in order to increase or decrease the chance that a given behavior will continue to be exhibited. Another fundamental tenet is that behavior, appropriate as well as inappropriate, is learned so it can be unlearned if need be using these scientific approaches.

According Akinade and Adedipe (2004) behaviour modification is based on

operational principles or fundamental ideas given below:

- I. Behavior, appropriate as well as inappropriate, is learned so it can be unlearned if need be using scientific modification approaches.
- ii. Behaviour is a function of the interaction of heredity and environmental variables.
- iii. Learning is inferred from the individual's behaviour; a relatively permanent change in behaviour.
- iv. Behaviour modifiers are concerned with current, specific and precise problems.
- v. A number of techniques can be applied in behaviour modification such as reinforcement, modeling, role-playing, stimulation, systematic desensitization, counter-conditioning and a host of others.

Based on these principles, the teacher as a professional stake holder in the learning process has a great repertoire of guiding principles and techniques which he can harness and draw from for the purpose of molding and modifying learner behaviours to bolster learning outcomes. Of essence is the fact that such learning outcomes are bound to propel the learner towards sound career development and choice.

Behavior modification techniques are therefore aimed at manipulating the antecedents and consequences of behavior so that the likelihood of appropriate

behavior is increased and inappropriate behavior is decreased. Proactive behavior modification, interventions which avoid the utilization of aversive consequences, involve teaching new and more appropriate skills (positive programming). Thus to reduce an inappropriate behavior, an appropriate behavior must be taught as an alternative.

The Institute of Community Integration (1995) observes that in using behavior modification there is need to look at the frequency and the intensity at which the behavior is exhibited, and the rate at which the student is able to learn new behaviors. Some behavior modification techniques are used for increasing desirable behavior while others are used for reducing maladaptive behavior. Examples of behavior modification which can be used to increase behavior are: praise and approval, modeling, positive programming, shaping, token economy, self-monitoring. Methods which can be used to decrease behavior are: extinction, reinforcing incompatible behavior, relaxation, self-monitoring, and shaping. Zirpoli and Mellow, (1993) assert that the least intrusive and restrictive intervention deemed likely to be effective should be chosen when deciding on which technique to use. For example, if a student is likely to respond to verbal praise in increasing assignment completion behavior, it would be unnecessary, and perhaps even detrimental, to implement a token economy in changing this behavior.

This requires ingenuity on part of the teacher and that the teacher puts on his thinking cap always to discern between what can offer optimum learning outcomes for the learner in different learning encounters. This is what Denga and Akuto (2004) term as psychological and educational forces operating together in the classroom which require that the teachers be adequately trained in psychological principles to provide them with a compendium of counseling insights and applications to use in the classroom. The re-engineering of Teaching involves making use of scientific approaches carefully designed to bring about optimum learning outcomes with ingenuity and inventive cleverness.

The Institute on Community Integration (1995) advocates for positive programming as part of any type of behavioral intervention to increase the options in a student's repertoire in order to provide more choices for the student. In essence proactive behavior modification has to do with interventions which involve teaching new and more appropriate skills (positive programming); to reduce an inappropriate behavior, an appropriate behavior must be taught as an alternative. Positive programming is a gradual educational process for behavior change involving systematic instruction in more effective ways of behaving. Positive programming teaches new behavior over time and is based on full functional analysis (Lavigna &

Donnellan, 1986).

Extinction refers both to procedure and behavioral effects. Whereas the procedure involves the removal of the reinforcing stimulus maintaining a particular behaviour, the behavioral effects refers to the decline in frequency of the behaviour. (Akinade & Adedipe, 2004). Its main application in the learning process is attempting to ignore attention seeking behaviour or a mistake prone child as he struggles to read a passage in class. Other excessive behaviours that can be reduced by extinction include noise making, reading frustration etc. The down side to the application of the extinction method is the extinction burst which show by way of temper tantrums increase in intensity of the sanctioned behaviour such that some teachers may fall the prey of yielding to whims of the learner thereby reinforcing even the worse form. The teacher in using extinction to manage behaviour must be well aware of this and withstand it while also attempting to eliminate peer attention from class members.

Systematic desensitization is a gradual process that can employ a learner's fantasy or occur in real life experiences following some marked steps from: training in progressive relaxation, construction of anxiety hierarchies, and the combination of these in the desensitization process (Akinade, 2012). It works by gradually exposing the learner in small steps to the

feared learning situation while actually learning activity that is antagonistic. Teachers can use this approach to handle anxiety induced learning deficiencies and timidity.

Self-Monitoring and Self-management- is the technique that involves observation and recording of one's own behaviour with the aim of managing it positively. It draws its strength from its reactive effect on desirable and undesirable behaviours and their management.

Self-management on the other hand involves self participation in designing and carrying out the behaviour modification programme. The teacher helps the learner to arrange cues and their consequences around him to facilitate the development of the desirable behaviour. In application, the learner can be taught to manage his concentration while in class by putting away all distracting materials like their handsets, pictures and unrelated lesson materials. To encourage his study behaviour at home the learner can be taught to arrange his/her room to create study friendly environment with reading tables and chairs rather than just a bed.

Modeling is an instructional procedure that attempts to prompt imitation of appropriate behavior through demonstration of that behavior. It is an approach that helps the learner to overcome fears and inhibitions by observing models as they confront their

typical learning difficulties. It works by showcasing brilliant learners who can mentor and help deficient students aspire to do more as they watch them perform un-arrogantly. Modeling is useful for teaching new technical and life skills and for reducing academic failure. It is also useful for overcoming excessive and inhibitory timidity. For skill acquisition in particular, modeling proves very useful in the career development process. Like in the industrial training scheme, learners benefit a great deal as they observe others perform their occupational roles.

Shaping has to do with reinforcing closer and closer approximations of desired behavior so that in bits of efforts the learner willingly tries to achieve more. According to Akinade and Adedipe (2004) three main principles underlie the technique of shaping and these are generalization, habit competition and chaining. Shaping finds useful application for teaching complex skills and concepts as well as for remedying learning and social skills deficits.

Aversive stimulus is a technique which due to its undesirable nature serves to decrease the probability that a behavior will occur. Often occurs as a consequence of a behavior of a punisher. Alternately removal of aversive stimuli can serve to increase the likelihood that a behavior will be exhibited. Negative reinforcement is the reinforcement of behavior through the contingent removal or avoidance of an

aversive stimulus. Successful avoidance or removal of the aversion produces an increase or maintenance in occurrence of the given behavior. Praise is a positive verbal attention for appropriate behavior and it has the potency of modifying learning as it nourishes the psychological health of the learner. It is also termed as verbal reinforcement which are reinforcing comments delivered contingent upon appropriate behavior. For example telling a child who has done well in an area something like, good job or that's a wonderful performance. Primark Principle states that any highly preferred activity can serve as a positive reinforcement for a less preferred activity. Shaping has to do with reinforcing closer and closer approximations of desired behavior so that in bits of efforts the learner willingly tries to achieve more.

METHOD

The study is a descriptive design, which sets out to describe behavior by measuring the variables of the study. Descriptive methods help researchers to identify what is happening in order to predict what might likely happen given some differing circumstance. The population of the study was made up of 1928 teachers drawn from the 48 secondary schools in Makurdi Local Government Area of Benue State. The sample for the study was 216 teachers randomly sampled across 15 of these schools drawn from both rural and urban areas in terms of school location to include

both Boys and Girls as well as Day and Boarding schools.

The instrument used for this study is a 22-item questionnaire designed on modified Likert rating scale with four levels to investigate the teachers' perception on differing students' learning outcomes due to use of different behaviour modification techniques. The instrument was content validated by two professionals in Psychological Testing and Educational Psychology. To establish the reliability of the instrument, a repeat administration of the questionnaire was made on 30 teachers at the University of Agriculture secondary school Makurdi in a span of two weeks. The responses were collated and scored. These scores were subjected to Pearson Product Moment Correlation. A correlation coefficient of 0.70 was obtained which was considered good enough for the study.

Following this data was collected and analyzed using means and standard deviations while the t-test statistics was used to test the hypothesis at 0,05 level of significance. Means of 2.3 and above were accepted as agreeing with the item being measured.

RESULTS

Question 1: what will be the teachers' perception of the use of positive behavior modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcomes?

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Perception of Influence of Positive Behavior Modification Techniques

S/N	Items	Means	SD	Decision
1	I often use verbal praise in my class	3.00	0.91	Agreed
2	Use of positive reinforcement makes students more motivated to learn	2.96	0.89	Agreed
3	use of modeling techniques in helping learners is not good for my subject	2.58	0.99	Agreed
4	I use time time out for my noisy students	2.75	0.79	Agreed
5	Primark principle is good for difficult students	2.59	0.69	Agreed
6	I use stimulus satiation to check laziness in my subject and it improves performance	2.00	0.99	Disagreed
7	Shaping is useful for character training	3.34	0.88	Agreed
8	I use systematic desensitization to curb fear of difficult subjects/topics.	2.89	0.79	Agreed
9	Proximity control is useful when I want students to learn independent skills	2.66	0.85	Agreed
10	I use token economy for remarkable improvement of poor students	1.90	0.96	Disagreed
	Grand cluster mean	2.67	0.87	Agreed

Results in Table 1, show total mean of 2.67 which indicates that some teachers actually perceive the use of positive modification techniques in the classroom as useful in bolstering learning outcomes. Although a good number seem to have sound understanding of some common positive techniques like positive reinforcement

(2.96) and verbal praise (3.00), some indicated that they have only a limited knowledge of how to use these techniques.

Question 2: what will be the teachers' perception of the use of aversive behavior modification techniques in bolstering students' learning outcome?

Table 2: Means and Standard Deviation of teachers' perception of the influence of aversive Behaviour Modification techniques

S/N	Items	Mean	SD	Decision
1	It is the cane I use to keep the learner focused	3.00	0.97	Agreed
2	When I label and blacklist weak students they sit up and do better	0.99	0.90	Disagreed
3	When a learner is punished he must improve	2.40	0.79	Disagreed
4	Removing privileges make learner eager to work harder to recover them	2.44	0.88	Disagreed
5	Beating dull students make the student work harder	2.30	0.95	Disagreed
6	When I make students work outside for failing in my subject their performance improves	1.99	0.84	Disagreed
7	When I humiliate poor students they learn to do better	2.03	0.98	Disagreed
8	Use of punishment is the best option for lazy students	2.18	0.78	Disagreed
	Grand Mean	2.17	0.89	Disagreed

Data from table 2 shows a grand mean of 2.17 which indicates that most of the punitive techniques do not yield much in bolstering learning outcomes from teachers' perception.

Hypothesis testing: Teachers' perception of the influence of techniques for bolstering students' learning outcome does not differ significantly between positive and aversive behavior modification techniques used.

Table 3: t-test of difference between teachers' perception of positive and aversive techniques in learning outcome

Source of variation	N	Mean	SD	df	t-cal	t-table	Result
Positive behaviour Mod.	216	2.66	0.87	215	3.42	2.79	Sign.
Aversive behaviour Mod.	216	1.73	0.89	215	-3.42	-3.48	Sign.
Learning outcome	216	3.35	1.44				

Results in Table three indicate that t-calculated value of positive technique is 3.42 as against the t-table value of 2.79. While that of aversive techniques is -3.23 t-cal as against -3.48. The findings show that from teachers' perception, use of positive behavior modification techniques has significant positive influence on students' learning outcomes while the use of aversive technique has significant negative influence on bolstering learning outcomes.

DISCUSSION

The study investigated teachers' perception on the influence of behavior modification techniques on bolstering learning outcomes among secondary school students. It was found that use of positive behavior modification techniques has significant positive influence on bolstering learning outcomes among secondary school students. It was also found that use of aversive behavior modification techniques has significant negative influence in bolstering learning outcomes among secondary school students. The finding is supported by Dungurawa and Bello (2014) who found in particular that positive reinforcement had the effect of reducing the inattentiveness symptoms of treatment group. When inattentiveness is reduced it will have a multiplier effect on the learning outcomes of such individuals. Ahmed's (2013) findings also support this finding when he found that positive reinforcement is effective in reducing absenteeism among secondary students. Nwokeji and

Ezeahurukwe (2009) also found that students who are rewarded positively for a particular behavior are better motivated to learn while on the other hand aversive techniques, especially punishment inhibits learning and rather makes the learner and the learning process frustrated. These collaborations are likely connected to the contemporary trends on therapeutic behaviour control using more of positively oriented practices than punitive measures that inflict pains on the learner. In the contemporary society the use of punitive methods for managing learning have been found to be counter-productive because as rightly reported by Marshall (2009) people are bound to learn better when they feel better and are motivated.

Teachers and the teaching/learning process should be re-engineered through training and retraining of practicing teachers in behavior modification techniques to keep abreast with best practices and new productive trends in managing classroom behaviors as well as bolstering learning outcomes among learners.

Developing proficiency in managing learner behavior for higher productivity is very crucial for ultimate career development among teachers. Bolstering learning outcomes meaningfully translates into meaningful career decisions even for the learners.

Conclusion

The result of this study shows that positive behavior modification techniques have significant positive influence for bolstering learning outcomes among learners while the use of aversive techniques have significant negative influence on learning outcomes. The use of positive behavior modification techniques like positive reinforcement, modeling, shaping, prompting and Premack principle have more significant influence on students' learning outcomes. The aversive techniques like punishment and negative labeling may rather inhibit learning instead of bolstering learner behavior. If properly trained in these techniques the practicing teacher will develop proficiency in using them and this will have a multiplier effect on the teaching career.

Recommendations

Positive techniques of modifying behavior have greater potency for bolstering learning outcomes so it should be used more than the aversive techniques. Therefore teachers should be encouraged to use positive behavior modification techniques like modeling, shaping, reinforcement, Premack principle and others are to be used to give them better tools for bolstering learning outcomes among their students.

Teacher training Institutions should be particularly encouraged to review their syllabus and training programmes to incorporate acquisition of skills for

modifying learner behavior to prepare teacher trainees ahead of time.

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