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Arts & Humanities -Psychology

Success Potential Battery

Development and Validation

Highlights

Labour in Rural Households

Position and Identification

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Development and Validation of Success Potential Battery (SPB)

By Dr. R.A. Animasahun

University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Abstract - The paper investigated the circumstances and processes involved in the development and validation of Success Potential Battery (SPB) for measuring the success potential of individuals. The population cuts across adolescents, youths, adult and old people of diverse callings since the issue of success know no bounds. Hence, a sample of 2000, with 500 from each of the identified groups was randomly selected to participate in the survey study. The internal consistency values for the subscales ranged between 0.6539-0.9210. Standardized item alpha for the 16 scales ranged from 0.6838-0.9188. The Cronbach alpha ranged between 0.6824-0.9193. The Guttman split half reliability ranged between 0.5186-0.8580. The Convergent validity for the 16 scales ranged between 0.426-0.704 while the Discriminant validity ranged between -.005--.206. The significant inter-factor correlation coefficient is an evidence for strong construct validity of the scales. The significance of the psychological inventory to individuals, researchers, psychologists, students, teachers, counselors, organizations and anybody interested in evaluating his/her success potentials were stressed.

Keywords : *success potential, cronbach alpha, guttman split-half reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity.*

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I. INTRODUCTION

Success means one thing or the other to different people of diverse backgrounds, orientations and callings. Animasahun (2012) paraded some definitions of success gathered from literature as follow:

- Achievement of intention
- Attainment of fame, wealth or power
- When an undertaking turns out well as planned as intended
- The result of commitment, toughness, endurance, persistence, effective management of pressing demands made on the individuals
- Having money all the time
- Knowing what you know how to do best and finding people to pay you for it
- An evident improvement or progress
- Getting up just one more time than you fell
- A good result that removes insult
- Being at the desired and right place at the right time and doing the desired and right thing
- Doing something highly rewarding to oneself and beneficial to mankind in general

- Influencing other peoples' lives positively
- Continuous achievements of worthwhile goals
- Hitting a jackpot or luck
- Feeling satisfied and fulfilled at the end of one's life time
- Being happy throughout one's life with just enough money to cater for one's needs
- Setting out to do something and being able to initiate action steps in realizing such set goals, etc.

However, the importance of success to all human endeavours cannot be over emphasized. It is the ultimate pursuance of all living in any sector they find themselves, and it remains the main thing everybody craves for from cradle to grave. However, the way individuals perceive success would determine how they pursue it. Probably, this is the genesis of chaos and crime in the society because a lot of people pursue what can be termed as pseudo-success. Therefore, they end up being frustrated, unfulfilled, confused and totally disorganized which eventually lead to low productivity, crime, suicide mission or untimely death. In the real sense of it, the long-lasting success that is desirable is complex in nature and made up of certain components, factors or parts.

Hunt (2001), writing on success habit asked: "Can the secrets of success be learnt and followed?" He concluded that the secret of success is first, last and always through the working of thought: the man who does not think he is successful will never know success".....pp 7,8. He defined success as the achievement or attainment of any objective that leads to an improvement in personal circumstances and quality of life. Success is living a harmonious balanced life. Adeyemi (2008) said emphatically that "Success is who you are, what you think, what you see, what you know, what you say and what you do. He explained further that success is a question of the inner man. Ed Brodin (2006) in Banjo (2007) said you are a success if right here and now you are doing the things that are meaningful to you. True success, according to Hunt (2001) refers to the achievement or attainment of any objective that leads to an improvement in personal circumstances and quality of life. He concluded that success is growth. While Akinboye (2003) believed that components of success are Intelligent Quotient, Emotional Intelligence, Creativity and Innovation ($IQ + EQ + CR + INN = \text{Success}$), Emmanuel (2003) opined that certain natural laws guide success such as the laws of self discovery, focus, self development,

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diligence and thoroughness, consistency, persistence, mentorship, prudence/frugality, planning, customer/client satisfaction, kingdom investment, divine timing and the law of grace. Also in his own submission, Oyedepo (2006) conceptualized that success is an all encompassing construct involving many components out of which vision, information and hard work stand out as the major ones from such other components he called systems which include foundation, imagination, purpose, task, mental, race, choice, financial, fortune, premarital, marital and covenant success habits. All these also have some other components pointing to success. However, in his quest for the major ones, Animasahun (2007), in his own view and many others gathered from literature which were factor-analysed, came out with the following components of success. These are: Positive self component, Decision making, Goal setting, Hard-work, Creativity and innovation, Emotional intelligence, Entrepreneurship behaviour, Character development, Perseverance, Faith in God, Time management, Self control, Leadership development, Problem handling, and Overcoming disadvantage complex.

All the identified components of success are unevenly distributed among people in the society; each person has at least a little deposit of the components in them. While those who have them in high degree are potential success, those with low degrees may not be successful. This is the reason why it is better to test the level of individuals on each of the scale, so as to find out individual status. If the desirable trait is low, counseling psychologists can then use their skills to stimulate the desirable traits so as to make the individual a potential success. The battery which is a package of 16 different tests is diagnostic in nature and could therefore be used as a functional research, clinical and counseling tool for detection of the success potential level of an individual before the commencement of a programme, in the course of a programme or after the completion of a programme. It could also be used for an individual to discover himself and where he stands so as to engage in certain remedial programmes. Finally, the battery could be used for assessment and screening of candidates before employment or to cross-check their performance while doing the job so that round pegs are put in round holes.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Item Development

The Success Potential Battery was developed based on diverse perceptions of success by different individuals, specific success characteristics, components of success and factors responsible for success as gathered from literature (Schuller, 1984; Locke & Lantham, 1990; Animasahun, 2000; 2004; 2007; 2009; 2011 and 2012; Hunt, 2001; Oettingen & Gollwitzer, 2001; Akinboye, 2002; 2003; McGrath, Hirsch & Peters, 2002; Emmanuel, 2003; Ed Brodin,

2006; Oyedepo, 2006; Banjo, 2007; Adeyemi, 2008; Orabuche, 2008; Peter, 2009; Akande, 2010). A pool of possible components of success was gathered and factor-analysed. The exercise produced only 16 significantly strong factors for life success which finally made up the battery. Some of the other perceived components that were not listed in the instrument because of their insignificant contributions include: Locus of control, Motivation, Personality and information processing.

b) Relevance of Each Variable to Success

i. Positive Self Component

This, according to Animasahun (2007) include self concept, self esteem, self efficacy, self perception, self disclosure, self knowledge, self evaluation, self value, self worth, self image and self appreciation. All these indicate the general assessment an individual consciously or unconsciously makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy (Animasahun 2011). "Positive self component is therefore the situation when all the above is significantly positive about a person" Hunt (2001) postulated that we can but only when we think we can". Pp32. He said further that the plain truth is that you and only you are responsible for you" Pg 106. In fact, Peter (2009) concluded that the way you see yourself on the inside, largely determines your performance on the outside" Pp 32. Adeyemi (2008) submitted that "your self-worth brings you self respect" pg 44.

ii. Decision Making

Decision making is the cognitive process leading to the selection of a course of action among alternatives (Banjo, 2007). Decision making is the bedrock of all human actions (Animasahun, 2004). Michotte (1963) opined that decision making is action-oriented; which means that the kind of decision taken by an individual determines the next line of action he would take to satisfy basic needs and wants. While Fishburn (1972) opined that decision is a deliberate act of selection by the mind of an alternative to accomplish certain goals, Procter (1980) took it to be an arrival at an answer or way out that ends uncertainty above an issue. Fulfilment in life is a decision not an accident, a choice not a must (Akande, 2010). Adeyemi (2008) opined that decision is the starting point for planning. Umoren (1991) summed it up as a commitment to certain actions or inactions. Therefore, ability to think and arrive at a reasonable decision with speed and accuracy is believed to be a factor for success.

iii. Goal Setting

Peter (2009) opined that the first essential requirement for getting whatever you want is to know what you want. What you want is your life – goal or your

life target. The main reason why people do not succeed in life is that they do not know what they want. Hence, the basic reason for failure is the failure to set goals. Ajufo (2003) defined a goal setting as a plan of action for accomplishing the desired result. Locke and Lantham (1990) Goal setting is highly motivational. It does not allow an individual to be idle or stagnant, it leads to goal pursuit by committing oneself to attainment of the goals. Oettingen and Gollaitzer (2001) however, warned that people should adopt desirable and feasible goals to achieve success. Animasahun (2009) postulated that the only difference between a dreamer and a goal setter is adding a deadline to the dream. He therefore recommended goal setting for a lasting success. For an effectual goal setting however, the principle of SMART can be employed:

S	Simple	: The goal must be simple
M	Measurable	: It must be measurable
A	Achievable	: It must be achievable
R	Realistic	: It must be realistic to avoid frustration
T	Time bound	: It must have time-bound.

iv. *Hardwork*

Hardwork has been described as the ideal way to a lasting success (Animasahun, 2009). Emmanuel (2002) said: Hard work does not kill, it only removes hand life. According to Bertrand Russel in Animasahun (2009) no great achievement is possible without persistent work. Banjo (2007) reported Pavlon's 1986 assertion that success depend to a very large measure upon individual's initiative and exertion and cannot be achieved except by dint of hardwork. Infact, the height that great men reached and kept were not attained by sudden flights but while others slept, they kept on toiling and toiling. According to Animasahun (2000), work is a necessity idleness is a disease. Hardwork is only the refuge of weak minds. Harwork is therefore believed to be a factor for success.

v. *Creativity and Innovation*

This refers to the ability to bring something new into existence. Torrance (1962) defined creativity as a process of becoming sensitive to problems deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, forming ideas or hypotheses concerning them, testing and retesting these hypotheses and communicating the results. White De Bono (1971) opined that creativity is concerned with bringing about a new ideas and updating old ones. Akinboye (1976) defined it as the generation of statistically infrequent ideas to solve problems of life. Quareshi and Quareshi (1990) defined it as the capacity of an individual to avoid conventional and routine but produce ideas which are original, novel and uncommon. Animasahun (2002) sees it as conscious cognitive processes stimulated by problematic situation, guided by interest and resulting in the generation of statistically infrequent, unique, valuable and appropriate ideas, useful in turning challenges of life into fruitful, beneficial

and profitable outcomes. Possessing this ability is greater magnitude predisposes an individual to achieve success in life. Creativity makes adequate use of information because your information determines your out-formation (Adeyemi, 2008).

vi. *Emotional Intelligence*

Emotional intelligence refers to a set of acquired skills and competencies that predict positive outcomes (Animasahun, 2007). The term Emotional Intelligence was coined by Salovey and Meyer (1990) as a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own feelings and emotions as well as those of others, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide ones thinking and actions (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). Goleman (1995) exemplified the five components of emotional intelligence namely: self awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships. Baron (1996) explained it as ability to deal successfully with other people and with one's feelings. Akinboye (2003) concluded that it is a set of non-cognitive abilities that influence human ability to success in life and the work place. Hence, emotional intelligence is a strong factor for success.

vii. *Entrepreneurship Behaviour*

An entrepreneur is that person with the initiative and drive to bring resources together to produce goods and services that would meet the need of consumers. It is the process of creating an object of value through the commitment of time and other scarce resources. However, it involves risk taking in form of financial, psychologist or social. Nevertheless, it attracts some rewards including financial returns, personal satisfaction feeling of accomplishment and independence (McGrath Histrich and Peters, 2002; Adeyemi 2010 and Macmillan, 2000). Peter (2009) described entrepreneurship as a process of turning ideas into opportunities and opportunities into successful businesses through certain skills. It is all about empowering, control and assuming responsibility.

viii. *Character Development*

Abraham Lincoln in Animasahun (2009) defined character as a personal credential and that no man is a man of honour without it. According to Ann frank in Animasahun (2009), the final forming of a person's characters lies in his own hand. Hence, there is nothing one gains from stubbornness, rudeness and naughtiness and nothing to loose from being obedient, humble and respectful. Adeyemi (2008) concluded that the foundation for success is one's character and that one cannot succeed without character. Campbell and Bond (1982) raised four questions to be answered in order to fully understand what character is:

- What is good character?
- What causes or prevent it?
- How can it be measured so that efforts at improvement can have corrective feedback and how it can

it be best developed? Hence, it requires conscious and careful observations of one's actions for social satisfaction.

ix. *Perseverance*

Hunt (2001) said "failure cannot live with persistence" Pg 110.

Orabuche (2008) said that the 3 strong Ps of success are Patience, Perseverance and Persistent. According to her while patience refers to enduring difficulties or delays calmly, perseverance means keep making an effort despite difficulties and persistence means continue inspite of obstacles. The 3 can therefore be used interchangeably. However, perseverance is the main focus here. Schuller (1984) in his book "Tough Times Never Last but Tough People do" emphasized the importance of perseverance. Perseverance has been described as the key to success in any endeavour. Success belongs to the most persevering. He stated further that persistence produces power, empower dynamic purpose, provides tremendous courage, produces peace and contentment, pays high profits, produces results and the habit of succeeding. Persistence has been taken to be the most important quality of a winner – a winner never quits as quitters never win. He concluded that if an individual persists in the face of failure, setbacks, delays, disappointments and temporary defeats, success will be achieved. Failures are simply successful people who gave up too soon (Adeyemi, 2008).

x. *Faith-in-God*

God is our power source (Adeyemi, 2008). Hence, ability to believe and tap from Him is a great motivation for success. Peter (2009) stated that prayer is the mightier power in the world. It is the most powerful form of energy and the greatest power of life. It is a very profound and powerful means to cope with fear, desolation, despair and hopelessness. He stressed that the golden key to success is the way one prays. It is believed that a mighty power acts when one prays with faith. Hence, prayer gives unlimited strength and a sense of security. Adeyemi (2008) mentioned god-nature as a vital factor for success. He stressed that the consciousness of God facilitates success.

xi. *Time Management*

Time can be defined as a divine resource equitably given to creatures by the creator to utilise for survival, progress and success. It is therefore, an economic resource that cannot be expanded or contracted (Animasahun, 2010). Hence, the way an individual spends his time in the choice made on how he wants to live his life. Time management therefore refers to being in conscious control of one's use of time. The difference between a successful person and failure is time management. It is also what makes the difference between distinction and extinction. Peter (2009) concluded that you can never be a prosperous or a

successful person if you are not conscious of your time. In fact, the quality of one's life is determined by the quality of one's time management. Akande (2010) concluded that when you waste time you waste lives.

xii. *Self Control*

This refers to the sacrificial offering of the disciplined mind to please God, others and to abide but the ethics if the society. It is an extension of discipline which describes cutting off and doing away with the things one likes but which may hinder ones purpose in a particular area of life (Animasahun, 2009). Ability to control oneself in spite of all odds is considered a great virtue of a matured personality and a leadership characteristic. Hence, this is suggested to be a great factor for life success.

xiii. *Leadership – Development*

Leadership was conceptualised as sacrificial obligation executed by an individual by exercising influence and authority over others to achieve a mutual goal. (Animasahun, 2012). Adeyemi (2008) added that our ability to inspire and influence people to achieve worthwhile goals will determine the limit of our success. Peter (2009) opined that leaders are made by circumstances not by birth or genetics. Every leader is as much a product of times and life situations as his own effort and abilities. He stressed further that a leader is the one who knows the way. A worthy leader has a foresights and insight. He sees the writing on the wall, reads the signs of the times and senses trends and tendencies which are at work in his surroundings. Having these virtues is a great pointer.

xiv. *Problem Handling*

Peter (2001) summarised life as full of problems. He said that life is a process of solving problems. According to him, every problem holds positive possibilities. Every problem will change an individual somehow. In fact, every problem contains within itself the seeds of its own solution. Hence, to be successful in life an individual must be highly skilled in handling and solving his problems. Akande (2010) submitted that an individual is born to meet a need. Every individual is born to meet a need. Every individual is a solution to a problem. In fact, what a failure calls a problem is what the success person sees as opportunity (Adeyemi, 2008).

xv. *Overcoming Disadvantage Complex*

Negative anti suggestion discourages. Adeyemi (2008) conceptualised that "Your self-image will always control your behaviour and that you will never attempt to get anything that you feel the person inside you is not qualified to get. Hence, an individual must shun inferiority complex. "We can but only when we think we can" Hunt (2001). Disadvantage complex erodes all traces of confidence in an individual because the individual is convinced and gives reasons why he cannot do certain things or assume certain status. He

sees himself as very weak among competitors of equal calibre. Hence, this is considered to be a serious setback and hindrance to success. However, ability to overcome this and build strong confidence is a strong factor for life success.

III. DESCRIPTION OF THE SCALES IN THE BATTERY

The Success Potential Battery (SPB) is a package containing sixteen (16) subscales. Scale 1 is

the Success Perception scale while the rest fifteen (15) scales are the factors predisposing individuals to achieving success. Table A contains the details.

Table A : Description of the Success Potential Battery

Test Number	Title of The Test	Number of Items	Number of Negative Items	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Norm
1.	Success Perception scale	20	7	20	100	70
2.	Positive Self component Scale	25	14	25	125	85
3.	Decision Making Behaviour Rating Scale	30	15	30	150	100
4.	Goal Setting Scale	20	9	20	100	80
5.	Hard work Behaviour Scale	25	11	25	125	85
6.	Creativity and Innovation Scale	33	12	33	165	125
7.	Emotional intelligence Scale	35	10	35	175	135
8.	Entrepreneurship Behaviour Scale	25	8	25	125	85
9.	Character Development Scale	25	10	25	125	90
10.	Perseverance Scale	10	7	10	50	35
11.	Faith-in-God Behaviour Scale	20	10	20	100	80
12.	Time management Scale	26	12	26	130	90
13.	Self control Scale	15	8	15	75	50
14.	Leadership Development Scale	25	14	25	125	85
15.	Problem Handling Scale	22	9	22	110	80
16.	Overcoming Disadvantage complex Scale	10	8	10	50	35

The Table above shows that a total of 356 positive and negative items made up the inventory package of 16 scales with norms ranging from 35 – 135, whereby scores below the norms indicate inadequacies as far as such scale is concerned whereas scores above the norm show signs of adequacies. The items in each of the scales are scored on 5-point Likert format, which ranged from 1(Strongly Disagree to 5(Strongly Agree).

IV. PROCEDURE

The surviving items of the factor-analytic procedure (356 items) were packaged under the 16 subscales of the battery and administered to over 3000 randomly selected individuals that cut across Nigerian adolescents, youths, adults and old people in all the states of the federation, on the basis of availability and DATA ANALYSIS convenience. However, only 2000 participants finally made the sample. Their ages ranged from 12-72 with a mean of 42 years.

The collected data was analysed through the computer using SPSS package. The Cronbach alpha (α), Guttman split half reliability (r) statistical tools were employed for measuring the coefficient values of the items, while the Convergent and Discriminant validity as well as the internal consistency reliability were also determined. The results are hereby presented in tables 1-16:

V. RESULTS

Table 1 : Internal Consistency Values of Success Perception Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.7938	P < 0.05
2	0.7917	P < 0.05
3	0.7870	P < 0.05
4	0.7932	P < 0.05
5	0.7981	P < 0.05
6	0.7951	P < 0.05
7	0.7907	P < 0.05
8	0.7915	P < 0.05
9	0.7911	P < 0.05
10	0.7863	P < 0.05
11	0.7915	P < 0.05
12	0.7923	P < 0.05
13	0.7895	P < 0.05
14	0.7918	P < 0.05
15	0.7943	P < 0.05
16	0.7954	P < 0.05
17	0.7890	P < 0.05
18	0.7893	P < 0.05
19	0.7943	P < 0.05
20	0.7933	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.7870-0.7981

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.7145
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.8003
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.8012
 Correlation between forms = 0.5559
 Convergent Validity = 0.659
 Discriminant Validity = -0.206
 Norm = 70

Table 2 : Internal Consistency Values of Positive Self Component Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8533	P < 0.05
2	0.8478	P < 0.05
3	0.8493	P < 0.05
4	0.8539	P < 0.05
5	0.8481	P < 0.05
6	0.8503	P < 0.05
7	0.8473	P < 0.05
8	0.8575	P < 0.05
9	0.8555	P < 0.05
10	0.8515	P < 0.05
11	0.8458	P < 0.05
12	0.8467	P < 0.05
13	0.8492	P < 0.05
14	0.8462	P < 0.05
15	0.8455	P < 0.05
16	0.8518	P < 0.05
17	0.8517	P < 0.05

18	0.8482	P < 0.05
19	0.8505	P < 0.05
20	0.8472	P < 0.05
21	0.8475	P < 0.05
22	0.8477	P < 0.05
23	0.8482	P < 0.05
24	0.8494	P < 0.05
25	0.8481	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8455-0.8575

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.7622
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.8547
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.8542
 Correlation between forms = 0.615
 Convergent Validity = 0.621
 Discriminant Validity = -0.117
 Norm = 85

Table 3 : Internal Consistency Values of Decision Making Behaviour Rating Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8975	P < 0.05
2	0.8963	P < 0.05
3	0.8968	P < 0.05
4	0.8960	P < 0.05
5	0.8965	P < 0.05
6	0.8955	P < 0.05
7	0.8957	P < 0.05
8	0.8947	P < 0.05
9	0.8958	P < 0.05
10	0.8977	P < 0.05
11	0.8970	P < 0.05
12	0.8960	P < 0.05
13	0.8967	P < 0.05
14	0.8967	P < 0.05
15	0.8964	P < 0.05
16	0.8960	P < 0.05
17	0.8949	P < 0.05
18	0.8946	P < 0.05
19	0.8944	P < 0.05
20	0.8955	P < 0.05
21	0.8936	P < 0.05
22	0.8942	P < 0.05
23	0.8950	P < 0.05
24	0.8951	P < 0.05
25	0.8961	P < 0.05
26	0.8963	P < 0.05
27	0.8943	P < 0.05
28	0.8965	P < 0.05
29	0.8965	P < 0.05
30	0.8967	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8936–0.8977

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.7521

Cronbach Alpha	=	0.8989
Standardised Item Alpha	=	0.8986
Correlation between forms	=	0.6063
Convergent Validity	=	0.688
Discriminant Validity	=	-1.180
Norm	=	100

Table 4 : Internal Consistency Values of Goal Setting Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8792	P < 0.05
2	0.8787	P < 0.05
3	0.8745	P < 0.05
4	0.8753	P < 0.05
5	0.8748	P < 0.05
6	0.8753	P < 0.05
7	0.8757	P < 0.05
8	0.8752	P < 0.05
9	0.8761	P < 0.05
10	0.8733	P < 0.05
11	0.8727	P < 0.05
12	0.8732	P < 0.05
13	0.8740	P < 0.05
14	0.8734	P < 0.05
15	0.8756	P < 0.05
16	0.8751	P < 0.05
17	0.8746	P < 0.05
18	0.8749	P < 0.05
19	0.8765	P < 0.05
20	0.8748	P < 0.05

Interitem correlation ranged from	0.8727-0.8729
Guttman Split Half reliability	= 0.8313
Cronbach Alpha	= 0.8827
Standardised Item Alpha	= 0.8811
Correlation between forms	= 0.7127
Convergent Validity	= 0.704
Discriminant Validity	= -0.024
Norm	= 80

Table 5 : Internal Consistency Values of Hardwork Behaviour Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8944	P < 0.05
2	0.8960	P < 0.05
3	0.8953	P < 0.05
4	0.8965	P < 0.05
5	0.8934	P < 0.05
6	0.8948	P < 0.05
7	0.8935	P < 0.05
8	0.8949	P < 0.05
9	0.8935	P < 0.05
10	0.8936	P < 0.05
11	0.8946	P < 0.05
12	0.8961	P < 0.05
13	0.8944	P < 0.05

14	0.8962	P < 0.05
15	0.8969	P < 0.05
16	0.8968	P < 0.05
17	0.8939	P < 0.05
18	0.8931	P < 0.05
19	0.8935	P < 0.05
20	0.8939	P < 0.05
21	0.8937	P < 0.05
22	0.8938	P < 0.05
23	0.8942	P < 0.05
24	0.8935	P < 0.05
25	0.8931	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from	0.8931- 0.8969
Guttman Split Half reliability	= 0.8123
Cronbach Alpha	= 0.8983
Standardised Item Alpha	= 0.8985
Correlation between forms	= 0.6856
Convergent Validity	= 0.666
Discriminant Validity	= -0.037
Norm	= 85

Table 6 : Internal Consistency Values of Creativity and Innovation Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.9160	P < 0.05
2	0.9166	P < 0.05
3	0.9165	P < 0.05
4	0.9172	P < 0.05
5	0.9163	P < 0.05
6	0.9161	P < 0.05
7	0.9167	P < 0.05
8	0.9160	P < 0.05
9	0.9159	P < 0.05
10	0.9162	P < 0.05
11	0.9163	P < 0.05
12	0.9158	P < 0.05
13	0.9169	P < 0.05
14	0.9164	P < 0.05
15	0.9167	P < 0.05
16	0.9159	P < 0.05
17	0.9167	P < 0.05
18	0.9160	P < 0.05
19	0.9165	P < 0.05
20	0.9156	P < 0.05
21	0.9177	P < 0.05
22	0.9172	P < 0.05
23	0.9161	P < 0.05
24	0.9174	P < 0.05
25	0.9173	P < 0.05
26	0.9166	P < 0.05
27	0.9162	P < 0.05
28	0.9168	P < 0.05
29	0.9192	P < 0.05

30	0.9199	P < 0.05
31	0.9202	P < 0.05
32	0.9190	P < 0.05
33	0.9210	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.9156–0.9210
 Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.8580
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.9193
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.9188
 Correlation between forms = 0.7733
 Convergent Validity = 0.426
 Discriminant Validity = -.104
 Norm = 125

Table 7 : Internal Consistency Values of Emotional Intelligence Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8638	P < 0.05
2	0.8651	P < 0.05
3	0.8655	P < 0.05
4	0.8656	P < 0.05
5	0.8641	P < 0.05
6	0.8661	P < 0.05
7	0.8663	P < 0.05
8	0.8628	P < 0.05
9	0.8648	P < 0.05
10	0.8654	P < 0.05
11	0.8655	P < 0.05
12	0.8637	P < 0.05
13	0.8640	P < 0.05
14	0.8657	P < 0.05
15	0.8654	P < 0.05
16	0.8621	P < 0.05
17	0.8659	P < 0.05
18	0.8651	P < 0.05
19	0.8659	P < 0.05
20	0.8639	P < 0.05
21	0.8636	P < 0.05
22	0.8632	P < 0.05
23	0.8670	P < 0.05
24	0.8663	P < 0.05
25	0.8656	P < 0.05
26	0.8633	P < 0.05
27	0.8641	P < 0.05
28	0.8633	P < 0.05
29	0.8635	P < 0.05
30	0.8645	P < 0.05
31	0.8657	P < 0.05
32	0.8636	P < 0.05
33	0.8632	P < 0.05
34	0.8651	P < 0.05
35	0.8639	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8628 – 0.8670
 Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.8147
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.8680
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.8689
 Correlation between forms = 0.6875
 Convergent Validity = 0.484
 Discriminant Validity = -.005
 Norm = 135

Table 8 : Internal Consistency Values of Entrepreneurship Behaviour Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8697	P < 0.05
2	0.8699	P < 0.05
3	0.8706	P < 0.05
4	0.8674	P < 0.05
5	0.8686	P < 0.05
6	0.8693	P < 0.05
7	0.8694	P < 0.05
8	0.8709	P < 0.05
9	0.8684	P < 0.05
10	0.8687	P < 0.05
11	0.8675	P < 0.05
12	0.8692	P < 0.05
13	0.8656	P < 0.05
14	0.8667	P < 0.05
15	0.8691	P < 0.05
16	0.8697	P < 0.05
17	0.8686	P < 0.05
18	0.8681	P < 0.05
19	0.8691	P < 0.05
20	0.8680	P < 0.05
21	0.8673	P < 0.05
22	0.8676	P < 0.05
23	0.8669	P < 0.05
24	0.8689	P < 0.05
25	0.8713	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8656 - 0.8713
 Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.7608
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.8733
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.8729
 Correlation between forms = 0.6145
 Convergent Validity = 0.436
 Discriminant Validity = -.017
 Norm = 85

Table 9 : Internal Consistency Values of Character Development Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8971	P < 0.05
2	0.8967	P < 0.05
3	0.8965	P < 0.05
4	0.8969	P < 0.05

5	0.8978	P < 0.05
6	0.8971	P < 0.05
7	0.8967	P < 0.05
8	0.8975	P < 0.05
9	0.8981	P < 0.05
10	0.8970	P < 0.05
11	0.8978	P < 0.05
12	0.8980	P < 0.05
13	0.8963	P < 0.05
14	0.8968	P < 0.05
15	0.8968	P < 0.05
16	0.8972	P < 0.05
17	0.8987	P < 0.05
18	0.8974	P < 0.05
19	0.8986	P < 0.05
20	0.8968	P < 0.05
21	0.8969	P < 0.05
22	0.8969	P < 0.05
23	0.8967	P < 0.05
24	0.8974	P < 0.05
25	0.8984	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8963 - 0.8987

Guttman Split Half reliability	=	0.8074
Cronbach Alpha	=	0.9010
Standardised Item Alpha	=	0.9011
Correlation between forms	=	0.6789
Convergent Validity	=	0.541
Discriminant Validity	=	-0.045
Norm	=	90

Table 10 : Internal Consistency Values of Perseverance Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8047	P < 0.05
2	0.8077	P < 0.05
3	0.8037	P < 0.05
4	0.8071	P < 0.05
5	0.8028	P < 0.05
6	0.7990	P < 0.05
7	0.8025	P < 0.05
8	0.8050	P < 0.05
9	0.7991	P < 0.05
10	0.8050	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.7990-0.8077

Guttman Split Half reliability	=	0.7555
Cronbach Alpha	=	0.8198
Standardised Item Alpha	=	0.8199
Correlation between forms	=	0.6079
Convergent Validity	=	0.667

Discriminant Validity	=	.135
Norm	=	35

Table 11 : Internal Consistency Values of Faith in God Behaviour Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8754	P < 0.05
2	0.8742	P < 0.05
3	0.8750	P < 0.05
4	0.8744	P < 0.05
5	0.8754	P < 0.05
6	0.8746	P < 0.05
7	0.8755	P < 0.05
8	0.8745	P < 0.05
9	0.8778	P < 0.05
10	0.8781	P < 0.05
11	0.8771	P < 0.05
12	0.8737	P < 0.05
13	0.8718	P < 0.05
14	0.8721	P < 0.05
15	0.8723	P < 0.05
16	0.8718	P < 0.05
17	0.8730	P < 0.05
18	0.8740	P < 0.05
19	0.8717	P < 0.05
20	0.8721	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8717 - 0.8781

Guttman Split Half reliability	=	0.8092
Cronbach Alpha	=	0.8798
Standardised Item Alpha	=	0.8798
Correlation between forms	=	0.6829
Convergent Validity	=	0.536
Discriminant Validity	=	-.114
Norm	=	80

Table 12 : Internal Consistency Values of Time Management Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.9150	P < 0.05
2	0.9157	P < 0.05
3	0.9155	P < 0.05
4	0.9161	P < 0.05
5	0.9155	P < 0.05
6	0.9147	P < 0.05
7	0.9158	P < 0.05
8	0.9149	P < 0.05
9	0.9141	P < 0.05
10	0.9148	P < 0.05
11	0.9151	P < 0.05
12	0.9141	P < 0.05

13	0.9157	P < 0.05
14	0.9151	P < 0.05
15	0.9161	P < 0.05
16	0.9149	P < 0.05
17	0.9156	P < 0.05
18	0.9151	P < 0.05
19	0.9159	P < 0.05
20	0.9147	P < 0.05
21	0.9167	P < 0.05
22	0.9155	P < 0.05
23	0.9153	P < 0.05
24	0.9168	P < 0.05
25	0.9165	P < 0.05
26	0.9156	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.9141 - 0.9168

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.8378

Cronbach Alpha = 0.9184

Standardised Item Alpha = 0.9185

Correlation between forms = 0.7237

Convergent Validity = 0.435

Discriminant Validity = -.038

Norm = 90

Table 13 : Internal Consistency Values of Self Control Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.6759	P < 0.05
2	0.6771	P < 0.05
3	0.6579	P < 0.05
4	0.6600	P < 0.05
5	0.6617	P < 0.05
6	0.6654	P < 0.05
7	0.6864	P < 0.05
8	0.6703	P < 0.05
9	0.6717	P < 0.05
10	0.6539	P < 0.05
11	0.6658	P < 0.05
12	0.6541	P < 0.05
13	0.6670	P < 0.05
14	0.6652	P < 0.05
15	0.6732	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.65397 - 0.8864

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.5186

Cronbach Alpha = 0.6824

Standardised Item Alpha = 0.6838

Correlation between forms = 0.3501

Convergent Validity = 0.408

Discriminant Validity = -.093

Norm = 50

Table 14 : Internal Consistency Values of Leadership Development Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.7898	P < 0.05
2	0.7838	P < 0.05
3	0.7812	P < 0.05
4	0.7879	P < 0.05
5	0.7811	P < 0.05
6	0.7802	P < 0.05
7	0.7874	P < 0.05
8	0.7812	P < 0.05
9	0.7844	P < 0.05
10	0.7877	P < 0.05
11	0.7870	P < 0.05
12	0.7805	P < 0.05
13	0.7818	P < 0.05
14	0.7813	P < 0.05
15	0.7851	P < 0.05
16	0.7916	P < 0.05
17	0.7921	P < 0.05
18	0.7845	P < 0.05
19	0.7872	P < 0.05
20	0.7809	P < 0.05
21	0.7868	P < 0.05
22	0.7830	P < 0.05
23	0.7849	P < 0.05
24	0.7852	P < 0.05
25	0.7964	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.7811 - 0.7964

Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.5716

Cronbach Alpha = 0.7926

Standardised Item Alpha = 0.7939

Correlation between forms = 0.4028

Convergent Validity = 0.589

Discriminant Validity = -.012

Norm = 85

Table 15 : Internal Consistency Values of Problem Handling Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.8229	P < 0.05
2	0.8186	P < 0.05
3	0.8187	P < 0.05
4	0.8225	P < 0.05
5	0.8195	P < 0.05
6	0.8162	P < 0.05
7	0.8183	P < 0.05
8	0.8220	P < 0.05
9	0.8164	P < 0.05
10	0.8176	P < 0.05
11	0.8165	P < 0.05

12	0.8174	P < 0.05
13	0.8174	P < 0.05
14	0.8189	P < 0.05
15	0.8148	P < 0.05
16	0.8157	P < 0.05
17	0.8164	P < 0.05
18	0.8169	P < 0.05
19	0.8179	P < 0.05
20	0.8156	P < 0.05
21	0.8176	P < 0.05
22	0.8190	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.8148 - 0.8229
 Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.6476
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.8249
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.8253
 Correlation between forms = 0.4799
 Convergent Validity = 0.532
 Discriminant Validity = -0.017
 Norm = 80

Table 16 : Internal Consistency Values of Overcoming Disadvantage Complex Scale

Item	Inter-Item Correlation	RI (T-1)
1	0.7634	P < 0.05
2	0.7486	P < 0.05
3	0.7462	P < 0.05
4	0.7515	P < 0.05
5	0.7638	P < 0.05
6	0.7538	P < 0.05
7	0.7533	P < 0.05
8	0.7563	P < 0.05
9	0.7542	P < 0.05
10	0.7623	P < 0.05

Inter-item correlation ranged from 0.7462 - 0.7638
 Guttman Split Half reliability = 0.6938
 Cronbach Alpha = 0.7744
 Standardised Item Alpha = 0.7751
 Correlation between forms = 0.5313
 Convergent Validity = 0.589
 Discriminant Validity = -0.089
 Norm = 35

VI. DISCUSSION

The Tables 1-16 displaying the results above vividly reveal that the Success Potential Battery (SPB) actually measures the components of Success which if possessed in high magnitude would predispose an individual to life success or otherwise. The 16 scales have been found to be reliable and valid. The Cronbach alpha values which ranged from 0.6824 and 0.9193 as well as the coefficient analyses using Guttman split half reliability which ranged from 0.5186 and 0.8580

demonstrated that all the scales were reliable. Also, all the items had significant inter-item correlation coefficient as evident in Table 1-16 above. This is a demonstration of high internal consistency among the items and the subscales.

The above results further corroborate the earlier findings of scholars and researchers who have worked on factors responsible for success such as: (Schuller, 1984; Locke & Lantham, 1990; Animasahun, 2000; 2004; 2007; 2009; 2011 and 2012; Hunt, 2001; Oettingen and Gollwitzer, 2001; Akinboye, 2002; 2003; Mc Grath Histrich and Peters, 2002; Emmanuel, 2003; Ed Brodin, 2006; Oyedepo, 2006; Banjo, 2007; Adeyemi, 2008; Orabuche, 2008; Peter, 2009; Akande, 2010).

VII. CONCLUSION

The above evidences attest to the fact that Success Potential Battery (SPB) is both valid and reliable. The results of the inter-item analysis in each of the 16 sections is a prove of high internal consistency which is a sufficient ground for construct validity because the items measured what they are designed to measure. Also, the specification and definitions of domains of components of success provide evidence that the instrument has content validity; and nevertheless, the significant values of the Cronbach alpha and the Guttman split half reliability significantly establish the reliability of the instrument.

Hence, individuals who are interested in testing their success potentials can easily make use of the instrument. Also, parents who are curious in finding out the success potential level of their children would find the instrument useful. Likewise, organizations can use the instrument to measure the success potentials of their employees or use it as a yardstick for employing new workers. Finally, researchers, psychologists, students, teachers, counselors, and anybody interested in evaluating his/her success potentials would find the instrument very useful.

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Child Farm Labour in Rural Households of South-West, Nigeria

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Abstract - This paper investigate the level of child labour participation in cassava production in south-west, Nigeria. A multi stage random sampling technique was employed to select the sample respondents. Data were collected with the aid of well structured questionnaires to elicit information from 252 sampled respondents. Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Result shows that there are structural differences in the choice of child activity options across gender and age categories. School and work activity status revealed that school enrolment of girls was 10.53% compared to boys of 25%. Also, 53.9% of the boys further their education beyond primary school level compare to 39.5% of the girls. Results further showed that while more boys were engaged in farming operations than the girls, more female children combined schooling with work. Using multinomial logit model to examined the relationship between schooling and labour force decisions, it was revealed that some variables such age of the child, biological child, quality of shelter lived, availability of schools and parents' education have a positive significant effect on schooling decision of a child while time spent on farm and cassava farm size have a significant negative relationship on child's schooling decision. Based on the above, it is recommended that for effective policy formulation to reduce child labour, all these important variables must be taken into consideration.

Keywords : *child labour, participation, agriculture, nigeria.*

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Abstract - This paper investigate the level of child labour participation in cassava production in south-west, Nigeria. A multi stage random sampling technique was employed to select the sample respondents. Data were collected with the aid of well structured questionnaires to elicit information from 252 sampled respondents. Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Result shows that there are structural differences in the choice of child activity options across gender and age categories. School and work activity status revealed that school enrolment of girls was 10.53% compared to boys of 25%. Also, 53.9% of the boys further their education beyond primary school level compare to 39.5% of the girls. Results further showed that while more boys were engaged in farming operations than the girls, more female children combined schooling with work. Using multinomial logit model to examined the relationship between schooling and labour force decisions, it was revealed that some variables such age of the child, biological child, quality of shelter lived, availability of schools and parents' education have a positive significant effect on schooling decision of a child while time spent on farm and cassava farm size have a significant negative relationship on child's schooling decision. Based on the above, it is recommended that for effective policy formulation to reduce child labour, all these important variables must be taken into consideration.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Child labour is a persistent problem, found throughout most of the developing world, and to a lesser extent in developed countries. The availability of detailed and reliable child labour statistics and their analysis on a continuing basis are particularly important for establishing policy priorities and targets, formulating and implementing interventions, and monitoring policies, regulations and programs aimed not only at the minimization of the negative consequences of child labour in the short term, but most importantly at the eventual elimination of the practice. International Labour Organization, ILO (2002) defined child labour as labour furnished by persons below their official minimum age of employment, which is 15.

The International Labour Office reports that children work the longest hours and are the worst paid of all labourers (Bequele and Boyden 1988). They endure work conditions which include health hazards

and potential abuse. Employers capitalize on the docility of the children recognizing that these labourers cannot legally form unions to change their conditions. Such manipulation stifles the development of youths. Their working conditions do not provide the stimulation for proper physical and mental development.

Child labour is most concentrated in Asia and Africa, which together account for more than 90 percent of total child employment. Though there are more child workers in Asia than anywhere else, a higher percentage of African children participate in the labour force.

Since the adoption in 1999 of ILO Convention 182 on the worst forms of child labour and the adoption in 2001 of ILO Convention 184 on safety and health in agriculture, there has been a growing awareness of the need to research the extent and nature of children's agricultural work to determine the types of activities that place children at risk. With the vast majority (70%) of the world's working children in agriculture, these two international standards provide important guidance for addressing the needs of children engaged in hazardous work in this sector.

The labour and school outcomes of children have received increasing attention recently, especially with the emergence of the problem of child labour. According to the ILO, about one in seven of the world's children participate in labour activities, with significant regional differences (Basu, 1998).

In the empirical literature on child labour and schooling, there is a tendency to narrow the discussion and analysis of the determinants of children's activities to two non-leisure activities—market labor and schooling (Durryea, 1999).

Previous studies (Siddiqi and Patrinos (1995); Patrick et.al., (2000); Nkamleu and Kielland (2006) conducted on child labour in agriculture have all highlighted the long hours of work, meagre wages, and dangerous conditions in which children work. Another major concern for many developing countries is that a child working in agriculture may be held in debt bondage by his or her employer, either to repay fees for being trafficked from another country or to serve as repayment on a family debt. Psacharopoulos (1997) opined that if the parents have irregular employment, this creates the need for additional or more stable income sources to be provided by children. Studies by Lloyd and Blanc (1994) and Grootaert (1998) revealed that child, parent and household characteristics as well as school characteristics (i.e., expenditure in school and

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distance to the school) are important variables affecting whether children participate in economic activities.

Child labour is found predominately in the informal sector in Nigeria. In rural areas, children are found working in agriculture, herding and on family farms. They are seldom employed by state-owned commercial agriculture plantations, which are responsible for much of the agricultural production for export (U.S Embassy- Lagos, 1995).

Nigeria is characterized with small-scale farmers whose farm size averaged less than 4 ha. These farmers lack large sum of capital to commercialized their farms and generally use family labour which compose mainly their wives, children and relatives. Family labour - mainly that of their children who are mostly under-aged (7-15 years) are use for farming operations. These children school hours are often substituted for all these farm work which are generally stressful to undertake for these tender children. These lost school hours bring them educationally backward to their peers in the developed world. Children represent the future of human race.

This study will be imperative in helping to ascertain the determinants of child labour and schooling in farming households in Nigeria. It will provide a necessary statistics involving child labour and schooling pattern in the agricultural sector which policy makers and administrators can use for effective planning and legislation.

The specific objectives of this study are to:

- describe the level of child labour participation in cassava production.
- examine the schooling pattern of children involved in the cassava farming.
- model the determinants of child labour and schooling in the area.

II. MATERIALS AND METHOD

a) Study Area

This study was carried out in South Western Nigeria. South West Nigeria falls on the latitude 6° to the North and latitude 4° to the south. It is marked by longitude 4° to the West and 6° to the East. The geographical location of South West covers about 11 4,271 kilometer square, that is, approximately 12% of the country land mass. The total population is 15,456,789 and more than 96% of the population is Yorubas (NPC, 2006). The Zone is bounded in the North by Kogi and Kwara states. East by Edo and Delta states, South by the Atlantic Ocean and West by the Republic of Benin. The Zone comprises six states (Oyo, Osun . Ondo, Ogun, Ekiti and Lagos) out of which Oyo and Ogun states were randomly selected. The choice of the zone is based on its prominence in the cultivation of cassava, it is in fact the largest producer amongst the five geo-political zones of the country.

b) Sampling Procedure

A multistage random sampling technique was employed for this study. The first stage is the random selection of two states of Oyo and Ogun from the six states that make-up the South -West geo-political zone of the country. The second stage was a random selection of three local government areas that are prominent in the production of cassava. Thus, Oluyole, Ona - Ara and Lagelu Local Governments were selected from Oyo state and Abeokuta North, Odeda and Ifo Local Governments were selected from Ogun State. The third stage was random selection of five rural communities from each of the selected LGA. The final stage was random selection of nine households from each of the communities selected. Hence, a total of 270 households were interviewed using a well structured questionnaires. However, eighteen respondents were dropped for inconsistency information.

Source and Type of Data: Primary Data were collected with the aid of structured questionnaires from the household heads. Data were collected on income, farm size, family labour, hired labour, number of children and their ages, level of education of their children, time spent in farming activities and schools. Secondary Data were sourced from journals and paper presentations.

Method of Data Analysis: descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages, means, standard deviation were used to analyze the level of child labour participation and the schooling pattern of children involved in various cassava farming activities.

The multinomial logit model was employed to model child labour and schooling pattern in the cassava production. Instead of having two dichotomous alternatives (0, 1) as in the bivariate probit, the Multinomial Logit has S possible states or categories that is $s = 1, 2, 3, \dots, S$. that are exclusive and exhaustive (Nkamleu and Coulibaly, 2000). In this analysis, the four categories considered are given below:

Not working on cassava farm and not going to school (None).

Going to school and networking on cassava farm (School only).

Working on cassava farm and not going to school (Work only).

Working on cassava farm and going to school (School and Work).

The multinomial logit model is used to estimate simultaneously the determinants of 'work', 'study', combining both, or doing neither. This followed a framework adapted from Khanam, 2004, Coulombe, 2005, Nkamleu, et al., 2000 and given as; Let Y_i denote the polytomous variable with multiple unordered categories.

Suppose there are j mutually exclusive categories and $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_j, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_j$ are the probabilities associated with j categories. In this case,

categories ($j = 4$);

$j = 0$ If the child neither work nor school (doing nothing),

$j = 1$ If the child attends school only,

$j = 2$ If the child works only.

$j = 3$ If child works and attends school (combined).

Here, we consider neither work nor school as reference category.

The empirical model is expressed as:

$$Y_i = \alpha_0 + \delta_i X_i + \beta_i D_i + \sigma_i E_i + \gamma_i K_i$$

Where Y_i can be i equal to 1,2,3,4 for No school/no work, school only, work only and school/work categories and X_i , D_i , E_i and K_i represent child, parent, farm and community characteristics respectively

X_i : Child characteristics

X_1 = age of the child in the household (in years)

X_2 = biological child of the household head (yes = 1, otherwise = 0)

X_4 = child working with dangerous tools like cutlass (yes = 1, otherwise = 0)

X_5 = child helping to apply agrochemicals (yes = 1, otherwise = 0)

X_6 = Time child spent on farm in hours

D_i = Parents' characteristics

D_1 = age of household head in years

D_2 = gender of household head (male = 1, female = 0)

D_3 = years of schooling of household head

D_4 = Dependency ratio per household in percentage

D_5 = years of schooling of mother

D_6 = Shelter lived in by household (modern = 1, 0 otherwise)

E_i = Farm characteristics

E_1 = cassava farm size in hectares

E_2 = Farm income per annum in naira (N)

K_i : Community characteristics

K_1 = availability of primary school in the community (yes = 1, otherwise = 0)

K_2 = availability of secondary school in the community (yes = 1, otherwise = 0)

K_3 = state dummy (oyo = 1, ogun = 0)

$\delta, \beta, \sigma, \gamma$ are the parameters that are estimated.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result on Table 1 shows that children aged between 9-11 years constituting 50% for boys and 45 % for girls are more in child labour force than any other age categories. Most of the children (74.2%) belong to biological parents. 50.8% of the children spent an average of 3 hours per day working on cassava farm. This is in agreement with Fallon and Zafiris (1998) that twenty hours of work per week is considered as the critical threshold beyond which the education of the child starts being significantly affected. The result also indicated that 70.2% and 75.4% of the children worked with dangerous tools and helped in applying agrochemicals. This result was corroborated by the findings of ILO/ SIMPOC,(2002) ; Nkamleu and Kielland (2006) that children applying chemical substances are exposed

to not only immediate physical injuries but also risk for serious developmental harm. Results further revealed that boys spent a great number of years in school (primary and secondary) than girls. This implies that parent care more about male education than female education which put the female at disadvantaged.

Table 2 shows the gender distribution of child labour participation in various cassava farm operations. Male children were engaged more than female children in almost all the farming activities across age classification. Also, children ages between 14 – 17 years participated in all the activities more than other age categories. While more male children aged 14-17 years are involved in field preparation, planting and weeding, female children in the same age category participated more in harvesting, transportation and processing of cassava produce. This implies that children in this age categories are matured and lived under the control of their parents. In chemical application, while more female (25.5%) between the ages 14 – 17 years applied pesticides, 15.45 % male were also involved in pesticides application. However, almost equal percentage of male and female applied fertilizer. Children applying chemical substances are exposed to immediate physical injuries such as skin burn. When gender differentiation were considered amongst the children; male children participated more than their female counterpart in all farm operations. This result corroborated the findings of Nkamleu and Kielland (2006) that women and female children are to some extent constitute only the adjustable labour on the farms. They will be pulled away from their usual tasks in housework when cassava farming demands it.

Table 3 indicate that 28.9% and 25.8% of the boys and girls were neither attending school nor work. Among this category, children ages between 6-9 years has the highest percentage i.e 13.8% for the boys and 12.26% for the girls. This may be attributed to a delayed in school enrolment among children in rural Nigeria. There were more boys of all age categories observed in the school only option than girls. This established the importance attached to male-child in traditional African society. The same similar results were observed for work only option. However, result shows that more female children combined schooling with work across age categories than male children.

In the multinomial logistic model, three separate models were analyzed for female, male and both gender to emphasize the gender dimension on child labour. The marginal effects from the model measures the expected change in probability of a particular choice being made with respect to a unit change in an independent variable.

a) School Only Option

Table 4 revealed that age of the child, biological child, time spent on the farm, child help to apply chemicals, education of household head, education of child mother, availability of secondary school and age of

household head are the relevant and significant determinants of girls attending school only.

Also, for the boys model, age of the child, biological child, time spent on farm, farm income, education of household head, education of child mother, shelter lived by household, cassava farm size, availability of secondary school, age of household head and dependency ratio are the significant determinants of boys attending school only.

The age of the child is positive and significant at 10% in all children, while it is significant at 10% and 1% for girls and boys respectively. The marginal effects shows that if child age increase by 1 unit it result in increasing probabilities of schooling by 0.018 unit, 0.014 unit and 0.019 unit for all children, girls and boys respectively. This result corroborated the findings of Cockburn (2001) who reported that the probability of a child attending school increases rapidly with age relative to the probability of child working or being inactive.

Being biological children of the parent result in 0.346 unit, 0.118 unit and 0.165 unit increases in probabilities of girls, boys and both gender being sent to school relative to neither work nor school than non – biological child. This conformed with Case and Albeidieger, (2002) that a child under the tutelage of a guardian tends to be at disadvantage of attending school.

The time a child spent on farm has a negative correlation with school only. This implies that a unit increase in the number of hour spent on the farm by girls, boys and all children result in 0.038 unit, 0.035 unit and 0.030 unit decreases in probabilities of attending school only. This result confirmed the finding of Canagarajah and Coulombe, (1998) that the time spent on farm inversely related to time spent in school.

Education of the child's father significantly influence the school decision of the child. A unit increase in the year of education of child's father result in 0.014 unit, 0.018 unit in the school attendance of girls and boys respectively. This result corroborated the findings of Nkamleu and Kielland (2006) that farmer education had a positive effect on child schooling as the only alternative at 1% level of significance. The result also agreed with the findings of Grootaert, (1998) that low parental education should be used as a targeting variable for intervening in child issues. Also, a unit increase in the year of education of the child's mother result in 0.06 unit and 0.018 unit increases in the probabilities of girls and boys going to school. This result also supports the findings of Andvig, Canagarajah and Kielland, (2001) who reported that in an African setting, educational background of a child's mother is imperative to the schooling decision of such child.

The quality of house lived by the households also significantly influence the school decision specifically for the boys at 1%. The shelter that an household is living is a proxy of wealth and living

standard status of such household. If a household moved to a better shelter, it result in 0.043 unit increase in the probability of the boys attending school only relative to neither going to school nor work on the farm.

A unit increase in the farm size cultivated for cassava production reduces the probability of attending school only relative to neither work nor school for boys by 0.067 unit. However, the variable though positive but have no significant effect for the girls.

A unit increase in the number of available secondary school result in 0.038 unit and 0.348 unit increases in the probabilities of girls and boys attending school only respectively. This result corroborated the findings of Andvig, (1997) that the distance and location of a school positively influence a child to opt for school rather working on the farm.

Age of the household head positively influence the schooling decision of the child. An additional unit in the age household head result in 0.05 unit and 0.01unit increases in the probabilities of school only for girls and boys respectively.

A unit increase in the number of dependant result in 0.055 unit and 0.182 unit increases in the probabilities of boys and girls attending school only. However the variable is not significant for the girls.

b) Work Only

Table 5 shows that coefficients of the estimates of the child age, time a child spent on farm, child handled crude tools, applied agrochemicals, age of the household head, dependency ratio of the household were positive and significant determinants of the girls working only decision, while biological child, educational attainment of child's father and child's mother, gender of the household head, shelter lived by household and availability of secondary school were negatively significant with girls working only decision.

Also, Table 5 revealed that age, time spent on farm, child handling crude tools, applying agrochemicals and cassava farm size were positively significant to the boys working on the farm relative to neither working nor schooling. However biological child, educational attainment of child's father and child's mother, quality of shelter lived by the household, availability of both primary and secondary school were negatively significant with working only option.

The marginal effects show that a unit increase in the age of the girls and boys resulted in 0.012 unit and 0.13 unit increases in the probabilities of working on the farm relative to neither schooling nor working for the girls and boys respectively. This result corroborated the findings of Nkamleu and Kielland (2006) that school only, work only and combine school and work tends to be high as a child ages.

Being a biological child significantly reduces the probability of work for both genders which is larger for the boys (0.69 unit) than the girls (0.35 unit). This agree with the findings of Khanam (2004) that if a child is the

son (daughter) of the head of household, he (she) is more likely to specialise in study and less likely to specialise in work. A unit increase in the number of time spent on the farm by the girls and boys result in 0.34 unit and 0.13 unit increases in the probabilities of working on farm only by girls and boys respectively.

Also, a unit increase in the frequency of using of crude tools by girls and boys raises the probabilities of working only by 0.009 unit and 0.45 unit for girls and boys respectively. As observed by Khanam, 2004, use of crude implement under harsh and unfriendly weather has adverse effect on the fragile body of a child. Also, a unit increase in frequency of girls and boys applying agrochemicals on the farm increases the probabilities of the girls and boys working on farm only by 0.134 unit and 0.57 unit respectively.

Education of the child's father has a negative effect on the child work which is significant for both genders but has a larger effect for boys (0.22 unit) than girls (0.055 unit). In a similar vein, education of the child's mother has a negative effect on the child working only option which is significant for both genders but has a larger effects on the girls (0.78 unit) than the boys (0.44 unit). This result supports the findings of Canagarah and Coulombe, (1997) and Coulombe, (1998) that parent level of education negatively affects the likelihood of child labour.

An improved and better quality shelter is a good proxy for household wealth which significantly reduces child labour. This has considerably larger effects for girls (0.987 unit) than boys (0.457 unit).

Cassava farm size significantly increase the probability of work only for the boys by 0.564 unit and girls by 0.453 unit though the variable is not significant for the girls. This implies that an increase in the cassava farm size increases the likelihood of child labour. This support the finding of Kedebe (1990) that as farm size increases, farmers need more labour inputs. This result also agreed with that of Chamarbagwala (2004) who reported that household ownership of land, especially in rural areas, could increase a child's likelihood of working because children are more likely to be engaged in agricultural activities (seasonal or full time) if their parents own and cultivate land.

A unit increase in the number of available of secondary school also significantly reduces the working only option of the girls by 0.376 unit and boys by 0.28 unit. This implies that availability of schools in the area will increase school enrolment of children and reduces child labour. This is in agreement with the findings of Moyi (2010) that establishment of a school in the rural settings will improve the school entry of children in such area.

A unit increase in the age of the household head significantly increases the probability of the girls and boys working on the farm rather than doing nothing by 0.126 unit and 0.082 unit respectively. This result corroborated the finding of Grootaert and Kanbur,

(1995) that an advance age farmer tends to be weak in performing laborious farm activities and then delegate the younger members of the household to perform such activities.

A unit increase in the number of dependant significantly increases the probability of girls child labour by 0.987 unit and boys child labour by 0.52 unit though not significant for boys. As affirmed by Nkamleu and Kielland, (2006) a large household has more problems to solve (sickness, diseases, shelter and food) which leaves them with insufficient capital to send all the children to school. Patrinos and Psacharopoulos (1997) argued that children from larger households are more likely to work, as a consequence of resources per person being smaller in larger households.

c) *Schooling And Working*

Table 6 revealed that for girls and boys model, the parameter estimates of child age, biological child, education attainment of the household head, mother's education, gender of the household head, quality of shelter lived by the household, cassava farm size, availability of primary and secondary schools and dependency ratio are significant and positively related to the combine school and work category while the time spent of the farm, handling of crude tools and applying agrochemicals are negatively significant with the combine school and work category.

The marginal effects revealed that a unit increase in the age of girls and boys result in corresponding 0.243 unit and 0.123 unit increases in the probability of combining schooling and working relative to neither doing nothing. Being a biological child of the parent increases the probability of combining schooling with work for the girls and boys by 0.118 unit and 0.368 unit respectively.

A unit increase in the number of hours a child spent on farm reduces the probability of such child combining schooling with work. The effect is larger for girls (0.38 unit) than boys (0.216 unit). In the same vein, a unit increase in the frequency of handling crude tools reduces the probability of combining schooling with work for girls (0.589 unit) and boys (0.175 unit) and both genders (0.081 unit) respectively. Also, a unit in the frequency of applying agrochemicals reduces the probability of combining schooling and work for girls (0.987 unit), boys (0.132 unit) and both gender (0.041 unit).

A unit increase in the educational attainment of the child's father increase the probability of combining schooling with work for children. The effect is much larger for the boys (0.587 unit) than the girls (0.135 unit). Also child's mother education is positively related to the child combining schooling with work. It raises the probabilities of combining schooling with work for girls (0.033 unit) and boys (0.161 unit) respectively. This result support the findings of Cartwright and Patrinos (1999), Nkamleu and Kielland, (2006) that educational

status of a parent impact on the educational attainment of a child.

Gender of household head is positively related to combining schooling with work for the children. If a household head is male, the girls has 0.098 unit probability of combining schooling with work while the boys has 0.30 unit probability of combining schooling with work than a female headed household. This implies that a male headed household is better positioned to allow his children to combine schooling with work rather than doing nothing. An additional unit to cassava farm land held by household result in 0.241 unit and 0.67 unit increase in the probabilities of combining school and work on the farm by girls and boys respectively.

A better and improved quality shelter as a proxy for wealth status of household increases the probability of combining schooling with work for girls and boys by 0.965 unit and 0.012 unit respectively.

A unit increase in the number of available primary and secondary schools in the proximity of the area, increase the probability of girls combining schooling and work by 0.156 unit and 0.762 unit while it increase the probability of boys combining schooling and work by 0.014 unit and 0.098 unit. This result supports the findings of Moyi (2010) that establishment of a school in the rural settings will improve the school entry of children in such area. It also agreed with the findings of Blunch and Verner (2001) in Ghana which found that distance to the nearest primary school is significantly correlated with child labour for rural children.

A unit increase in the dependency ratio of the household result in 0.029 unit, 0.095 unit and 0.325 unit increases in probabilities of girls, boys and both genders combining schooling with work.

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study investigate the determinants of child labour and schooling among cassava farming households. It was found out that there is structural difference in the choice of child activities options across gender and age categories. More male children participate in all farming activities than female. Also, children aged 6-9 years are more in no school, no work (idling) category. This delayed in school enrolment may result in loss of human capital formation which may have negative effect on the future of these young generation. Further, the study revealed an inequality in gender enrolment as more male participated in school only option than their female counterpart which may be due to the believe of the household head that girls will marry early and leave home thus put them at the disadvantaged against their male counterparts.

The econometric estimation revealed that child age, biological child, education attainment of child's father, mother's education, gender of the household

head, quality of shelter lived by the household, cassava farm size, availability of primary and secondary schools and dependency ratio, time spent of the farm, handling of crude tools and applying agrochemicals are the relevant and significant determinants of child labour in the study area.

Based on the above, the study recommend an improvement in the school structure, building of more schools in the rural areas, free and compulsory education up to the secondary school level, public enlightenment campaign on the need to increase school enrolment in general and girls in particular. Also, government should intensify public enlightenment on adult literacy programme to the parents and guardians to make them understand the need for girl-child education. Lastly, vigorous campaign by all concerned agencies on the importance of family planning.

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APPENDIX

Table 1 : Socio-Economic Characteristics of Children

Variables	Frequency	Percentages	Mean	Std. deviation	
Age of child in years	Boys	Girls	All	Mean	S.D
6 – 8	11 (8.6)	6 (4.8)	17 (6.7)	10.94	2.82
9 – 11	64 (50.0)	56 (45.2)	120 (47.6)		
12 – 14	45 (35.2)	46 (37.1)	91 (36.1)		
15 – 17	8 (6.2)	16 (12.4)	24 (9.5)		
Parent -Child relationship					
Non biological child	38 (29.7)	38 (29.7)	65 (25.8)		
Biological child	90 (70.3)	97 (78.2)	187 (74.2)		
Average time child spent on farm in hrs/day					
1 – 3	73 (57.0)	55 (44.4)	128 (50.8)	2.92	1.55
4 – 6	45 (35.2)	40 (32.3)	85 (33.7)		
7 – 9	8 (6.3)	15 (12.1)	23 (9.1)		
10 – 12	2 (1.8)	14 (11.3)	16 (6.4)		
Children working with dangerous tools					
No	47 (36.7)	18 (14.5)	65 (29.8)	0.74	0.44
Yes	81 (63.3)	106 (85.5)	187 (70.2)		
Children helping to apply agro-					
No	57 (44.5)	5 (4.0)	62 (24.6)	0.44	0.51
Yes	71 (55.5)	119 (95.0)	190 (75.4)		

Years spent in school

1-3	9 (7.0)	15 (12.1)	24 (9.5)	7.57	2.87
4-6	50 (39.1)	60 (48.4)	110 (43.7)		
7-9	50 (39.1)	43 (34.7)	93 (36.8)		
10-12	19 (14.8)	6 (4.8)	25 (10)		

Source : Field survey,

Table 2 : Distribution of child labour participation in cassava production by gender

	Age of Boys				Age of Girls			
	6 - 9	10 - 13	14 - 17	All	6 - 9	10 - 13	14 - 17	All
Field Prep	37(30.08)	37(30.1)	69(56.1)	143(62.4)	28(26.4)	28(26.2)	30(28.3)	86(34.4)
Planting	43(34.96)	51(41.5)	74(60.2)	168(66.7)	15(14.2)	17(16.0)	67(63.2)	99(39.3)
Weeding	43(34.96)	50(40.7)	74(60.2)	167(66.3)	14(13.2)	15(14.2)	61(57.6)	90(35.7)
Pesticides appl.	19(15.5)	19(15.5)	19(15.4)	57(22.6)	6(5.66)	8(7.55)	27(25.5)	41(16.3)
Fertilizer appl.	21(17.07)	28(22.7)	31(25.2)	80(31.7)	8(7.55)	8(7.55)	27(25.5)	43(17.1)
Harvesting	40(32.52)	53(43.1)	74(60.2)	127(66.3)	16(15.1)	16(15.1)	80(75.5)	112(44.4)
Transportation	45(36.59)	53(43.1)	74(60.2)	172(68.3)	16(15.1)	16(15.1)	80(75.5)	112(44.4)
Processing	41(33.33)	49(39.8)	69(56.1)	159(63.1)	13(12.3)	16(15.1)	66(62.3)	95(37.7)

Source : Field survey, 2011 Figures in parentheses are percentage

Table 3 : Distribution of School Pattern of Children Involved in Cassava Production

	Age of Boys				Age of Girls			
	6 - 9	10 - 13	14 - 17	All	6 - 9	10 - 13	14 - 17	All
No school, no work	17(13.82)	10(8.13)	10(8.13)	37(28.91)	13(12.3)	10(9.43)	9(8.49)	32(25.81)
School only	15(12.20)	9(7.32)	8(6.50)	32(25.0)	4(3.77)	8(6.45)	1(0.94)	13(10.49)
Work only	5(4.07)	3(2.44)	4(3.25)	12(9.38)	3(2.88)	2(1.89)	2(1.89)	7(5.65)
School and Work	14(11.38)	8(6.25)	25(19.5)	47(36.72)	30(28.3)	22(17.7)	20(16.1)	72(58.06)

Table 4 : Determinants of Child Labour and Schooling Amongst Cassava Farm Households Showing Schooling Only

Variables	Girls		Boys		Both Gender	
	Marg. effects	P values	Marg. effects	P values	Marg. Effects	P values
Age of child	.014*	0.126	.019***	0.000	.018*	0.081
Biological child	.346**	0.012	.118**	0.042	.165**	0.035
Time child spent on farm	-.038**	0.049	-.035*	0.081	.030**	0.046
Child handled crude tools	.028	0.838	.021	0.776	.062	0.421
Child applied chemicals	.009**	0.011	-.023	0.942	-.032	0.609
Farm income	9.84e-3	0.938	1.76e-3*	0.058	9.72e-3	0.469
Educ Att. of child's father	.001***	0.001	.009***	0.005	.002*	0.061
Educ Att of child's mother	.006**	0.045	.018*	0.155	.005**	0.447
Gender of household head	-.069	0.155	.345	0.729	.025	0.670
Shelter lived by household	.022	0.638	.043***	0.005	.055	0.459
Cassava farm size	.023	0.176	-.067**	0.020	-.034	0.602
Availability of sec sch	.038**	0.002	.348*	0.079	-.267	0.013
Availability of pry sch	.307	0.142	.433	0.597	.401***	0.007
Age of household head	.005**	0.012	.001*	0.063	.001	0.302
State dummy	-.139	0.056	-.245	0.292	-.204	0.010
Dependency ratio	.182	0.803	.055***	0.000	.062	0.164

* significant @ 10%, ** significant @ 5%, *** significant @ 1%. Base category: neither schooling nor working

Source : Computation from field survey, March, 2011.

LR chi ² (48)	=	95.7	LR chi ² (14)	=	63.43	LR chi ² (48)	=	108.82
Prob > chi ²	=	0.0001	Prob > chi ²	=	0.0179	Prob > chi ²	=	0.0000
Log likelihood	=	-80.670139	Log likelihood	=	-114.67119	Log likelihood	=	-221.30031
Pseudo R ²	=	0.3724	Pseudo R ²	=	0.2166	Pseudo R ²	=	0.197

Table 5 : Determinants of Child Labour and Schooling Amongst Cassava Farm Households Showing Working Only

Variables	Girls		Boys		Both Gender	
	Marg. Effects	P values	Marg. Effects	P values	Marg. Effects	P values
Age of child	0.012*	0.072	0.13**	0.049	2.16e-2**	0.046
Biological child	-0.350*	0.086	-0.69*	0.096	-1.46e-3**	0.030
Time child spent on farm	0.34**	0.043	0.13*	0.083	7.07e4	0.485
Child handled crude tools	0.009*	0.076	0.45***	0.009	1.53e-3***	0.001
Child applied chemicals	0.134**	0.050	0.57**	0.024	7.81e-4	0.570
Farm income	- 4.50e4	0.753	0.98	0.806	3.27e-8	0.255
Educ Att. of child's father	- 0.055**	0.032	0.22***	0.007	-5.77e-4**	0.011
Educ Att of child's mother	-0.780*	0.088	0.44***	0.001	-3.24e-4	0.454
Gender of household head	0.467	0.455	0.87	0.306	-1.50e-4	0.435
	0.987**	0.046	-0.457**	0.045	-2.32e-2**	0.060
Cassava farm size	0.453	0.152	0.564*	0.098	4.22e-3	0.248
Availability of sec sch	0.376*	0.098	0.280***	0.000	7.75e-4	0.889
Availability of pry sch	0.878	0.998	0.564***	0.000	.025***	0.000
Age of household head	0.126**	0.015	0.082**	0.019	.7.38e-2**	0.034
State dummy	1.983	1.000	5.46e2	1.987	-.012	0.122
Dependency ratio	0.987*	0.076	- 0.520	3.875	-1.75e-3	0.893

* significant @ 10%, ** significant @ 5%, *** significant @ 1%. Base category: neither schooling nor working

Source : Computation from field survey, March, 2011.

Table 6 : Determinants of Child Labour and Schooling Amongst Cassava Farm Households Showing Combined Schooling and Working

Variables	Girls		Boys		Both Gender	
	Marg. Effects	P values	Marg. Effects	P values	Marg. Effects	P values
Age of child	.243*	0.073	.012**	0.013	.006**	0.053
Biological child	.118**	0.048	.368*	0.074	.148**	0.048
Time child spent on farm	- .380**	0.046	- .216**	0.027	-.005**	0.020
Child handled crude tools	- .589*	0.079	- .175*	0.071	-.081*	0.073
Child applied chemicals	-.987*	0.092	-.132*	0.077	- .041**	0.062
Farm income	7.65e-5	0.221	.176	0.158	.340	0.117
Educ Att. of child's father	0.135*	0.089	.587**	0.046	.025**	0.065
Educ Att of child's mother	.033**	0.014	.161**	0.012	.008**	0.016
Gender of household head	.098*	0.079	.030*	0.099	-.016*	0.088
Shelter lived by household	.965**	0.048	.012**	0.042	.113**	0.024
Cassava farm size	.241**	0.028	.077*	0.670	.213**	0.011
Availability of sec sch	.156*	0.091	.014**	0.045	.196*	0.072
Availability of pry sch	.762*	0.060	.098**	0.016	.362***	0.009
Age of household head	.203	0.211	.765	0.819	-.003***	0.001
State dummy	.453	0.916	.976	0.492	.169	0.198
Dependency ratio	.029*	0.087	.095**	0.040	.325**	0.036

* significant @ 10%, ** significant @ 5%, *** significant @ 1%. Base category: neither schooling nor working

Source : Computation from field survey, March, 2011.



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The Position and Identification of the Non-Status Sámi in the Marginal of Indigeneity

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GJHSS-A Classification : *FOR Code: 940106*



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Erika Sarivaara^a, Satu Uusiantti^c & Kaarina Määttä^p

Abstract - The concept of a Non-Status member of an indigenous people refers to a person who is Indigenous but does not have the status as an indigenous person. The indigenous status has often been lost after the adaptation of complicated legal rules resulting to a situation that is not equivalent with individuals' self-identification with an indigenous people. This article introduces the concept of Non-Status Sámi in the Finnish situation where some of the Sámi are excluded from the official definition of indigenous. This was a narrative study aiming at producing subjective knowledge about Sámi identity and experiences of it. Non-Status Sámi (N=10) were interviewed. The study took place in Finland which is one of the four countries inhabited by the Sámi. The study showed that the official definition of an indigenous people matters for the identity of an individual person. The purpose of this study was to increase information about the phenomenon and tear down stereotypes and myths about Sáminess.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This article focuses on identification with an indigenous people by revealing the point of view of those who do not official meet the criteria of indigeneity. We start this discussion by talking about the indigenous people of Tasmania who were thought to be disappeared. However, there was a population in Tasmania whose members called themselves Aboriginal Tasmanians. They did not accept researchers' denial of their existence. Hence, these Tasmanians started to defend their rights in the mid-1970s (Crowley 1993; Smith 1999). Later on, the position and rights of indigenous peoples gained root at the world's political arenas and international agreements since the beginning of the 1990s when indigenous peoples were started to distinguish from minorities. Indigenous peoples' rights to collective possession of certain lands that were earlier colonized by majorities were admitted (Koivurova, 2010).

The definition of an indigenous status is an important one among the indigenous peoples. For example, indigenous peoples in Canada are legally defined by their bloodlines (Palmer, 2000). If one meets the criteria of indigeneity, one can for example have right to use lands and waters of the indigenous reservations. People of the reservation have been divided in two when considered from judicial point of view. Non-status Indians commonly refers to people who identify themselves as Indians but who are not

entitled to registration on the Indian Register pursuant to the Indian Act. (Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, 2010; Cornet, 2003). In indigenous contexts, the term "non-status" refers to the drain of traditional rights. In some cases, their identification and talk about their indigeneity were considered a political idea and it resulted in discussion where people who were regarded as non-existent could not have claims concerning their existence: "Aboriginal individuals who are of Indian or First Nations ancestry and would so identify but do not have Indian Act status. In some cases, status has been lost through the complex application of legal rules that have not corresponded with individuals' identities." (Magnet et al., 2005, p. 180).

The phenomenon that occurred in Tasmania can also be found in the Sámi history of Finland, the context of this study. Generally researchers distinguish three Sámi groups in Finland: Northern Sámi, Inari Sámi, and Skolt Sámi (see Lehtola, 2012). Historically there is also Forest Sámi group in Finland, but as a result of language shift the Forest Sámi have generally been assumed extinct. For example, Finnish historian Helmer Tegengren's conclusion is evident already in the title of his book: *En utdöd lappkultur i Kemi Lappmark* [The extinct Lappish culture in Kemi area] (Tegengren, 1952). However, there is a population who live in the traditional area of the Forest Sámi and who consider themselves Sámi. The modern Forest Sáminess has been researched and according to results, some of the Forest Sámi identify themselves as the Sámi. Moreover, the research results suggest that the Forest Sámi culture and identity have been transferred from a generation to another although the Sámi language has disappeared from that particular area (Saarinen, 2011; Sarivaara, 2012).

Pursuant to the Finnish law on the Sámi Parliament, a person is considered a Sámi if he/she considers him/herself a Sámi and if (1) the person him/herself or at least of one parent or grandparent of his/hers has learned Sámi as the first language, or (2) the person is a descendant of someone who has been registered as a Fell, Forest or Fishing Sámi in the land, taxation or census register, or (3) at least one of his/her parents has or could have been registered as entitled to vote in the elections of the Sámi Delegation or the Sámi Parliament (Act on Sámi Parliament, 1995; adopted on 17 July 1995). The concept of Non-Status Indian (Magnet et al., 2005) lays the foundation for the study of the non-status Sámi. In this article, a group of people

within the Sámi society, which has been previously invisible in public, is introduced and defined. The members of this group are not included in the official statistics and they lack official status as Sámi because they do not fulfill the criteria of Sáminess. Consequently, the definition of Non-Status Sámi is based on two objective criteria that do not have emphasis on self-identification (Sarivaara, 2012): yet, at the individual level, rights to self-identification are stated: Indigenous peoples and individuals have the right to belong to an indigenous community or nation, in accordance with the traditions and customs of the community or nation concerned. No discrimination of any kind may arise from the exercise of such a right. (United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples at Article 9.).

The non-status Sámi includes people from almost all Sámi groups in Finland. Erika Sarivaara (2012) distinguishes the following groups that are categorized based on their cultural identity, language, and official status: First, the Sámi society comprises all the Sámi who fulfill the criteria of the official definition of a Sámi whether they know or do not know the Sámi language. Secondly, the Sámi society also contains the group of non-Sámi who know the Sámi language: this group, the "Lapps", can be located outside the Sámi community, because they strongly oppose the Sámi and do not know the Sámi language. Thirdly, there is the dominant population, that is the non-Sámi and who do not know the Sámi language, does not belong to the Sámi society. The fourth group is the non-status Sámi which is located within the Sámi society, because they speak Sámi and also because most of them work for the Sámi society but do not have the official Sámi status. The concept of the non-status Sámi can work as a useful tool when analyzing the relationship and position of the Sámi community and its relation to other groups. In this study, we analyzed the identification of the non-status Sámi with the Sámi community. This is important because the indigenous identity matters not only to the person himself or herself but also to the group and the society.

II. IDENTITY AND IDENTIFICATION WITH AN INDIGENOUS PEOPLE

The aforementioned article in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples and Cobo's definition (Cobo, 1986) give indigenous peoples right to define those criteria based on which the members of the people are selected. On the other hand, according to (2012), "päättös siitä, kuka kuuluu tiettyyn alkuperäiskansaan, ei saa perustua mielivaltaan, vaan sen tulee perustua selkeisiin edellä mainittuihin tunnusmerkistöihin [the decision of who belongs to a certain indigenous people cannot be made wantonly but it must be based on clearly defined elements]" (Joona, 2012). According to Joona's view, decisions should be

reasoned, objective, and in accordance with the internationally recognized human rights (Joona, 2012).

UN special reporter José Martínez Cobo's (1986) report of indigenous peoples' exclusion complements the definition of indigenous peoples in the ILO number 169 convention. Cobo's definition covers indigenous peoples at the group and individual levels. According to the group level definition, those communities and peoples who have historical connection with the communities preceding colonization, who developed at the lands populated by these communities, and who consider themselves clearly separate from the parts of the dominating society are indigenous. Additionally, indigenous peoples are not in a dominant position in the modern society and they want to maintain, develop, and transfer the lands inherited from their ancestors and their ethnical identity that they share as a people and that is in harmony with their own cultural practices, social institutions, and legal systems (Cobo, 1986). Cobo also answers to the question of who can be defined as members of an indigenous people at the individual level.

The person must identify himself or herself as a member of an indigenous people (that is the subjective criterion) and the group has to recognize and accept the person as a member of the group (that is the objective criterion). Cobo emphasized the power of the group in this matter: the acceptance of the group includes the sovereign right to decide who belongs to the group without any need for outsiders' intervention (Cobo, 1986).

Basically, the concept of indigenous peoples is a construction created for international agreements within the global context. It can be adapted to certain peoples and communities in certain areas. The concept points out important common and topical social, cultural, and political questions that concern indigenous peoples. As a concept, it also is related to identity and identification processes. (Valkonen, 2009; Seurujärvi-Kari, 2012.).

At the moment, the purpose of the development of indigenous peoples' rights is to gain sovereignty (Koivurova, 2010). In addition, international agreements and declarations mean to secure indigenous peoples' rights and viability in their traditional domiciles. In September 2007, United Nation's general assembly agreed the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples. The declaration demands that members of the United Nations secure indigenous peoples' rights in their own cultures. Significantly, the declaration uses the plural form, "indigenous peoples". The case of using plural form has been debated ragingly in politics because the term is seen to refer to the collective human rights of indigenous peoples and especially to sovereignty.

At the individual level, the declaration demands rights to self-identification: "Indigenous peoples and individuals have the right to belong to an indigenous

community or nation, in accordance with the traditions and customs of the community or nation concerned. No discrimination of any kind may arise from the exercise of such a right.” (United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples at Article 9.).

The concepts of Indigeneity, being Indigenous, and Indigenoussness can be seen as a part of indigenous peoples’ ethno-political action that primarily pursues sovereignty in their traditional domiciles. Indigeneity can be interpreted as an identity that is constructed through ethno-policy and thus, indigenous peoples can use the concept to further their case at political arenas (Gegeo, 2001). According to Taiaiake Alfred and Jeff Corntassel (2005), “indigenoussness is an identity constructed, shaped and lived in the politicized context of contemporary colonialism” (p. 597).

The concept of indigeneity can also be discussed from the cultural point of view. In the post-colonial research literature, indigenous identity has been under wide interest and aroused discussion internationally (e.g., Battiste, 2000; Gleason, 1983; Griffiths, 1995/2006; Smith, 1999) and among Sámi researchers (e.g., Gaski, 2008; Hirvonen, 2008; Kuokkanen, 2006; Lehtola, 1999; Müller-Wille, 1971/1996; Seurujärvi-Kari, 2012; Stordahl, 2008; Valkonen, 2009; Åhrén, 2007).

Linda T. Smith (1999) points out that the indigenous identity is often connected with the demands on authenticity and essentialism. Smith continues that a person who belongs to an indigenous people and participates in political discussion often becomes distrusted of his or her authenticity (see also Henze & Davis, 1999). Discussion about authenticity is harmful especially to persons who belong to the marginal indigenous group, such as those whose “blood quantum” is “too white” or, for example, urbanized non-status Maori (Smith 1999, pp. 72–72).

According to the essentialist conception of a man, a human being is born with some specific characteristic (essentia). This pre-determined essence determines the direction in which human life develops and gives some model and destination to it. Essentialist thoughts and manners of speaking about “native” populations and the distinctions produced by these manners of speaking finally hark back to ideas of human races. When differences that are based on thoughts like this turn against some individuals or groups, we must talk about the differences and their consequences as manifestations of racism. When taken to the extremes, the essentialist conception of ethnicity leads to racism. Presenting characteristics as biological or otherwise unchangeable, “natural,” has always been a central strategy of racism that has used for justifying unequal treatment. Therefore, questioning of the theory of race has been one to the most salient aspirations of those who object racism and racist research. The fact that the human kind could be categorized into various races based on the biological characteristics and genotype

has been questioned already decades ago (e.g., Lévi-Strauss, 1952; Rothman, 2003; Unesco, 1969).

When analyzing the phenomenon from a wider perspective than just a matter of race, the identity formation appears multidimensional, even indefinite. Hall writes about the importance of contact zone in the development of an identity. He refers to the zone of uneven distribution of power developed through the interaction between colonizing and colonized cultures (Hall, 2003). Homi Bhabha (1996) and Lawrence Grossberg (1996) talk about an intermediate culture, “the third space” that describes action and identity development in the frontier zone of two cultures. The third space does not purely represent either of the two cultures or groups but seeking of one’s own place and creating new space in the frontier zone. Questions whether individuals are more this or that may direct them in the frontier zone and partly produce idea of marginal hybrid identity (Lehtonen et al., 2004).

Hybrid identities consist of historical and cultural fragments and irregularities rather than of consistencies. People cannot come back to their roots, the history of their relatives, and find the continuity in their selfhood through that. What they long for has already moved and cannot be reached as the same. Considered from this perspective, identities are in the space of coming and being. A salient question asked by Hall is not, therefore, “Who we really are?” It is “Who we, have become” (Hall, 1990; 1999; 2000). Hall describes the construction of a hybrid identity as a series of routes rather than coming back to one’s roots.

Riitta Kontio defines a hybrid as a descendant of indigenous people and settlers whose identification, for one reason or another, with the indigenous people or the dominant population has not succeeded. The result of the identity process is the construction of one’s own special national, linguistic, and ethnical identity (Kontio, 2003). Sanna Autto, Timo P. Karjalainen, and Leena Syrjälä studied the local identity, relationship with the nature, and politicized use of lands among people who live in northern Finland on the contact zone of the Sámi and the Finnish culture. They concluded that a Northern people’s identity cannot be analyzed without the concept of hybrid (Autto et al., 2009). Villagers discussed the experience of being located in the middle: The development of the culture of Lapland in the middle of two powerful traditions, the Sámi and the Finnish one, created an intermediate zone similar to paranoid schizophrenia where various tensions confronted” (Autto et al., 2009, p. 194).

The constructivist view sees identity as constantly renewing but not arbitrarily adjustable because it is also influenced by uncontrollable factors such as the acceptance of the community (Sarivaara, 2012). This limited adjustability results in a situation where people who have a vague or hybrid ethnical, social, or cultural identity can only partly have an

influence on their situation. For example, learning a language and using it changes both the person's own and outsiders' conception of the person's identity, but clearly within the limits set by the community (see Sarivaara, 2010; Sarivaara, 2012).

On one hand, creation of a certain kind of identity is connected with clarifying the hybrid identity and on the other hand with the eligibility of the identity. In name, the same "identity", for example Sáminess, can appear unwanted or despicable from one perspective and simultaneously eligible and appreciated from another perspective. From the constructivist point of view, the ambivalence of the identity shows the possible variation of the experienced identity and the possibility of self-awareness and self-education.

The discussion about Sáminess and especially the definition of Sáminess started in Finland in the 1990s after the draft law on the Sámi parliament was handed to the Finnish authorities. Also other laws on the Sámi's legal status were prepared at the same time (Lehtola, 2005). Erkki Pääkkönen studied the so-called Lapp dispute that he describes as the resistance movement started by the local mainstream population of the northern Finland in the 1990s (Pääkkönen, 2008). Based on the research and public debate, the view on the definition of an identity is partly based on the either-or juxtaposition. A certain dichotomy has stigmatized the discussion about Sáminess: the Sámi who meet the official criteria defined by the Sámi parliament forms one group whereas people who are located outside the official definition are considered outsiders, mostly Finns who belong to the dominant population.

On the other hand, identity can be defined as a versatile and dynamic phenomenon (Bhabha, 1994; Eikjok, 2000; Hall, 1990; Jenkins, 1996; Seurujärvi-Kari, 2012; Valkonen, 2009) when it is seen as a constructivist process that is constantly changed and constructed in various places and times (Hall, 1990). Furthermore, Maritta Stoor (1999) refers to an identity that is created through negotiations and renewal. Veli-Pekka Lehtola has studied the problems of the cultural encounter of the Finnish and Sámi cultures: he describes the Lapp identity formed in the borderline zone of the Sámi and Finnish cultures, which is a multicultural zone. Lehtola emphasizes that the emergence of a Lapp identity is based on the experience of the Sáminess as stigmatizing identity which caused the endeavor to build a new ethnical identity (Lehtola, 1997).

III. METHOD

The purpose of this study was to answer the question "Who am I?" by studying the identity of a certain group of people. The nature of the research participants, their historical background, and present situation make the foundation of a unique research setting. This study focused on a group of Sámi society who has revitalized the Sámi language although it has

not been spoken in their families for generations. Thus, they are not Sámi according to legislation. Here, the members of this group are called Non-Status Sámi. This article is based on Dr. Erika Sarivaara's (2012) doctoral research who herself, represents the group of the non-status Sámi.

This was a qualitative research with narrative approach (Polkinghorne, 1988; Riessman, 1993). Narrative research can be defined as research that utilizes or analyzes data that are collected via narratives (e.g. biographies) or other such ways (e.g. anthropologists' observational narratives, interviews). Thus, a narrative can be either a research object or a means to study a phenomenon (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998). Narrative research does not focus on objective and generalized facts but on local, personal, and subjective information—this is considered a strength of narrative research because informants' voices of can be heard authentically (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Narratives can also be used when analyzing the reasons for actions (see Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

The study was done in cooperation with the research partners so that there was dialogue and exchange between the researcher and the participants: understanding and interpretation formed a continuous process, a hermeneutic circle (Gadamer, 1979). Such a process has the empowerment of the research partners as one of its main objectives. This study also aimed at empowerment through the researcher starting a process of change and encouraging the participants.

The data of this study comprised the interview data of ten people obtained in 2008–2009 in Finland. The interviewees were selected according to the three criteria used as a basis for the definition of Non-Status Sámi: they must know the Sámi language, they must have oral family knowledge about having Sámi ancestors, and they must not be considered Sámi under the official definition of Sáminess—that is, they must not be entitled to vote in the elections of the Sámi Parliament. In this study, they were considered researcher partners because they were not only passive informants but rather worked, to some extent, together with the researcher. In this way, the participants of the study benefit from studying each other.

In this research, identity is defined through social constructionism. Identity is always in an interaction relationship with the environment and reality is socially constructed through various meanings and interpretations (Berger & Luckmann, 1994). In social constructionism, identity is defined as identification in a certain objective world which an individual person can retell subjectively only through a connection with this world (Berger & Luckmann, 1975). The constructivist viewpoint is based on the idea of selfhood and identity being narratives by nature, phenomena that based on discourses. It means that the idea of man is anti-essentialist. In other words, in social constructionism, a

human being does not have essence that would determine who he or she is (Lehmuskoski, 2008). This idea of identity is based on symbolic interactionism (Mead, 1972) or social constructionism where the reality is produced through interaction between human beings (Berger & Luckmann, 1975).

In this study, a new perspective of the multidimensional Sámi identity is analyzed: the focus is directed in people who are located in this borderline zone and who are in danger of being ignored and denied. The following research questions were set for this study:

- (1) How do the Sámi-speaking non-status Sámi perceive their position in the Sámi community?
- (2) How do the Sámi-speaking non-status Sámi perceive their status?

The concept of hybrid identity seems to resemble the non-status Sámi's situation where the identification with Sáminess and the dominant population can be problematic (Ruotsala, 2002). In this study, the non-status Sámi are not considered half-breed or mixed. Therefore, the interview data do not provide answers to the research participants' specific backgrounds. The focus is on their Sámi roots and the meanings the roots have in their lives. Lähtenmäki (2004) calls Sámi descended people as mixed population since they have both Sámi and Finnish settlers' ancestors. Bloodline was seen as one of the areas in the approach applied in this study but not as the central one. According to Lähtenmäki (2004) identification as a member of a mixed population makes the Sáminess strongly politicized and sensitive (Lähtenmäki, 2004). We analyzeD the phenomenon, the identity of the northern people and related problems, in reflection to previous research (see e.g., Amft, 2002; Kramvig, 1999; Ruotsala, 2002; Stoor, 1999; Stordahl, 1997; Valkonen, 2009). The purpose is to contribute empowering and questioning discussion on Sáminess. In addition, the research provides a new perspective on the Sámi research paradigm introducing new information about Sáminess.

IV. RESULTS

a) 4 A. The Sámi-speaking non-status Sámi's position in the Sámi community

The research partners' experiences narrated in this study revealed that non-status position is a real problem without a solution. In order to survive in the borderline zone, they had developed various identity strategies because their goal was to live in a community which is a mixture of northerness, Sáminess, and Finnishness. The term "identity strategy" refers to a way one develops to survive in one's living environment (Lindgren, 2000). Living in such an environment requires flexibility:

And sometimes when you have a bad day, you think what you are. I haven't set any strict limits for

where I belong. There is perhaps a little bit of flexibility, too, when you don't define too strict limits. (Research Partner No. 1).

A few interviewees had identified with the Sáminess and the Sámi life style after having lived the Sámi environment despite the experiences of limited being. They seemed to have adjusted in the unclear situation and looked for solutions to survive. Every research partner had gone through the process of reflecting on their Sámi situation, clarifying their identity to themselves and to the community. Some of them said that the unclear situation did not bother them eventually. They had found a way of coping with the situation by learning about Sáminess in general and as their own characteristic. As a whole, the situation appeared ambivalent making people do soul-searching and contemplate differences, as the following research partner described:

Living in the influence of the local Sámi culture and community has strengthened my Sáminess. I perceive myself more Sámi and Finnish, so that I barely can communicate with someone from Helsinki [the capital city of Finland] but our ways of thinking are totally different. - - My sense of humor and the similar way of raising children, things, hobbies, and everything are more similar with the official Sámi people. (Research partner No. 10).

Based on the research data, the Canadian blood quantum principle could be recognized from the discussion of Sáminess. The various demands of being full-blooded can result in leaving the Sámi who have mixed with the Finns and other ethnic groups outside the Sámi debate because of their half-breed bloodline. Valkonen (2009) writes that a half-breed Sámi is less than a full-blooded Sámi because of the level of Sámi blood. She refers to considering Sáminess as a race which makes Sáminess a biological category, in other words blood quantum requirement in the Finnish situation. The ethnical definition of Sáminess can be made based on parentage but basically, Sáminess is about the sense of belonging, the Sámi identity (Valkonen, 2009).

The cultural identity does not measure the Sámi blood but refers to a person's identification from the cultural point of view. An individual person's self and social identities are constructed in relation to the culture and membership in that culture the person finds his or her own (Fornäs, 1998; Hall, 1987). This cultural identity is strongly connected with time and place, too (Mason, 2000), which means initially that the identity is constructed in a certain cultural community. Indeed, this study is about that cultural identity: Sáminess is defined through that culture the research partners' find their own.

The following quotation from the interview data reveals how the research partner contemplates Sáminess in relation to the acceptance by the official

Sámi. The research partner's public Sámi identity depends on whether the official Sámi accept him as a Sámi people or not. The research partner prefers recognition by the Sámi community over his or her own identification. He or she is very careful in his or her definition and sense of belonging. He or she waits for the official Sámi's reaction of his or her Sámi identity:

In Norway, people have asked me if I am Sámi and I have often said that I am a sort of seaguhuvvon, a half-breed with Finnish and Sámi blood. But mostly in Finland, I tell that I have some Sámi blood. But I guess I haven't told anyone that I'm Sámi but might tell that I am of Sámi descent, or from Lapland or Sámi people's descendant. ---I think that today people are careful of who can call themselves as Sámi. And after having learned the language and used that pretty much, I guess I think that if everybody else starts to call you [Sámi] then you could start calling yourself as a Sámi, too. But you don't necessarily want to be the first to say that you are Sámi. (Research Partner No. 1).

The aforementioned quotation shows the research partner's wish that since he has built the living connection with Sáminess, learned the Sámi language, and identified himself or herself as Sámi, the Sámi community accept him or her as a Sámi. The following data excerpt shows the conflicting emotions regarding the way the research partners talk about their Sáminess in public:

I have often said that I have Sámi ancestry but I don't belong to the Sámi electoral register. My answer and feelings vary daily. I don't know where else and to what other people I could belong to. --- I can't say aloud it [that I am Sámi]. It sounds like a declaration of war. A lot of confusion and disagreement is involved in this matter. (Research Partner No. 4).

The process of building an ethnic identity may include the phase of questioning one's ethnicity. The next narrative communicates the strong longing for the lost connection with the Sámi relatives and system. An essential part of Sáminess is to know one's family closely. The family defines Sáminess to a great extent, for example, the way the family Sámi dress is made and decorated. The lost family connection is a part of the non-status Sámi's experience of who they are and where they belong to. They find it hard not know all Sámi families because of the events that took place in the past:

At the moment, I am a half-caste.--- Sometimes, it bothers me a lot. It would be easy to be someone who knew in which village my relatives live and visit them. And then, it would be a huge relief to be able to wear the Sámi coat. --- Then, I could tell everyone that I am their son. That would be just great. Then I didn't have to think that. It just that the family seems to be so important, at

least it seems like it is. You have even the third cousins in your wedding. Then, I didn't have to think about those things. (Research Partner No. 7).

b) 4 B. The Sámi-speaking non-status Sámi's perceptions of their status

During the past few decades, the Sámi definition has been widely discussed in public—and still is. Who are Sámi? How to define the limits of Sáminess and on what grounds? The public discussion has been versatile and several quarters have participated in it. The Sámi's position in the Finnish legislation was significantly improved when the Sámi had cultural sovereignty in their official Sámi Domicile Area in 1995. For this task, the Sámi elected the Sámi parliament (the realization of cultural sovereignty is defined in detail in the law of Sámi parliament) (Lehtola, 2005).

The law defined for the first time who can be considered ethnically Sámi and a member of this indigenous people (see the definition in Introduction). In order to be officially Sámi, a person must consider himself or herself Sámi which refers to the subjective criterion. In addition, the person must fulfill at least one of the three objective criteria that relate to (1) the Sámi language, (2) Lappishness, and (3) the Sámi parent(s).

Each of the research partners in this study knew the current definition well. Therefore, it seemed clear that they understood and realized the definition. In addition, everyone thought that a definition is necessary in order to be able to define who is a Sámi and who is not. Some of the interviewees had reflected on the matter profoundly and could make suggestions on how to revise the definition. A few interviewees found discussing the definition conflicting because they experienced negatively being excluded from the official definition of Sáminess.

It arouses anger and disappointment in me, and questioning of my identity. --- How do you define yourself? But that concerns your children too, how they define themselves? You are responsible for your children. So, this pain does not concern just us but the future generations, too. (Research Partner No. 4).

The research partners could also name positive aspects in their action: being a person who lives in and works for the Sámi community could make a positive resource in the Sámi decision-making. Both the non-status Sámi self and his or her community could benefit from a membership of a Sámi-speaking, active person.

Of course, when you act in the Sámi environment in all possible ways, you start asking why you can't vote in the Sámi parliament election. I think it's bad because people are not allowed to use all those possibilities they would otherwise have in that environment naturally. --- The limits are artificial and thus lousy. Because it also means that the strengths of those people who could give their contribution remain unused. (Research Partner No. 3).

One of the research partners was dissatisfied with the definition because it is unfair to those whose families have Finnishized earlier than two generations ago. The partner thought that it would be natural to perceive them as Sámi and questions his or her identity:

Have your grandparents spoken Sámi as their first language? That is quite a rough definition after the strong assimilation policy into the Finnish society generations ago because of which many have given up their Sámi family name, livelihood. --- Think about us, we were born here and grown here, become rooted here. This is our soul, even our blood, so where else could we belong to? What else could we be? (Research Partner No. 4).

Social acceptance appeared more important for some research partners than the official one. It was extremely significant that the Sámi community accepts a person as a member of the group, in other words as a Sámi, welcomes, and regards the person as us, the Sámi:

I know that definition. I think it is probably good but what is more important to me is how the community accepts me, instead of the official status. (Research Partner No. 10).

The next interviewee had not revealed his or her Sáminess yet. The metaphor he or she used illustrates the prejudiced attitude of the Sámi community toward the non-status Sámi:

I haven't come out from the closet yet. But I know that it's so windy that I prefer keeping the door shut. (Research Partner No. 4).

The multifaceted approach of this study to Sáminess is in many ways connected with being on the boundaries and exclusion, but in this case, also with belonging to the indigenous people. Therefore, the phenomenon appears versatile and complex. In this study, people who were excluded from the official definition had to re-define their identities in relation to people covered by the definition. Being located on the borderline zone can stir powerful emotions, such as disappointment and upset (Gürler, 2000).

V. DISCUSSION

The Sámi form a linguistic minority and indigenous people due to which already Sáminess itself represents marginal. Even the marginal has its marginals and the outmost boundaries. The concept of marginal is multifaceted because a person can belong to a marginal in one area of life but not in another one (Jokinen et al., 2004). This flexible state illustrates the way the research partners of this study were located in the Sámi community. From the juridical point of view, they belong to the marginal of Sáminess. But from the

cultural perspective, they are in the center of the Sámi culture as they are Sámi-speaking people.

According to Tanja Joona (2012), the definition of an indigenous people as a group is not challenging as such, but at the individual level, it is more difficult to define who is indigenous and who is not. The core of the problem is the indigenous peoples' objectives to have their historical rights to land and waters returned. These special rights give reason to ask how to define subjects who are entitled to indigenous peoples' rights.

The non-status Sámi form a heterogeneous group: there are as many experiences, identities, and narratives as there are narrators. According to Erik Allardt and Christian Starck (1981), at the general level, populations consist of a core group who fulfill several criteria for the membership, and groups who are located in the middle of the majority and minority who does not fulfill all the criteria. This group can be such a group where the identification between the core group and the majority can form a continuum. This study discussed the questions of an indigenous identity and accepting someone as a member of an indigenous people. These two viewpoints do not always go in the same direction because of the diversity of identities and the power issues in the history. Furthermore, the Sámi culture is not static but multicultural and changing—it has been like that throughout the ages. The myth of Sáminess as stable and consisting of certain cultural features was created during decades. However, this myth has influenced dramatically on the non-status Sámi.

The definition of ethnicity affects feelings and therefore, it is significant to a human being's experience of existence. At its worst, those who have become excluded from the indigenous group have to live on edge. For example, in the 1980s, a suicidal wave among the Sámi youth happened in the village of Kaarasjoki. Among others Eikeland (2003) studied the chain of events and found several complex and overlapping reasons for these suicides, including the alienation from the Sámi culture and language.

The concept of an indigenous identity is a useful concept that provides an important viewpoint to a person's identification with a community. According to studies indigenous status confers recognition of identity (Eberts, 2010). Based on this study, indigeneity is connected to essentialism according to which the bloodline defines a person's identity. The demand on full-blood can lead to experiences of being in the borderline or between identity categories.

VI. CONCLUSION

The identity questions among indigenous peoples as presented in this study are quite common (see e.g., Cornthassel, 2003; Ellinghouse, 2006; Field, 1994; Fleras, 1999; Gardiner & Bourke, 2000; Kukutai, 2010; Jung, 2003). In Nicaragua, the Rama Indians are

very strict who is a real Rama Indian, who is half-breed, and so on. Despite language revitalization, they represent so-called puritanical view on ethnicity (Satta, 2005). Likewise, according to Joyce Green (2011), "the very multiple nature of Métisness will impel more inclusive, less absolute frameworks for identity. The definition process may take time, as communities grapple with the consequences of the long history of state and settler societies telling us who we are not. After all, we know in our psyches, in our families, that we do not – cannot – choose 'either/or' identities and be true to all that shapes us." Renisa Mawani (2009) argues that people with "mixed" heritages were stigmatized as biologically and culturally degenerate and deviant; the state sought to regulate authenticity and purity.

Perhaps, the future of indigenous peoples "does not lie in state handouts" as Li (2000, p. 24) points out after studied Indonesian indigenous peoples. And the group introduced here, the non-status Sámi, has taken one step further by revitalizing their Sámi language and actively learning about the Sámi culture with the purpose to live the culture and simultaneously keep it alive. However, the official definition does not consider them Sámi. Indeed, Schechter and Bailey (1997) conclude that linguistic minority populations, especially those whose language transmission is an issue which is the case among the Sámi, have to grapple with identity issues other groups might not have: "In their daily negotiations between dominant and minority cultures they confront questions of the discreteness and synthesis of linguistic code at many junctures and levels of self- and other-defining decision making" (p. 514).

This study discussed the problem of the debate over established definitional standards versus indigenous self-identification (see also Cornthassel, 2003) from the non-status Sámi's point of view. The purpose was to question the dichotomy and to analyze whether the concept of non-status Sámi should be widened to cover also self-identification. Cultural identity is bound to a person's experiential world and identity. Accepting that as a part of an indigenous people's identity can be considered a step toward healthier community.

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- (f) Results should be presented concisely, by well-designed tables and/or figures; the same data may not be used in both; suitable statistical data should be given. All data must be obtained with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage. As reproduced design has been recognized to be important to experiments for a considerable time, the Editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned un-refereed;
- (g) Discussion should cover the implications and consequences, not just recapitulating the results; conclusions should be summarizing.
- (h) Brief Acknowledgements.
- (i) References in the proper form.

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Format

Language: The language of publication is UK English. Authors, for whom English is a second language, must have their manuscript efficiently edited by an English-speaking person before submission to make sure that, the English is of high excellence. It is preferable, that manuscripts should be professionally edited.

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A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

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- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

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References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

References to information on the World Wide Web can be given, but only if the information is available without charge to readers on an official site. Wikipedia and Similar websites are not allowed where anyone can change the information. Authors will be asked to make available electronic copies of the cited information for inclusion on the Global Journals Inc. (US) homepage at the judgment of the Editorial Board.

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21. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments to your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

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27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

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29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

30. Think and then print: When you will go to print your paper, notice that tables are not be split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

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- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
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Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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