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Socio-Material Conflicts and Suggested Agencies for Resolution. An Anthropological Perspective of Rural Pakistan

By Aftab Ahmed, Dr. Abid Ghafoor Chaudhry & Haris Farooq

PMAS-Arid Agriculture University Rawalpindi, Pakistan

Abstract- The current research was conducted to study different dimensions of social and material conflicts; it's different features, faces and also recommendations to enhance and strengthen the harmony and social management in the Village Khewaywali, (Tehsil Wazirabad) of District Gujranwala. The sample of 268 was drawn at the estimated population (876 households). A mix of anthropological tools were used to both study qualitatively and quantitatively the issues of conflicts at typical Punjabi rural community. One adult male member form every sampled household was interviewed after taking verbal communal consent. The research encompassed the reason(s) of conflict within a caste and between different castes in the village. The research proved to discover findings on both material and social conflicts in different castes of the village bisected by profession; the research also explored various socio-cultural reasons creating different material and social conflicts and recommendations to overcome disputes in an effective and efficient manner.

Keywords: conflicts, social and material conflicts, religious conflicts, kinship, caste.

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SOCIOMATERIALCONFLICTSANDSUGGESTEDAGENCIESFORRESOLUTION.ANANTHROPOLOGICALPERSPECTIVEOFRURALPAKISTAN

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Socio-Material Conflicts and Suggested Agencies for Resolution. An Anthropological Perspective of Rural Pakistan

Aftab Ahmed [α], Dr. Abid Ghafoor Chaudhry [σ] & Haris Farooq [ρ]

Abstract- The current research was conducted to study different dimensions of social and material conflicts; it's different features, faces and also recommendations to enhance and strengthen the harmony and social management in the Village Khewaywali, (Tehsil Wazirabad) of District Gujranwala. The sample of 268 was drawn at the estimated population (876 households). A mix of anthropological tools were used to both study qualitatively and quantitatively the issues of conflicts at typical Punjabi rural community. One adult male member form every sampled household was interviewed after taking verbal communal consent. The research encompassed the reason(s) of conflict within a caste and between different castes in the village. The research proved to discover findings on both material and social conflicts in different castes of the village bisected by profession; the research also explored various socio-cultural reasons creating different material and social conflicts and recommendations to overcome disputes in an effective and efficient manner.

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I. Introduction

In Pakistani society, different ethnic and religious groups are most of the time engaged in conflict with every other on trivial issues. There are numerous parallel and upright segmentations in Pakistan that divided people on the ground of faith, ethnicity, creed, class and tongue beside with ceaseless lacuna among haves and have not. These segmentations are not only undermining Pakistan's economy moreover causing socio-political volatility (Ahmad 2007).

When people think of the word conflict, they tend to think of war or violence. A conflict may exist in a variety of situations in the various strata of society. It is easy to forget that we have encountered conflicts of our lives every day. It happened when two or more individuals or groups, think that they have incompatible goals (James 2004).

Existing data show the variety of opposition and conflict over land are escalating because of a union of factors: many rural families require drawing extra from their land even in the countenance of declining inputs. Well-established and pensioned off civil servants and other personnel look to family and land as a major source of food and/or cash cropping; governments and environmentalists try to find the separate conservation areas; and internal and external groups strengthen their exploitation of precious property, before presenting the cases that expose these conflicts (Pauline 2004).

Most recurrent outcome of conflict is distress parties. This can be obvious in a variety such as anger; thoughts of unfriendliness, social-emotional severance, anxiety, worry, and tension, but at small levels of intensity disputants might be discover conflict stimulating or thrilling ((Bergman 1989; Chesler 1978; Derr 1978; Ephross 1993; Filley 1978; Retzinger 1991; Robbins 1978; Thomas 1976).

a) Social Conflict

Societies are full of internal and external forces, and the conflict is basically the power of the thinking of a person's. Thoughts reservoir of these effects integral biological campaign to physical and mental pleasure self-selected self-rational part; the superego a person's conscience, reflects the social and moral spectator crucial (Calhoun 1997).

To avert or shorten expected conflicts, all of these conceptualizations are a main idea. If unrestrained market is permitted to drop people out of work, pay adequate wage inequality, and left neglected workplace trauma or sickness, social conflicts may increase. If community citizen have not given social protections as a least bundled rights, if any society does not develop it more prosperous for family balancing professional obligation and child care, social cohesion will be affected (Ashutosh 2007).

Societal conflicts as a natural common experience seen in all relationships and cultures. The conflict is the socially constructed cultural events. People to build the case; they have experienced an active participant of the conflict and interaction (Schutz 1967). Person's culture is always partly transmitted, it is also constructed and opted as well, and people also have different identities. Most of the cultural identities in Africa that today appear to be so powerful were "devised" by the compound forces for administrative functions and have weak roots in pre-colonial Africa (Jeremy 2002).

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b) Material Conflict

Exploitation of natural resources was a major reason behind material conflicts as earlier studies shows that at least 18 violent conflicts since 1990 were based on natural resources. Recent studies have shown that at least 40% of all domestic conflict in the past 60 years, there was a link between conflicts and natural resources. In Liberia, Angola and the Democratic Republic of the Congo civil war are concentrated in the "high-value" resources. Many conflicts, like in Darfur and the Middle East, were basically was the result to control of scarce resources such as agricultural land and water means. Day by day the worldwide population growing, and resources requirement increasing, there is rapid increase in conflicts over natural resources in the coming decades (UNEP 2009).

Land mafia thirstily take hold of land if their status grants for it or Inheritance conflicts and difference in opinion between neighbors are most often land conflicts are a common phenomenon, and can be seen mostly among national elites and multinational organizations. The only now and slowly is obtaining a material value and growing number of regulatory departments, authorities and mechanisms of authorities are yet not able to secure the land of several generations from the powerful. Scarceness and growing worth of land values can make things worse (Wehrmann 2008).

Land as a factor, even so, is vital to realizing conflict forces in Rwanda. Functions of the scarcity of land in Rwanda, population pressure and the uneven distribution of land are the major key basis of conflicts (Bigagaza 2001). If women's access to land, housing and property rights have been blocked in a period of relative peace, they almost enjoy these rights during armed conflict situations is nearly forbidden (Toepfer 1999).

In which way, two social groups raise on infertile land. From the point of view of expected predator it can be rational to deprive the meager harvest of his pitiful neighbor because not a lot would be remain after utilizing anyway, and the loss of investment, production, and future appropriation possible action induced by social conflict is minor. The loss of production through conflict stimulate by its damaging effect on investment may over compensate the appropriation gain (Daron 2001).

The structure of village is totally different from the urban set up because in the rural social system depends upon land, money authority and influence on local level. It was observed that most of the conflicts happened in an upper class caste and lower class caste. Social and material conflict most commonly observed in our daily lives. With reference to the Pakistani culture, conflicts are mostly belongs to the religious sects, land issues, family conflicts spreading on generation, daily minor social issues. In this study, research was more focused to collect the data on different kind of social & material conflicts happening and create disturbance in rural areas respectively.

II. Materials and Methods

Research was conducted in village Khewaywali, Tehsil Wazirabad of District Gujranwala. Total households in this village were 876. The sample was drawn by using 95% confidence interval, error margin 5% and response distribution 50%. The sample of 268 was drawn after calculation. From every sampled household one adult male member was interviewed. For data collection both structured and unstructured questionnaires were implemented during this research after necessary measures highlighted during pre-testing. Before data collection, communal consent was taken after community meeting under the supervision of community elders.

III. Results

Listed below are different tables presented in frequencies and descriptions.

Table # 1 : Distribution of respondents by caste

Caste	Frequency	Percent
Jatt	152	56.72
Arain	26	9.70
Rajpoot	14	5.22
Kammi	41	15.30
Other	35	13.06
Total	268	100.00

Table 1 shows the frequencies of the respondents with respect to their caste. Around 56.72% respondents belong to Jatt family, whereas 9.70% respondents belong to Arain family, 5.22% respondents were from the Rajpoot family, rest 15.30% belong to the lower occupational castes and 13.06% respondent belongs to the other castes which are not considered as major castes.

Table # 2 : Conflict ratio regarding Caste

Response	Frequency	Percent
Intra caste	137	51.12
Inter caste	33	12.31
In both cases	98	36.57
Total	268	100

Table 2 shows the ratio of conflict which usually happens between the castes, also inter and intra castes. Results showed that around 51.12% of the conflicts normally seen within the same caste where peoples

belonging to the same caste usually have the same type of personality attributes and also involvement in different conflicts. Whereas nearly 12.31% responded regarding out of caste conflicts and rest in both cases around 36.57% conflicts are being responded and recorded.

Table # 3 : Distribution of respondents by occupation

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture	91	33.96
Govt. Employee	72	26.86
Private Job	65	24.25
Business	24	8.96
Wage labor	16	5.97
Total	268	100.00

Table 3 shows that 33.96% people are engaged in the field of agriculture, on the other hand a large chunk which is around 26.86% are doing Government job(s), around 24.25% are doing private job(s) and nearly 8.96% has their own business. The percentage of daily workers was 5.97% who earn 250 to 300 rupee per day.

Table # 4 : Occurrence of Social & Material conflicts (n=268)

Category	Never (%)	Seldom (%)	Often (%)
Land /Property	4.17	31.94	63.89
Marriage	16.67	58.33	25.00
Religious	47.22	38.89	13.89
Kinship/Relation	5.55	66.67	27.78
Loan	20.83	65.27	13.89
Theft	37.50	55.56	6.94
Adultery	6.95	80.55	12.50

The table 4 above shows different types of social and material. It was discovered that around 47% of the respondents reported that religious conflicts never happened and around 14% believes that it usually happens due to sectarian reasons. On the other hand the respondents shared that around 67% and 28% conflicts happens due to kinship issues which seldom and usually happen respectively. It was discovered that marriage related conflicts usually happens around 25% among the responses. On the other hand it was discovered that the material conflicts usually happened due to the issues of land/property, loan and theft whereas land conflict often happen and has the lion's share of around 64%. It was also discovered that the land conflicts among kinship(s), castes and villagers are routine matter mostly practiced in their daily lifestyle and carries till many generations. Land and theft conflicts are also among the major material conflict(s). Another feature of conflict in both rural and urban settings occurs due to the adultery.

Table # 5 : Intensity of Social & Material conflicts (n=268)

Category	Low Intensity (%)	Medium Intensity (%)	High Intensity (%)
Land /Property	20.83	55.56	23.61
Marriage	52.78	43.05	4.17
Religious	80.56	15.28	4.17
Kinship/Relation	55.56	41.67	2.77
Loan	66.67	29.17	4.17
Theft	56.94	37.50	5.56
Adultery	16.67	31.94	51.39

Table 5 shows the frequencies of social and material conflict(s) where Land/property conflicts has been reported around high intensity of around 23.61%, whereas the marriage conflicts with low intensity 52.78%, medium intensity 43.05% and high intensity 4.17% has been discovered respectively. Table also shows the conflicts intensity due to religious, kinship/relation, loan, theft and adultery issues.

Pie-Chart : Recommended Measures for conflict resolution
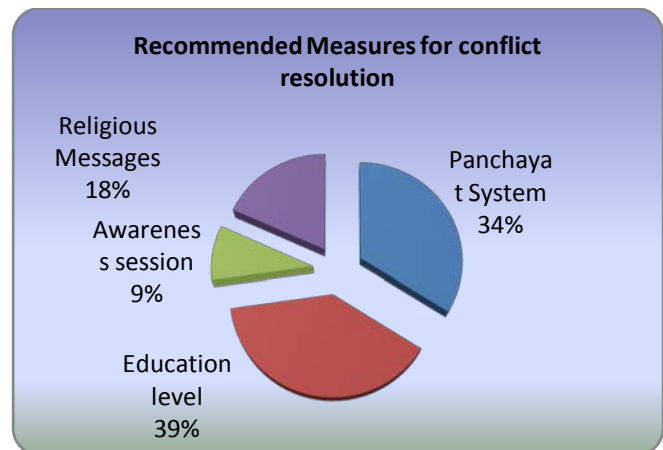
While discussing the measures to be taken, a number of recommendations has been discovered which includes religious messages to enhance and strengthen harmony among castes and villagers, it was also shared by around 18% of the respondents that it is an effective tool to bind kinship and villagers. On the other hand around 39% of the respondents believe that the education can promote the intellectual capacity to overcome disputes and conflicts at large. Rest around 34% of the respondents shared that the local judicial system which is commonly known as Panchayat can play a major role to govern the village through folk wisdom and shared intellect; such system can provide justice and can further smoothen and anticipate conflicts and disputes.

IV. Discussion

Caste system is quite common identity source in most of the cities and in almost all villages of Pakistan. It is worth mentioning that the data represents a large number of conflict(s) happened in the same caste and there is less number of conflict that have happened out of caste. The same caste conflicts happened due to close relatives living within the village and by developing domestic grudges due to the distribution and succession of property and land.

The conflict perspective derives from the ideas of Karl Marx, who believed society is a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change driven by class conflict which can be seen as different groups and castes in this study. The conflict perspective views social life as competition. According to the conflict perspective, society is made up of individuals competing for limited resources (e.g., money, leisure, sexual partners, etc.). Competition over scarce resources is at the heart of all social relationships. Competition, rather than consensus, is characteristic of human relationships. Broader social structures and organizations (e.g., religions, government, etc.) reflect the competition for resources and the inherent inequality competition entails; some people and organizations have more resources (i.e., power and influence), and use those resources to maintain their positions of power in society.

C. Wright Mills is known as the founder of modern conflict theory. In his work, he believes social structures are created because of conflict between differing interests. People are then impacted by the creation of social structures, and the usual result is a differential of power between the "elite" and the "others".

The social class difference can be seen in this study in the dimension of different castes competing to materialize resources and creating a dominant space for themselves, on the other hand it was also discovered that different castes fight less with each other and one group which can be named as one caste fights within its relatives to gain control over different resources which may include both property and land.

According to the conflict perspective, society is constantly in conflict over resources, and that conflict drives social change. It was also shared that these conflicts are mostly managed within family where the issue increases and creates a mammoth disturbance in the family. Sometimes, conflicts happen because of exchange marriages if one side woman is disturbed the other side women is disturbed automatically. Newly married couples are also involved in conflicts because they cannot understand each other's psyche which is usually groomed and nurtured by different traits of a specific caste. These circumstances may lead to divorce and other serious disputes including murders, honor killings and social unrest.

Soul mates support each other to deal with individual troubles and how marital anxiety originates. Young married partners involved in to interaction goals: a problem-solving activity in which partners shared a marital conflict and a social support task in which young married soul mates discussed personal, no marital difficulties (Pasch 1998).

History depicted the trait and degree of instabilities and conflicts (Socio-economic political conflicts) which shows the development of a society; traditional way of life grants us to experience the active syntheses that was formulated and instituted by social ethics to settle these conflicts at earlier stage of its development, in the hunt for endurance and advancement (Brien 1993).

Expected outcomes based on the thinking about equality, perceptions of inequality and the use of reliable opinion on the establishment, route, and management of social conflicts. Factors identified for equality are listed as; (1) thoughts of equality and perceived thinking on injustice can extract or induce social conflicts; (2) opinions on equality and rhetoric's can be opted to hold one's own status in a quarrel; (3) the primary importance and the fundamentals and regulations of equality can confine social conflicts and assist to produce methods of conflict management; (4) the tagging of conflict management can enhance the recognition of the resolution (Mikula 2000).

Keeping in view the findings of the study, certain recommendations have been shared by the respondents including creating awareness through religious messages, strengthening the local panchayat system and most importantly equipping the people with education which may create job opportunities and also wider intellectual approach to overcome disputes. The villagers believe that the tug of war for resources is somehow innate and is further bisecting the society caste wise and even worst within a caste.

V. Conclusion

The study showed that the social and material conflicts do exist in its different forms and has certain faces which create both domestic and social unrest. It was also found that most of the conflicts have ripple effects and it creates disputes for many generations which may also lead to social tension, unrest and even killings. However no such case was reported during the study but conflicts within the caste has been reported immensely as compare to conflicts between different castes which is due to the material tug of war. It was discovered that most of the conflicts are generated due to land and property issues; on the other hand marriage within families and also cross castes creates disputes and tensions. The other important issue discovered was the issue of extra marital relations caught among different males and females which develops serious
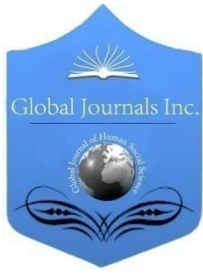
conflicts as such cases have no basic proofs hence lead to serious social conflict. The society shared that religious messages, availability of quality education and strengthening of panchayat system can curb the existing social and material conflicts both at local and national level.

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Towards a More Enduring Prevention of Scholarly Plagiarism among University Students in Nigeria

By Faloore O. Olutola

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Abstract- The rate at which university students involve in various acts of plagiarism has been a matter of central concern to academics and university management at least over the last decades. The scholarly contributions that the issue has generated particularly are becoming interminable. It is beyond the intention of this paper however to conclude this vast discussion but rather suggest that effective solution to plagiarism among students in the university should not only be hinged on detection-cum-punitive measure alone at the expense of university based prevention programme that helps students develop strong writing skills. This review identified a range of scholarly works that presented evidence on reality of plagiarism and its associated problems in ivory towers particularly in Nigeria. The work primarily focused on addressing plagiarism among university students in Nigeria but, as it has been noted throughout the write-up, achieving effective prevention of plagiarism among students should not be limited to adopting plagiarism software detection alone.

Keywords: plagiarism, plagiarism detection software, university students, faculty members, nigeria.

TOWARDSAMOREENDURINGPREVENTIONOFSCHOLARLYPLAGIARISM AMONGUNIVERSITY STUDENTSINNIGERIA

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I. Introduction

For thousands of years, scholars, philosophers, educators, social surveyors, academics and many others have advanced varied reasons for the establishment of Universities throughout the world. Catalogue of reasons ranging from formation of habit of life that lasts through life, teaching of universal knowledge, creation of prepared mind, to equal opportunity vocationalism, i.e. equipping students with basic knowledge required for employment have been enunciated. However, a more central purpose of a university has been given as creation, preservation and dissemination of knowledge. No doubt, universities all over the world are viewed as institutions that play central role in knowledge economy. In the words of Kenny (1998) "Universities are communities of learners" bound together by the "shared goals of investigation and discovery" and that a central part of mission of a University is to ensure that all staff and all students participate in the mission.

Unfortunately, in a bid to participate in the mission, i.e. research which is regarded as the most important aspect of scholarship in some quarters, findings from social research have shown that some academic staff and many students in Universities around the globe are far from conducting research according to rules; students and academics are enmeshed in quagmire of various academic dishonesty. As a matter of fact in many higher institutions of learning, overall climate of honesty and ethical behaviour which should characterize a strong learning and teaching community are deemphasized. Instead of academic integrity holding sway, plagiarism, a common form of academic dishonesty has become the order of the day among academics and students.

II. Reviewing Plagiarism

Academic cheating is a timeless ethical offence; it has been in existence since the beginning of institutions of learning (Baird, 1980). Literature is awash with different personalities who had one time or another being guilty of academic cheating. Hannis (2004) traced the beginning of stealing of other people's words to the time of Shakespeare while Radin (1991) brought to fore the case of Dr. Martin Luther King who plagiarized in his undergraduate dissertation without proper citation. Plagiarism, no doubt, is a resiliently growing global academic problem (Bannister, & Thorne, 1997; Anderson, 2001; Fain & Bates, 2002). The phenomenon of students' plagiarism is neither a novel nor recently evolving practice.

Plagiarism is a disease that has for long bestridden academic world like a colossus, but has become worse in recent times with the rapid development of computing and Internet technologies that has made electronic works and texts more accessible to people within a short period of time (Howard, 2000; Weinstein & Dobkin, 2002).

It is documented as a problem in every human academic and educational setting from primary to University levels that requires cross-cutting tasks to address it burgeoning spread. It is a repetition of truism that this variant of academic dishonesty is on the rise; a correspondingly large literature testifies to the recent growth of plagiarism in academia especially **in western** Universities (Pulvers & Diekhoff, 1999; Abdolmohammadi & Baker, 2007).

From all intents and purposes, plagiarism is an ill-wind that does nobody any good. This vexed issue

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has reached a worrisome dimension to the extent that a segment of scholars recently claimed that the problem seemed to have defied every known solution in some Universities (Sutherland-Smith; 2010). It is a despicable act that is seen widely as a threat to intellectual property, obstacle to the spread of proper, morally acceptable, qualitative student learning, and a problem whose consequences are unimaginable. Plagiarism has attracted condemnation of phenomenal sum largely because of its inherent limitations on students' learning and opportunity to develop higher level cognitive learning skills (Park, 2003; Granitz & Loewy, 2007; Abdolmohammadi & Baker, 2007).

On a cautionary note at this juncture, defining plagiarism is an exercise that is fraught with complexities. One should not be unawares of various definitions of plagiarism that have been given by scholar mainly because the act is value-laden. Achieving or presenting a widely accepted or consensus definition or clarification of plagiarism, or what it entails has courted controversies and setbacks in many Universities. Little wonder, different Universities define plagiarism and its consequences in their regulations so as to forestall misconception and controversy between members of academic staff and students.

As established above, plagiarism is a nebulous concept; but traditionally, it can thus be defined as violation of someone else's intellectual property rights. It is the act of adopting and using ideas, thoughts, writing/texts, figures, data, analyses, argumentations, pictures, techniques, computer programmes and inventions of others as one's without acknowledging or making proper acknowledgment of the source/s of the work. Gibaldi (2003, 66) described plagiarism as a violation of someone else's intellectual property rights, a form of academic theft and a moral and ethical offence. In recent times, plagiarism has reared its ugly head in various dimensions. Activities of plagiarists vary from cut and paste of article/s or texts from the internet without acknowledging the owner, paraphrasing without proper referencing, citation of a text to a false authorship and buying a paper from a research service etc (Evans, Craig & Mietzel, 1991 cited in Anderman, Griesinger & Westerfield, 1998 p. 85).

There is no consensus as regard reasons for involvement of students in the act of plagiarism, but as the following review from University of Alberta's guide to plagiarism will reveal, there is some evidence in literature that act of plagiarism will occur when factors predisposing students to plagiarism are not addressed or met. The available empirical evidence suggests that students are likely to plagiarize when they are in the dark about what plagiarism is all about. They may have heard about the concept but are confused about the meaning of the concept and what makes people to commit the offence. Another common problem is lack of research skills by students. Social research findings have shown

that plagiarism could be avoided if undergraduates and postgraduates are knowledgeable about how to search catalogue, search databases for journal articles and how to cite the ideas and text that are found useful from so many authors.

Closely related to this is the problem of inability of students to critically evaluate internet sources. This is important because of the fact that not all the text or materials on the internet show or display conspicuous information needed for correct and proper citation and this could have negative impact on the writing of such a student. In this case, students will have to do extra work in order to get the source/s of the work or do away with the work completely. Plagiarism could be avoided if all people who write articles and research papers know when and how to cite the ideas and text that they had taken from other authors.

Confusion between plagiarism and paraphrasing among students is another influencing factor of plagiarism. Quite a significant number of students are unaware of the rules guiding paraphrasing. In fact, this is common when students are confronted with paraphrasing paragraphs from unfamiliar subjects or technical jargons. Students fall prey of unintentional plagiarism due to their inability to decipher the thin-line between paraphrasing and plagiarism. Of utmost importance also is the place of poor writing skills of students among the various factors and reasons students plagiarize. It is Imperative that faculty members in related courses in a department should help students develop strong writing skills.

A major review of literature and other comprehensive efforts to summarize current knowledge about common types of plagiarism have led to the following evidence-based conclusions according to the submission of Plagiarism.org. Highlighted below are the 10 most common types of plagiarism as ranked in order of severity of intent.

- Clone - Submitting another's work, word-for-word, as one's own
- CTRL-C - Contains significant portions of text from a single source without alterations
- Find – Replace - Changing key words and phrases but retaining the essential content of the source
- Remix - Paraphrases from multiple sources, made to fit together
- Recycle - Borrows generously from the writer's previous work without citation
- Hybrid - Combines perfectly cited sources with copied passages without citation
- Mash-up - Mixes copied material from multiple sources
- 404 Error - Mixes copied material from multiple sources
- Aggregator - Includes proper citation to sources but the paper contains almost no original work

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- Re-tweet - Includes proper citation, but relies too closely on the text's original wording and/or structure

As argued above, absence of a clear-cut single all encompassing definition of plagiarism or seemingly lack of agreement on what constitutes it among scholars has produced two different views of the concept. According to Sowden (2005), plagiarism can best be understood from two paradigms i.e. intentional or unintentional/accidental (Devlin & Gray, 2007). Observations from bookmakers have shown that not all cases of what is regarded as plagiarism are as a result of unethical and intentional behaviour of students. On the other hand, there exists group of students who wittingly present other people's ideas as their own without acknowledging the author of the intellectual property. In fact, the understanding of plagiarism along these divides has to a greater extent determined how plagiarism is defined and what categories of acts are viewed as plagiarism in different Universities. In the same vein, the categorisation has equally helped in no small measure formulation of policy and practice to reduce the act plagiarism.

In the literature, several causation factors of students in plagiarism have been given. Studies such as Bonjean & McGee, 1965; Scanlon & Neumann, 2002; and Bennett, 2005 and many others attributed this problem to demographic, individual and situational factors. These studies explain variance in the involvement of students in plagiarism based on age and sex of perpetrators. According to Lyer and Eastman in 2006, male and younger students have higher propensity to be involved in plagiarism than female and older students. In the same vein, other studies also maintained that students on lower CGPA score are more likely to engage in plagiarism than students with higher CGPAs due to their desire for higher grades (Rettinger & Jordan, 2005).

Also, in the face of investigating factors prompting students' involvement in the act of plagiarism, other studies indicated factors such as linguistic/cultural background of students and unprecedented availability of large amount of materials and texts on the internet which has made the internet a ready-made pool from which students can copy and paste without hindrances (Weinstein & Dobkin, 2002). In the views of Park (2003) and Cohen (2004), inability to express one's ideas appropriately due to lack of language proficiency is an overriding factor behind plagiarism for some university students. In the views of Cameron (2007), producing flawless and appropriate write-ups in second language requires a lot of time and energy for many people; as a result, many students struggle to express themselves at the level of sophistication of which they are capable in their native language. In order to save time and also enhance the quality of their works some students engage in plagiarism. Also, several other studies underscore factors such as unhealthy competition among students in terms of achievement in class and lackadaisical attitudes of academic to plagiarism (Canning, 1956 and Baird, 1980).

III. The Nigerian Case

Plagiarism among universities' students is not unique to Nigeria. The country, like many others in Africa has her share of the problem. Regrettably, the emerging general consensus has it that plagiarism among university students in Nigerian has virtually become a norm mainly because only few academics view it as a moral and ethical problem. Happenings and events in recent times have shown that the issue of plagiarism among Undergraduates and Postgraduates has transcended the realm where it was viewed as strictly uncommon occurrence to a worrisome academic problem. Considering the level and the rate of occurrence of plagiarism in Nigerian universities, the act seems to have reached a crescendo in the last one decade.

There is an apparent paradox in the issue of plagiarism among university students in Nigeria. The act has become a seemingly ubiquitous part of students' national culture; but, obviously and unfortunately in the 21st century, there still exists dearth of reliable empirical studies in the area of plagiarism among University students. However, a growing body of evidence about activities of students in some Nigerian Universities shows that a significant number of undergraduates and postgraduates plagiarize in their assignments and theses. Adebayo (2011) and Babalola (2012) in their studies report that reasonable number of Nigerian students participate in various forms of plagiarism such as soliciting term papers from paper mills, duplicating colleague's assignment with and without the knowledge of the owner of the work to outright copying from journals and textbooks without proper referencing etc.

There is a total consonance of views on involvement of Nigerian students in universities abroad. Orim et. al. (2012) in their findings from a study conducted in a UK University revealed that Nigerian postgraduate students abroad are not exempted from plagiarism. This study revealed that plagiarism among Nigerian postgraduates overseas is a serious problem. It further showed that most of the respondents in the study had little or no knowledge of plagiarism prior their trip to UK. Other reasons offered for participation of Nigerian students in this widely recognized unethical lapse are inadequate knowledge of students about appropriate citing and referencing of scholarly works, and the fact that reasonable number of academics directly or indirectly tolerates plagiarism due to their decrease surveillance.

IV. Addressing Plagiarism in Nigeria's Ivory Towers

Students Plagiarism no doubt is a very serious form of ethical misconduct in Nigerian universities. For this reason, various official steps have been taken in recent times to address it in all scholarly disciplines. A sufficient case is that of Committee of Vice Chancellors (CVC) of Nigerian universities that recently partnered with a UK Information Technology firm, for the deployment of plagiarism detection software (Turnitin) in all federal Universities to counteract plagiarism among students (Enekano, 2013).

Meanwhile, approval and adoption of plagiarism detecting software such as Turnitin, copycatch, Eve2, Plagium, Seesources, PlagiarismDetect, or, Plagiarism Checker, and EssayRater etc in Nigerian Universities are commendable steps. Of all the several detection software in existence, Turnitin has received the blessings of CVC in Nigeria. For the benefit of lay people, Turnitin is a software detection service that can assist faculty in the identification of incidences of plagiarism. The software has a database that accommodates more than 10 million students' papers worldwide. Turnitin like many other plagiarism detection systems works by selecting string (number of words or characters) of a particular length from a source document and compare relationship between the strings with that of a target documents (Gillam, Marinuzzi, and Ioannou, 2011).

Adopting plagiarism detection software in Nigerian universities incontrovertibly relays an important message; i.e. dealing with problems confronting intellectual property by catching plagiarists via the use of Turninin. As a matter of fact, the idea sounds not only reasonable but plausible, but it might not sufficiently tackle the issue of plagiarism and its associated problem in Nigerian universities. This is so because of evidences from some Universities around the globe where Turnitin has been put to test have shown that the software has its many dark sides and minuses, which have consequently made the software, to a considerable extent, inadequate for the use to which CVC have put it. In the words of Joyce (2003), application of the software (Turnitin) has several problems. The software can only discover certain published and unpublished works on the internet while the so-called works under invisible web (papers available on the internet via subscribed databases) and loose paraphrasing are beyond what it can search.

Another potential factor that may mar effectiveness of Turnitin or any other detection software is lack of knowledge about how to use and incorporate the technology especially in Nigeria where sufficient number of academics loath and always show their disdain for tasks that require the use of computers. This explains why the software has not been greeted with unequivocal enthusiasm from all quarters.

Another limiting factor is the fact that cases of plagiarism centre on duplicated text will make it impossible for any plagiarism detection software to detect citation of any phantom paper. Phantom publications are the articles that are not in existence and not real but are cited by students. No software can detect act of plagiarism of student with phantom article since the article to compare his work with is not in existence.

Also, the free internet-based software that is known as "article rewriter" could inadvertently serve as another barrier militating against the effectiveness of Turnitin or any other software in that category. Article rewriter on the internet practically rewrites text that is pasted on it in many possible forms within a short period of time. All what plagiarists need do is to copy their work on article rewriter and click the button with 'next' to get the work done.

At this juncture and for clarification sake, it is important to indicate that this positional paper is not against the adoption and use of any plagiarism detection software in Nigerian universities and it is not one of the intentions of the work to castigate or undermine the effectiveness of any plagiarism detection software. Frankly, the researcher does not only believe that plagiarism is bad, unethical but should be discouraged in its entirety in academia. However, the thrust of this work is that deterring plagiarism among university students can be better achieved if holistic approach to the problem of plagiarism is adopted. That is, tackling the problem of plagiarism should not be limited to the use of software detection alone. In essence, academics should adopt proactive not retroactive measures. As established above, the software no doubt will expose plagiarists which ultimately will call for punitive measure/s for the so-called lawbreakers. But be as it may, punitive measure alone may not produce the desire result which is helping university students to imbibe the culture of writing ethically. Most students that are found guilty of plagiarism may likely be punished but not rehabilitated.

Based on the foregoing, understanding the level or depth of plagiarism in many Universities in Nigeria calls for beaming searchlight on how students are tutored and how instructions in intellectual property and academic attribution are given. Rising cases of plagiarism among university students in Nigeria is a reflection of carefree attitudes of some academic staff in teaching or familiarizing students with basics of writing. There can be no greater indictment of Nigerian Universities than that a significant number of undergraduates and postgraduates in the country are yet to come to terms with the rules and regulations of scholarly academic writing.

Failure to invest time in teaching students about how to avoid plagiarism by academics is a significant factor driving much of the cases of plagiarism in many higher institutions in Nigeria. Though, the relationship between lecturer not teaching the rudiments of scholarly writing and rate of involvement of students in the act of plagiarism is less commented on in the literature, yet the findings of Orim et al. (2012) showed that the level of educating or teaching rudiments of writing scholarly paper in Nigerian Universities is low or totally not existing in some places, and alarmingly few academic staff are interested in ensuring students understand this.

V. Conclusion

Within the academic parlance in Nigeria, plagiarism is widely recognized as one of the unethical lapses in scholarly writing that requires a cross-cutting-task to counteract its spread. To achieve this, stakeholders should face the reality that there is no 'catch-all' or 'one size fits all' solution to plagiarism anywhere in the world. In relation to this, successful plagiarism prevention strategies must address factors that are contributing to the rising number of plagiarists in Nigerian universities. Also, as part of the measures to achieve this, the position of this paper is that adoption of any plagiarism detection software must be combined with realistic training and teaching of students about rules and regulations guiding intellectual property in order to achieve the desired result/s.

In academic circle in Nigeria, there is a growing call from stakeholders for a more pragmatic approach to achieving enduring solution to this morally reprehensible conundrum in academia. At the core of this call is the fact that the university administrators, academics and students have to jointly play a key role in achieving lasting solution to the problem. Successful anti-plagiarism programme should not only rely on the use of plagiarism detection software. Successful anti-plagiarism must be correctional and this requires mutual efforts at bringing together administrators in Universities, academic staff and even students, where these actors (University authority and academic members) will work together to set guidelines, rules and regulations, and provide easy to learn teaching rules of intellectual property. This is necessary so as to help plagiarists recover from their abhorrent act in Nigerian universities and to support acquisition of right attitude and skills needed for scholarly academic writing. It is crucial that various institutions provide students with opportunities and tools (basic training) that are efficient and adequate as far as imbibing regulations guiding intellectual property.

For academics, this group should ensure that students are aware of the ethical problems of plagiarism. Also, academic staff members in universities should as matter of necessity instill in students necessary and required values as far as

abstaining from plagiarism is concerned; and also let them realize why it is important to use their own words when paraphrasing. Students should be educated about how to present one's own idea without necessarily stealing other people's work. Also, university students should be taught about how to avoid unintentional plagiarism. There should be teaching about the use of automated tools to avoid slipping into the quagmire of plagiarism during writing; and more often than not to detect plagiarism when it occurs. Education/training has the potential to be a major driver of fighting plagiarism in Nigerian Universities. At best, it opens the heart of students' to new possibilities.

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Gender and Crime: Addressing Threats to Construct Validity in the Criminological Research

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Abstract- In this article, we argue that criminology is in need of a meta-theory that allows for a more complete treatment of the gender-crime relationship. We suggest that one such meta-theory is Integral Theory. Integral Theory challenges disciplinary myopia and opens space for a more complete treatment of complex constructs such as gender. We note that criminology would benefit from an ontological and epistemological pluralismthat accommodates the wide range of existing gender theories and recognizes the value of multiple methods designed to test those theories. These arguments are supported via an analysis of recent research on the gender-crime relationship.

Keywords: *gender, criminology, construct validity, integral theory, meta-theory, gender and crime, methodological pluralism.*

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GENDERANDCRIMEADDRESSINGTHREATSTOCONSTRUCTVALIDITYINTHECRIMINOLOGICALRESEARCH

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Gender and Crime: Addressing Threats to Construct Validity in the Criminological Research

Jeffrey W. Cohen [α], David R. Champion [σ] & Randy Martin [ρ]

Abstract- In this article, we argue that criminology is in need of a meta-theory that allows for a more complete treatment of the gender-crime relationship. We suggest that one such meta-theory is Integral Theory. Integral Theory challenges disciplinary myopia and opens space for a more complete treatment of complex constructs such as gender. We note that criminology would benefit from an ontological and epistemological pluralismthat accommodates the wide range of existing gender theories and recognizes the value of multiple methods designed to test those theories. These arguments are supported via an analysis of recent research on the gender-crime relationship.

Keywords: gender, criminology, construct validity, integral theory, meta-theory, gender and crime, methodological pluralism.

Running Head: Gender, Crime, and Construct Validity

I. Introduction

Not long ago James Messerschmidt (2006) pointed to the general tendency for criminologists to reify gender, suggesting that the continued practice of making gender concrete was problematic for a number of reasons. Perhaps most importantly, relying on a conceptualization of gender as a biological dichotomy hides the very real and often overlooked fact that there are greater similarities across our biological categories of sex than there are differences. While many researchers have embraced Messerschmidt's argument, many continue to over-rely on crude proxy measures of sex (see Cohen, 2009). Moreover, regardless of the complexity of their conceptual arguments, researchers seem to be basing their studies on serious misinterpretations of exactly what it is that biological sex represents.

Instead of viewing sex as determined by a specific set of biological/physiological traits, we should be more open to the recognition that we sex individuals based on our assignment of certain traits as indicators of male-nessand female-ness. This does not mean that biological and physiological characteristics are not pertinent to the study of gender. In fact, we suggest

expanding Messerschmidt's argument to include a rigid adherence to any particular conceptualization of gender, biological or otherwise, as being problematic. The dramatic shift in thinking about gender that accompanied the distinction between sex as biologically determined and gender as socially constructed has served social scientists and feminist scholars well. However, the conceptual shift has not been accompanied by a strong corresponding shift in measurement. We believe that the scholarship on gender is now not only pushing us towards an even more refined conceptual understanding, but also will insist that we develop a congruently complex and nuanced set of approaches to measurement. In this article, we attempt to establish that Integral Theory can accommodate both of these.

Criminological researchers have studied gender from a variety of perspectives, employing varied methodological approaches. While certainly valuable, existing criminological research on gender tends to reflect a more deconstructionist approach to scientific inquiry, leading to relatively fragmented views and seemingly contradictory findings, which, in isolation, generally lack sufficient depth. Without the benefit of an overarching meta-theory (including a more diverse and encompassing array of methodologies)within which to situate past and current approaches to studying gender, important findings will continue to be presented in a fragmented way, leading to a partial view of the complexity of gender and its relationship to other criminological constructs. Further, this fragmented view of the complexity of gender constitutes a significant threat to the validity of our findings, primarily in the form of construct validity, and thereby a threat to our ability to effectively inform gender-aware criminal justice related policy and practice.

As a starting point for our analysis, this article presents a theory of gender that we believe is better suited to dealing with threats to construct validity than are the current dominant theoretical and methodological frameworks. This theory is grounded in existing approaches to studying gender within criminology, but also transcends them through the application of ontological pluralism. Finally, we illustrate how this meta-theory can be employed as a framework for research, by exploring the role of epistemological pluralism within criminology.

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II. An integral Theory of Gender

In their discussion of construct validity, Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002) suggest that when developing a theory of constructs (such as gender) it is important to include multiple operationalizations, link each of those operationalizations to particular dimensions of the construct under study, and take into consideration various perspectives on how well those measures actually capture those dimensions. In order to accomplish this, researchers must provide a "detailed description of the studied instances, clear explication of the prototypical elements of the target construct, and valid observation of relationships among the instances, the target construct, and any other pertinent constructs" (p. 68).

Based on these three elements, strengthening our current approaches to studying gender requires that we adopt a more inclusive meta-theory that clearly identifies the prototypical elements of gender as a construct and opens sufficient space for a diversity of methods.[1] Identifying prototypical features is an essential aspect of translating concepts into operations. However, it is important to recognize that what is prototypical depends on the "particular language community" doing the choosing (Shadish et al., 2002). Our current conceptual models/frameworks tend to represent rather limiting and narrow language communities.

Integral Theory, and more specifically Ken Wilber's Integral AQAL model, offers a meta-theoretical framework incorporating multiple language communities. In so doing AQAL is well suited to identifying a more complete range of prototypical features and also for accommodating the diverse array of corresponding methodologies. Drawing on Wilber's Integral model (Wilber, 2000a; 2000b; 2000c; 2001), we present a meta-theory that we believe achieves the three goals described above. While certainly not the only possible meta-theory, what follows is a transdisciplinary model that allows for the inclusion of multiple theoretical perspectives and a language that can be used to speak across theoretical and disciplinary boundaries.

III. The Prototypical Elements of Gender

According to Integral Theory, all human phenomena, including gender, have four distinct, yet interrelated dimensions: interior individual; interior collective; exterior individual; and, exterior collective (see Wilber, 2000a; 2000b; 2000c; 2001). Each of these dimensions relates to a distinct, yet interrelated aspect of human experience. The interior individual dimension corresponds to an individual's subjective experience. The interior collective dimension corresponds to inter-subjective experience or the shared meaning among a particular group of people (i.e., culture). The exterior individual dimension corresponds to objective experiences such as behavior, biology, and physiology. Finally, the exterior collective dimension corresponds to inter-objective experiences such as the functional fit of parts within a social system.

To fit this within the language used by Shadish et al. (2002), these four dimensions correspond to the four prototypical elements of gender. By organizing existing understandings of gender within these four dimensions, it becomes possible to identify what is already known and fit that knowledge within a meta-theory that allows for cross-disciplinary dialog. We turn now to a detailed explication of these four prototypical elements of gender, based in a more formal content analysis of past and current research published in academic journals within the disciplines of criminology, sociology, and psychology (see Cohen, 2008; 2009).

a) The Interior Individual Dimension of Gender

Research on the interior individual dimension of gender addresses how individuals perceive themselves and others as gendered-beings. Perceptions of the self as a gendered-being are sometimes referred to as part of an individual's gender-identity. Mealey (2000) defines gender-identity as "one's personal sense of one's own gender, which may or may not correspond to one's sex or to the perceptions of others" (p. 466). Much attention has been devoted to the ways in which an individual's gender-identity develops and impacts their behavior (see, for example, Bem, 1981, 1989; Bussey& Bandura, 1992; Chodorow, 1978; Erikson, 1968; Fagot & Leinbach, 1989, 1994; Gilligan, 1993; Horney, 1939; Kohlberg, 1975; Levy, 1999; Martin, Wood, & Little, 1990; Mischel, 1975; Powlishta, 2000, and; Urberg, 1979).

Conceptual definitions related to the interior-individual dimension of gender have been employed in the criminological literature. For example, in their study of women involved in violent crime, Kruttschnitt and Carbone-Lopez (2006) included concepts such as women's "identities as partners or mothers" and "perceived threats to their status as a good mother or a faithful partner" (p. 344). Similarly, Ulasewicz (2007) explored how institutionalized female delinquents use or are forced to use their institutionally provided clothes to generate an understanding of themselves as girls. Finally, in their study of the impact of marriage on men's desistance from crime, Sampson, Laub, and Wimer (2006) suggested that marriage can "lead to…situations that provide an opportunity for identity transformation and that allow for the emergence of a new self or script... (p.498; emphasis added). All three of these studies include conceptual definitions of gender that are focused on individuals' subjective experiences as

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[1] Frank Williams (1999) made a similar call for the need of a meta-theory in criminology, suggesting the use of chaos theory.

gendered-beings and the impact of those experiences on their broader self-concept and involvement in criminal/delinquent activity.

In addition to subjective understandings of the self as a gendered-being, the interior individual dimension of gender also includes an individual's subjective understandings of others as gendered-beings. In the social science literature more broadly, this dimension has included: "individuals' stereotyping of politicians as male vs. female" (Hugenberg, Bodenhausen, & McLain, 2006); "ambivalent sexism" (Christopher & Mull, 2006); "benevolent sexist attitudes" (see Fischer, 2006); "sexist attitudes" (DeMarni Cromer &Freyd, 2007); "traditional gender attitudes" (Rederstorff, Buchanan, & Settles, 2007); "feminist attitudes" (Wright & Fitzgerald, 2007); "attitudes toward women in science and society" (Wyer, Murphy-Medley, Damschen, Rosenfeld, & Wentworth, 2007); "support for the sexual double standard" (Bay-Cheng &Zucker, 2007); "egalitarian attitudes about gender" (Karpiak, Buchanan, Hosey, & Smith, 2007); and, "prejudice against women" (Case, 2007). An example from the criminological literature includes Herzog's (2007) study of the connection between individuals' gender-role attitudes and perceptions of the seriousness of intimate partner violence.

b) The Interior Collective Dimension of Gender

Researchers concerned with the interior collective dimension or inter-subjective experiences are interested in the meaning that a particular group shares regarding gendered-beings, or the shared beliefs about the value, characteristics, and traits associated with gendered-beings. These shared beliefs are extremely important in any culture because they "help men and women orient themselves as male and female to each other, to the world around them, and to the growing boys and girls whose behavior they must shape to a commonly accepted mold" (Sanday, 1981, p. 3). Researchers and theorists continue to study how these shared beliefs regarding gender have developed over time as well as their impact within and across cultures (Archer & Lloyd, 2002; Bonvillain, 1998; Brannon, 2002; Daly, 1991; Lorber, 1994; Meade & Wiesner-Hanks, 2004; Sanday, 1981).

Within the criminological literature, Zhang's, Chin's, and Miller's (2007) study of women's participation in human smuggling provides an interior collective conceptualization of gender. Zhang et al. suggest that "gender ideologies about work and caregiving" contribute to the creation of "a more meaningful niche for women in human smuggling operations" (p. 699). These two statements illustrate the shared perceptions of gendered-beings among two different groups, the broader Chinese culture (within which their study was conducted) and human smuggling clientele. Additionally, Cecil (2007) engages the interior collective dimension in astudy of media images of women in prison. Cecil notes that, given the relative lack of first-hand knowledge about women in prison, "media images … are an important source of storytelling and information," making "each image…extremely vital to understanding these women and their lives" (p. 304).

c) The Exterior Individual Dimension of Gender

The exterior individual dimension of gender refers to biological and physiological aspects associated with gendered-beings, often referred to as sex. Considering this dimension, we are able to uncover those gender characteristics that are experienced in our physical being. This includes physiological development (see Brannon, 2002; Mealey, 2000; Rogers & Rogers, 2001). Clear conceptual definitions of the exterior individual dimension of gender are close to absent from recent criminological literature. Beyond mentions of sex-based differences, there is little conceptual sophistication regarding sex as a control or explanatory variable. Several explanations are available for the lack of conceptual complexity surrounding this dimension of gender. First, it could be indicative of the more general disciplinary trend towards questioning, or to a greater degree abandoning troubling and uncritical biological explanations of gender. While we do not advocate the re-emergence of such uncritical explanations, a more Integral approach would require a fair treatment of the more critical and conceptually complex approaches to studying the exterior individual dimension of gender.

Second, this lack of conceptual complexity could be a reflection of the clear and important distinction between sex and gender as articulated by many skilled feminist scholars, and the shift in focus towards gender as a social construction versus sex as a biological given. We are certainly proponents of this distinction but suggest that it too remains relatively crude and is in need of further refinement, like that offered by the four dimensions described here. Third, the lack of conceptual complexity is reflective of our lack of operational complexity. We suggest this is in part due to our use of a relatively limited range of proxy measures for the exterior individual dimension (e.g., a dichotomized self-reported sex), and fits with our narrow and shallow understanding of what are appropriate methodologies and operational definitions within our discipline and across several social sciences. In a continued (and, we suggest, misguided) attempt to position criminology as a "legitimate" scientific endeavor in the spirit of the "hard sciences," mainstream researchers are unwilling or unable to open space for less parsimonious (read, more complex) conceptual and operational approaches to constructs such as sex.

Finally, and perhaps most likely given our analysis of social science scholarship, the lack of conceptual complexity surrounding the exterior

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individual dimension of gender may be further illustration of the taken-for-granted nature of our biologically-based dichotomized view of gender. This becomes all the more apparent when we juxtapose the paucity of conceptual complexity surrounding the exterior individual dimension with a seeming over-reliance on operationalizations of gender oriented around relatively rigid and limited proxy measures of the exterior individual dimension.

d) The Exterior Collective Dimension of Gender

Those interested in the exterior collective dimension have predominantly attempted to explain behaviors or activities that are performed by gendered-beings and have been institutionalized within a given society's social systems. We can say, therefore, that gender is also experienced as those institutionalized behaviors and/or activities performed by gendered-beings, which are informed by the specific make-up of particular social systems. Following this line of reasoning, the exterior collective dimension is impacted by both broad social and particular systemic structures within a society. According to some researchers, two social systems that are deeply related to the exterior collective dimension of gender are modes of production and political structures (see Bonvillain, 1998; Brannon, 2002; Frader, 2004; Halsall, 2004; Sanday, 1981). As changes occur in a society's modes of production, we also see changes in political organization and, consequently, the relative involvement of gendered-beings in both.

Two categories of conceptual definitions related to the exterior collective dimension of gender can be found in recent criminological research. The first category represents those definitions aimed at gendered-roles, or the patterns of interaction among gendered-beings within a particular social system. Examples include gender-roles within the family (Jang, 2007), gender stratification in illicit enterprises (Zhang, Chin, & Miller, 2007), and structural inequality between men and women (Vieraitis, Britto, &Kovandzic, 2007; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010[2]).

Whereas this first category deals with the gendering of systems, the second category relates to the ways in which systems treat gendered-beings. An illustrative example of the types of conceptual definitions that fit within this category is Griffin's and Wooldredge's (2006) empirical study of sex-based disparities in felony dispositions, which discusses severalcompeting hypotheses regarding the differential treatment of gendered-beings by the courts(the chivalry, paternalism, and evil woman hypotheses).

As presented here, the four dimensions of gender are already represented, to varying degrees, in the criminological literature. As noted earlier, we believe there is a strong case to be made that these dimensions represent the prototypical elements of gender. In essence, we postulate that these four dimensions can be used to incorporate the variety of ways that we as humans experience life as gendered-beings. Identifying the prototypical elements of a construct, however, is only the first step in establishing construct validity and/or addressing threats to it. As stated previously, Shadish et al. (2002) suggest that it is important to include multiple operationalizations, link each of those operationalizations to particular dimensions of the construct under study, and take into consideration various perspectives on how well the chosenmeasures actually capture those dimensions. In line with their suggestion, we now shift our attention to how the four dimensions can also be used to construct a methodological meta-framework that allows researchers to employ multiple and diverse operationalizations and link them to the specific dimensions (think prototypical elements) of gender.

IV. An Integral Framework for Measuring Gender

When presenting the Integral theory of gender above, we noted that the four dimensions represent four distinct, yet interrelated aspects of human experience. Here we expand our description of the four dimensions to include their representation of four distinct, yet interrelated perspectives. As a perspective, each dimension enacts a particular view of gender. In other words, those who take up an interior individual perspective of gender will come to understand gendered-beings in terms of their gender-identity. By connecting each dimension to its corresponding perspective, we are able to identify instances in which researchers' conceptual definitions are not aligned with their operational definitions—something we refer to as slippage. We begin by presenting studies that employed methodological approaches aligned with the conceptual definitions (i.e., epistemic-ontological alignment). We then move to a discussion of two studies in which threats to construct validity in the form of slippage were present.

V. Measuring the Interior Individual Dimension

As presented earlier, Kruttschnitt and Carbone-Lopez (2006) employed conceptual definitions such as women's "identities as partners or mothers" and "perceived threats to their status as a good mother or a faithful partner" (p. 344). In order to measure these aspects of participants' interior individual dimension, these researchers employed in-depth interviews. During

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[2] While not reporting the findings of primary research, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2010) published an extensive toolkit for analyzing gender issues in criminal justice. While recognizing the conceptual complexity of gender (as distinct from sex), the toolkit relies almost exclusively on measures associated with the exterior collective dimension.

these interviews, the women were able to describe their gender-identities and perceived threats to those identities in their own words, from their own perspectives. The use of in-depth interviews allows the study participants to express their understanding of themselves as gendered-beings directly, as opposed to requiring the researchers to make assumptions based on less direct (and arguably less valid) measures.

Herzog's (2007) study of the connection between individuals' gender-role attitudes and perceptions of the seriousness of intimate partner violence employed operations such as the Old-Fashioned Sexism Scale and the Modern Sexism Scale (see Swim & Cohen, 1997), as well as the Benevolent Sexism Scale (see Glick & Fiske, 1997). Each of these scales is designed to disclose the underlying structure of an individual's subjective beliefs regarding gendered-beings. So, not only can the interior individual dimension of gender be studied through phenomenological approaches such as interviews but also through the use of psychometrics. The key, however, is that in either instance the operationalization is appropriately designed to enact perspectives directly related to the dimension of gender under study.

VI. Measuring the Interior Collective Dimension

Cecil's (2007) content analysis of reality-based programming is an example of a study that employs an operational definition appropriately designed to address the stated conceptual definition of gender. In conducting the content analysis (a form of hermeneutic inquiry), Cecil is able to uncover the types of images that are being constructed by the media and, in turn, incorporated into a collective understanding of women in prison. In other words, a content-analysis enacts perspectives that are well-suited to identifying shared constructions of gendered-beings, which are representative of the interior collective dimension.

VII. Measuring the Exterior Individual Dimension

As already noted, operational definitions of the exterior individual dimension of gender tend to be based on observed sex. For example, in their study of differential suspicion on the part of police officers in the context of traffic stops, Smith, Makarios, and Alpert (2006) used data from citizen contact cards, on which the police officer observed the citizen's physical characteristics and reported whether they were male or female.

Even more common is the use of what can be described as a crude proxy measure based on a dichotomized self-reported sex. An example comes from a study of gang affiliation conducted by Freng and Esbensen (2007). These researchers used data from the Gang Resistance Education and Training (G.R.E.A.T.) survey on which respondents were asked to indicate whether they were male or female. Primarily, these types of operational definitions are used as demographic or control variables, or to stratify a sample. Often this leads to the use of sex as a way to draw general comparisons across groups. However, a trend towards the use of these operational definitions as proxy measures for the other dimensions of gender is also evident.

The use of operational definitions of the exterior individual dimension of gender(and somewhat simplistic measures at that) as a proxy for the other dimensions introduces a great deal of confusion. This confusion then limits our ability to engage in meaningful discourse regarding the distinct contribution of each dimension to our overall understanding of gender as a complex construct. Specifically, terms such as female/woman/feminine and male/man/masculine are often used interchangeably, as well as the terms sex and gender. While this may at first blush seem like a simple semantic issue, the ways in which we label these various dimensions and the language we use to describe them is an important aspect of disentangling our fragmented approach to the study of gender.

VIII. Measuring the Exterior Collective Dimension

Returning to Zhang et al.'s (2007) study of human smuggling, these researchers explored the exterior collective dimension of gender by addressing gender stratification. Theyemployed an appropriate operational definition of gender stratification by compiling data on the number of women and men involved in human smuggling. Similarly, Vieraitis et al. (2007) measured structural inequality between men and women "along four different socioeconomic dimensions: education, income, employment, and occupational attainment". They then compared women and men in each area by dividing absolute measures for males by absolute measures for females (pp. 62). Whether counting the relative number of differently gendered-beings within a particular system or considering the ways in which gender impacts the interactions among people within a system, this category of definitions is closely linked to the ways in which systems themselves can be, and are gendered.

When discussing the prototypical elements of gender, we noted that the exterior collective dimension has been explored both in terms of how systems are gendered as well as the ways in which systems treat gendered-beings. Regarding the latter, we presented Griffin and Wooldredge's (2006) empirical study of sex-based disparities in felony dispositions. In order to test whether there was differential treatment of gendered-beings within several court systems, they analyzed data from prosecutors' files that included defendant sex,

offense type, familial status (e.g., parental and marital status), and sentence. These data were then used to determine whether the treatment of defendants could be linked to gendered-considerations such as biological sex and performance of gender-roles.

One caveat should be kept in mind when considering the relative validity of these types of measures. Specifically, there is no way to tell whether gender (either biological sex or gender-roles) were salient at the time of conviction or sentencing. In other words, attempting to base our understanding of differential treatment solely on outcomes does not provide a full view of the relative importance of gendered-considerations in the decision-making process. In order to fully capture the complexity of these processes, the framework discussed here would require that additional data be collected and analyzed via methods associated with the other dimension-perspectives.

IX. Slippage in Criminological Literature

Earlier we introduced the term slippage to describe instances in which researchers' operational definitions do not appropriately match their conceptual definitions. In this section we provide a brief example of slippage from criminological research. Our intention here is not simply to criticize what are often important contributions to our theoretical understanding of gender and its relationship to crime, criminality, or criminal processing systems, but rather to highlight where threats to construct validity arise in order to better inform our approaches to research. It is important to keep in mind that even the most well-intentioned and well-trained researchers can fall into methodological traps associated with a narrow view of science. Indeed, it has been suggested elsewhere that such a view is a disciplinary problem that is not limited to one particular area of study within criminology (see Martin, Cohen, & Champion, 2013).

Matsueda, Kreager, and Huizinga (2006) attempted to link perceptions of risk to engagement in theft and violence. In assessing these relationships, these researchers suggested that "social structural location will affect risk perceptions directly by structuring other sources of information, and indirectly by affecting a person's own experiences as well as structuring peer networks" (p. 100). One of the social structural locations that these researchers consider is gender. As they suggest, gender will situate someone in a particular position within the social structure and this position will affect a person's own experiences. These structural locations, in this case gender, are intimately linked to the roles and activities that individuals engage in (the exterior collective dimension). In order to measure individuals' social structural location as it relates to gender, Matsueda et al. (2006) employed an operational

definition that relied on a proxy measure of biological sex.

They conclude, "[a]s expected, we find that males and high impulsive individuals engage in substantially more theft and violence…" (p. 113) and "that females and younger respondents perceive a higher risk of arrest for both theft and violence…" (p. 107). While these are legitimate conclusions based on the operational approach employed in this study, they tell us very little about the relationships among gender, social structural location, and involvement in violence or theft. In essence, these authors make a claim regarding the links between gender, as a social structural variable, and criminal behavior, but do not employ any operational definitions of the exterior collective dimension. The authors, therefore, are making a conceptual assumption that cannot be assessed using the operational definition employed. We have no indication as to what aspects of biological sex (or gender) place an individual within a particular social structural location (exterior collective dimension), leading females to be more likely to perceive higher risk of arrest or males to engage in more theft and violence.

These researchers certainly conducted what would be considered well-crafted research. The fact that this study was published in well-respected peer-reviewed journal is an indication of its legitimacy within the discipline. Indeed, when considering the study as a whole, we could argue that it offers interesting and important contributions to our understanding of the relationship between sex and some aspect of crime and criminality. What is troubling, however, is that this article, and others that suffer from slippage, also purports to provide contributions to our understanding of particular aspects of gender that it is simply unable to disclose. By applying Integral Theory, we are better able to identify slippage and, ultimately, more fully address threats to construct validity. This study represents but one example of slippage in criminological research. Cohen (2009), however, found instances of slippage in the measurement of gender in 10.9% of articles published in three major criminological journals from 2006-2007[3]. Interestingly, gender-oriented journals (e.g., Feminist Criminology) were found to have more instances of slippage than mainstream journals (e.g., Criminology). [4]

X. Conclusion

Integral theory recognizes that phenomena, or their referent concepts, are "integral objects"; they are combinations of 1st, 2nd and 3rd person perspectives (Esbjörn-Hargens, 2006, 2010). These perspectives, alone or in various combinations, reveal multiple realities

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[3] 21.2% and 12.8% of the articles published in the sociology and psychology journals included in Cohen's (2009) study also had instances of slippage.

[4] This was also the case for sociology and psychology.

for the same object, which Esbjörn-Hargens (2010) refers to as "ontological pluralism." This multiplicity, however, is not indicative of a relativistic and fragmented world. Rather, it implies something much more complex, that "different realities overlap and interfere with each other" creating "complex and messy" relationships (Law, 2004, p. 61). We must embrace both ontological and methodological pluralism to fully grasp the complexity of concepts like gender. In order to embrace and accommodate this more complex ontology and epistemology, we need not only a correspondingly broad and deep conceptual/theoretical framework, but also a sufficiently broad and deep methodological model. Esbjörn-Hargens also notes that while phenomena indeed exist in a "real" ontological, third-person objective sense, their realities are best perceived as the convergence of multiple pathways, rather than as a singular object (2010). Applying this model to gender (and crime), we propose that the four dimensions constitute both the ontological locations for the object under study and the epistemological methods to approaching that object. That is, they represent both the terrain of reality for a gender/crime research subject and the range available and appropriate maps of that terrain.

Consider the example of intimate partner violence (IPV). We may come to understand IPV as an expression of cultural objectifications and commodification of female-sexed bodies and attempt to assess these dynamics via a content-analysis of popular media representations of such bodies. But this is not the only reality of IPV. The interior individual dimension-perspective would include an investigation of the traumatic effects of IPV on a battered woman through in-depth one-on-one interviews with survivors. The exterior individual dimension-perspective might include studies of the influence of differences in body structures among male and female-bodied individuals on the perpetration of IPV. Finally, the exterior collective dimension-perspective might call for research into protocols on police response and mandatory arrest laws for domestic violence and how they are differentially applied across gendered-beings.

Thus, the Integral Theory presented here suggests that a more nuanced and complete understanding of any given phenomenon is possible when various "expert" lines converge onto the ontological object, each with its own epistemological lenses (Esbjörn-Hargens suggests, 2010). These lines of focus are cast from the perspectives onto the particular object of analysis, culminating in a congregate approach that encompasses clinical, behavioral, criminal-legal, political, physiological, social, cultural, and other accompanying influences. The Integral approach provides a framework for realizing both the richness and the limitations of any single research focus and attending to the strengths and weaknesses of any single method, while leaving open the space for a more appropriate interdisciplinary approach to studying gender and the gender-crime relationship.

Integral theory offers one possible avenue through which social scientists can begin to deepen their understanding of the scientific endeavor, work towards minimizing threats to construct validity in criminology, and adopt a more nuanced approach to studying gender and its relationship to important criminological constructs. By adopting an Integral lens at both the conceptual and operational level, threats to construct validity can be identified and minimized. As suggested in this article, understanding and applying the four quadrants as dimensions of human experience enables us to more fully and adequately explicate complex constructs such as gender (and crime). By adopting the model presented here we are able to identify a broader range of prototypical elements and move beyond not only the sex dichotomy, but also the gender-sex dichotomy that has predominated gender studies for some time.

The over-use of crude proxy measures such as a dichotomized self-reported sex on a survey not only fails to capture the full complexity of gender as a construct and lived experience, but also indicates a discipline that is method-driven instead of theory-driven (similar arguments have been put forth by Williams [1999] and Walker [2007]). This limits the range of methods and operational definitions we employ, introduces threats to validity such as mono-operation and mono-method bias, and further entrenches a myopic and narrow view of science in a discipline that is in desperate need of methodological creativity and complexity. By considering the implications of Integral Theory we can identify these threats in our own and others' research, provide approaches for addressing the threats, and begin to build a more appropriate research agenda that takes into consideration the varied ways in which we are gendered (and sexed) and how this influences crime, criminality, and crime processing systems.

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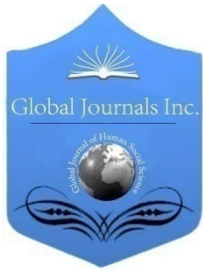
Understanding Poverty from Within: Approaching Complications through Implicating Policiesin Nigeria

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Abstract- Nigeria is the largest black nation in the world. She is also the 6th oil producing country across the globe. However, Nigeria has one of the largest people living in poverty. Reports have indicated that more than 60% of the Nigerian population could be characterized with poverty. In spite of differing poverty intervention program(both the government and private agencies), poverty and inequality in Nigeria still wax in a sporadic trend. From Operation Feed the Nation to the recent You WIN program, Nigeria's development program seems conflictualwith the dreams of "collective poor". Similarly, the presence of unresolved contradictions, between subjective and relative poverty perceptions among the Nigerian people, relatively contributes immensely, as well as contradicts the path-ways towards poverty reduction. Hence, despite government measures at reducing poverty, lackluster strategic intents ultimately inhibits among others, health care delivery andsecurity of lives in Nigeria. Could poverty persistence have been attributed to policy imperfections? Weak political will? Or individual perceptions of inequality?. The contribution of this paper therefore, is entrenched in systemic analysis of rationale behind policy imperfections in the quest for poverty reductions in Nigeria using (NEEDS) as a point of reference. However, the paper argues that, for Nigeria to adequately address poverty agenda as one of the pointers of millennium development goals by 2015, pro-poor strategic policy reformation remains imperative.

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Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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Abstract- Nigeria is the largest black nation in the world. She is also the 6th oil producing country across the globe. However, Nigeria has one of the largest people living in poverty. Reports have indicated that more than 60% of the Nigerian population could be characterized with poverty. In spite of differing poverty intervention program(both the government and private agencies),poverty and inequality in Nigeria still wax in a sporadic trend. From Operation Feed the Nation to the recent You WIN program, Nigeria's development program seems conflictualwith the dreams of "collective poor". Similarly, the presence of unresolved contradictions, between subjective and relative poverty perceptions among the Nigerian people, relatively contributes immensely, as well as contradicts the path-ways towards poverty reduction. Hence, despite government measures at reducing poverty, lackluster strategic intents ultimately inhibits among others, health care delivery andsecurity of lives in Nigeria. Could poverty persistence have been attributed to policy imperfections? Weak political will? Or individual perceptions of inequality?. The contribution of this paper therefore, is entrenched in systemic analysis of rationale behind policy imperfections in the quest for poverty reductions in Nigeria using (NEEDS) as a point of reference. However, the paper argues that, for Nigeria to adequately address poverty agenda as one of the pointers of millennium development goals by 2015, pro-poor strategic policy reformation remains imperative.

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I. Background to the Study

Nigeria as giant of Africa is not novel, being a diverse country with pluralist endowment is not even debatable, what strikes intellectual and philosophical perceptions is Nigeria's exclusive uniqueness in inequality, injustice and "pervasive voicelessness". Similarly, one of the profound indicators to inhumanity and complementing scourge that indirectly impede efficient and effective functioning of other basic state machineries is poverty. expectancy, 3.2 % average growth rate, 69.1% adult literacy and 11.9% unemployment rate(excluding structural unemployment), are insignificant, poverty incidence of 54.4% should certainly strike imaginative intellectualism (Country Review 2008).

According to UNDP report (2001), poverty could be clustered on a five range level of analysis; first is "Income-Poverty" which connote measurement of income, the second is "Material-Lack" which is expressed in terms of complete unavailability or low quality of shelter, clothing and other personal needs, personal means, the third signifies "Capability Derivation" which could be understood when lack of skills and physical abilities and self-respect are considered, the fourth is couched as a "Multi-Dimensional Deprivation" from ill-being to well-being, while the fifth analogy is the "Multiplicity of Poverty".

In a report of Poverty and Social Analysis, (1999), poverty was considered as a major challenge to human survival, more deadlier and devastating than HIV and AIDS and whose consequences determines global development. The incidence, prevalence and distribution of poverty no doubt, invariably affect the development policy of most third world nations including Nigeria. It is fundamentally assertive that if poverty is not a substructure which determines other super structures, policy, reforms and measures would not have been potentially prioritized; and poverty considered as unacceptable human condition that can be eliminated through collective action (African Development Bank, 1999). In the opinion of Ijaya and Mobolaji, (2004), poverty portrays "moneylessness" and powerlessness, where moneylesness means insufficiency of cash and chronic inadequacy of resources to satisfy basic human needs, powerlessness on the other hand denotes lack of opportunities and choices which make life seemed governed from external forces.

Over the years, the federal government of Nigeria had initiated different intervention programmes (Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution, Structural Adjustment Programme, National Poverty Alleviation Programme, Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme (BLP), People's Bank of Nigeria (PBN), Community Banks Program, Family Support Programmes (FSP), the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) and the

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recent U WIN etc.) (Garba, 2006). at alleviating the ugly trend of poverty.

Instead of recording arithmetic progression in empowerment, the country increases in geometric social exclusion and lackluster strategic intents which were occasioned by poverty and poor policy implementation with attending consequences of political democracy, economic justice, religious tolerance, health care delivery, security of lives among others. It is amazing to note that various poverty alleviation strategies adopted by successive governments in Nigeria leaves much to be desired socially. Observers have unanimously agreed that these programs have failed to achieve the objectives for which they were established (Ovwasa, 2000; Adesopo, 2008; Omotola, 2008). Against this backdrop, could poverty persistence have been attributed to policy imperfections? weak political will? or individual peculiar perceptions of inequality?. This paper crystallizes the intricacies of poverty alleviation and policies implications in Nigeria under the following synchronisms.

II. Theoretical Reflections on Poverty

It is significant to observe and maintain the fact that all definitions of poverty and the policies addressing them are all shaped by political biases and values: however, the idea of theoretical framework in social sciences is characterized by the requisition for analogous repositioning of concepts and variables, so that a direction and philosophical emphasis could be maintained on the past, present and future connections of the subject matter under focus.

Recent literature on poverty generally address different theories of poverty, however, these literature have classified these theories in multiple ways (for example, compare Blank, 2003; Goldsmith and Blakely, 1992; Jennings and Kushnick, 1999; Rodgers, 2000; Schiller, 1989; Shaw, 1996). Practically, most authors distinguish between theories that root the cause of poverty in individual deficiencies (conservative) and theories that emphasize the cause on broader social phenomena (liberal or progressive). Goldsmith and Blakely, for example distinguish "Poverty as pathology" from "poverty as incident or accident" and "poverty as structure."

Schiller, Big Brother." Jennings (1999) exemplifies a number of dichotomies on individual vs. society conceptions, attributing emphasis to racial and political dynamics, while Rank analyzed "the focus on individual attributes as the cause of poverty being misplaced and misdirected." Structural failings of the economic, political, and social system are regarded as the pointers here. (Rank 2004:50) The various theories are divergent, and each results in a different type of intervention strategy. Against this background, this paper shall explore only subculture theory that bears direct relevance to the problems established.

III. Sub-culture of Poverty Dimensions

Subculture theory of poverty is rooted from the sub-consciousness of ideology shared by a significant number of people in a community. Oscar Lewis(1961) considers sub-culture of poverty as "an adaptation to a set of objective conditions of the larger society, [but] once it comes into existence, it tends to perpetuate itself from generation to generation because of its effect on children". Similarly, poverty was considered as culturally self-reinforcing, its incidence was directly connected to "structural conditions in society" (Massey and Denton, 1993, p.5).

The theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated, but individually held. Individuals are not necessarily to blame because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or culture. Therefore, the culture of poverty could be presumed as subculture of poor people in ghettos, poor regions, or social contexts where they develop a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behaviour that are separate from but embedded in the culture of the main society. Lewis gave a detailed account that best described the conditions of third world countries in 1998 as:

The people in the culture of poverty have a strong feeling of marginality, of helplessness, of dependency, of not belonging. They are like aliens in their own country, convinced that the existing institutions do not serve their interests and needs. Along with this feeling of powerlessness is a widespread feeling of inferiority, of personal unworthiness….. People with a culture of poverty have very little sense of history. They are a marginal people who know only their own troubles…. their own local conditions…. their own neighbourhood…their own way of life. Usually, they have neither the knowledge, the vision nor the ideology to see the similarities between their problems and those of others like themselves elsewhere in the world. In other words, they are not class conscious, although they are very sensitive indeed to status distinctions. When the poor become class conscious or members of trade union organizations, or when they adopt an internationalist outlook on the world they are, in my view, no longer part of the culture of poverty although they may still be desperately poor.

Nigeria as complex phenomenon, the dominant cultural ideology shared mostly by the majority could be internalized as latent appreciation of culture of poverty. This belief system is long created and perpetuated through different leadership manipulations, policy making, as well as political system which mortgaged social, psychological and emotional status of the majority whom are poor. Nigerian people, especially those in the lower stratum were forced to live under

different hardship conditions that were thought to be relatively normal and occasioned by the internal shared orientation, when indeed, it's the subconscious acceptance and practice of an unintended culture that is largely accountable for our impoverished conditions.

For instance, in 2008, Nerrill lynch report concludes that Nigeria was the least vulnerable on any of the world's major economy going by her sixty billion in reserves, healthy banking sector, and low level of external debt, between 2003 and 2007, Nigeria's real GDP had grown at more than 6% per annum, and predicted by a 2005 Goldman Sachs's report to become one of the 20 largest economy in the world by 2025 (Dungan 2009). Despite these predictions and affirmations, more than 65% Nigerians still remain poor and believed to have no hope in 2012 and beyond…, owing to contradictions in perceptions and measurement inconsistency, insecurity and political crises across the Country.

However, due to persistence of poverty in certain areas, the behavioural perspective is reinforced by the culture of poverty beliefs, which suggests that individuals create, sustain, and transmit to future generations a culture that reinforces the various social and behavioural deficiencies. According to Rodgers, (2000). The "culture of poverty" was an erroneous association of poverty with the poor themselves or on a government that keeps them dependent (Patterson 2000, Patterson, 2004). Similarly, it is the deficient character of the poor along with their deviant behaviour and the resultant self-reinforcing environment that restrict their access to development.

Furthermore, rising rates of divorce, female headed single parent families, teen pregnancy, drug/alcohol misuse, and criminal activity are said to reflect thesedys functional attitudes and values, relative to mainstream society, about family, education equent generations leading to a vicious cycle of poverty from which few escape (Rodgers, 2000)

Despite different arguments and counter arguments, culture of poverty in present milieu, still remains a social theory that expands on the cycle of poverty. It has attracted academic and policy attention in the 1960s, but has largely been criticized by academics around the turn of the century as well (Goode and Eames, 1996; Bourgois, 2001; Small M.L., Harding D.J., Lamont M., 2010). Scholars recognize racism and isolation, rather than the "values" of the poor as the reason for potentially mal-adaptive behaviors of the poor. Despite the perceived shortcomings, the theory still remains relevant- in a way, it explains why poverty exists despite anti-poverty programs; critics of the culture of poverty argument insist that structural factors rather than individual characteristics better explain the persistence of poverty (Goode and Eames, 1996; Bourgois, 2001; Small M.L., Harding D.J., Lamont M., 2010).

What is fundamental today in subculture theory is a philosophical question of what, how and when does shared ideology become a subculture? Who creates it? Who benefits? And what rational justification is derivable from such entrenchment? The answers to these questions are controversial, contradictory and paradoxical, but what is apparent in the case of Nigeria cannot be divorced from extrinsic factors (policies imperfections, professional obligations and political instability) and intrinsic factors (egocentricism, social bigotry and greed). The combination of the duo, technically affects all other major structures in the country, which consequently snowballed into a gun powder that awaits a trigger.

Nexus of Poverty Trend between Developed and Developing Countries

Human Development Reports of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and, of late, the Millennium Development Goals progress reported the position of World Bank, on the incidence of poverty based on the dollar-a-day criterion, that generate the greatest interest and commentary in the development community. In absoluteterms, extreme income poverty has fallen substantially, with the number of people living on less than $1.25 a day having declined from a high of 1.9 billionin 1981 to a low of 1.4 billion in 2005. In relative terms, the proportion of people living in extreme poverty dropped from 52.0 to 25.7 per cent during this period (Chen and Ravallion, 2008).

Notwithstanding the continued growth in the world's population, the absolute number of people living in extreme poverty has fallen, regardless of whether the poverty-line income threshold is set at $1.25 or raised to $2 or$2.50 per day. This has occurred in the midst of an expanding global economy, which has resulted, on average, in higher per capita incomes in both developed and developing countries (Sachs, 2008; United Nations,2005a). By 2050, the world's population is projected to surpass 9 billion, with developing countries accounting for most of the 2.3 billion increase. The population of the developing world is expected to rise from 5.6 billion in 2009 to 7.9 billion in 2050.

In contrast, the population of the developed regions is expected to increase slightly, from 1.23 billion to 1.28 billion (United Nations, Department of Economics and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2009).Faster rates of decline in the number of people living on less than $1.25 a day occurred between 1999 and 2005. A significant proportion of this decline can be largely attributed to the rise in living standards in East Asia and the Pacific which accompanied explosive economic growth, particularly in China. Other regions of the world also experience the decline in the incidence of poverty, with the exception of Eastern Europeand Central Asia, where the proportion of people living on less than $1.25 a day increased from 1.7 to 3.7 per cent between 1981 and 2005. While this declining trend in

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poverty levels is considered normal for various reasons, poverty rates remain unacceptably high in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia.

Although the absolute number of people living in extreme poverty has been on the rise in sub-Saharan Africa previously, however, the incidence of poverty fell marginally, from54 to 51 per cent between 1981 and 2005, after having risen briefly to 59 per cent in 1996. This regional trend disguises large country differences. For instance, in 1981, the proportion of people living on less than$1.25 a day had varied from a low of 3.6 per cent in Gabon to a high of 89.9 percent in Swaziland. This pattern persisted into 2005, with the proportion inextre me poverty ranging from a low of 4.8 per cent in Gabon to a high of86.1 per cent in Liberia.

These differences are strongly correlated with differences in respect of both economic growth and the severity of income inequality. The contraction in the global economy has also resulted in massive job losses, with the global unemployment rate having increased from 5.7 to 6 per cent between 2007 and 2008 (International Labour Organization, 2009a). Data on recent global employment trends released by the International Labour Organization (ILO) also show that based on growth projections, the number of unemployed persons globally could rise by 20 million in 2009 as a result of the economic crisis (International Labour Organization, 2009a). China and other East Asian countries accounted for 57 per cent of extremely poor people in the world. However, over a span of less than 25 years, the East Asian and Pacific region managed to reduce its global share of extremely poor people to about 23 per cent by2005. In contrast, the share of the world's extremely poor people increased in South Asia, from 29 per cent in 1981 to 43 per cent in 2005.

Consequently, the share of poor people in sub-Saharan Africa more than doubled over the same period, having gone from 11 per cent in 1981 to 28 per cent in 2005. These changes are partly accounted for by high rates of population growth in the absence of strong economic and productive employment growth, as well as by the failure in both regions to achieve significant structural change.

IV. Extent of Poverty in Nigeria

As estimated by the world bank, starting from 28.1 per cent in 1980, national poverty reached 66.9 per cent in 1996 before falling to 54.4 per cent in 2003/2004 – and then reaching a peak in 2010 to 69 per cent. However the population in poverty continues to rise – from 18.3 million in 1980 to 68.7 million in 2003/2004 and 112.5 million in 2010. Poverty incidence is even worse when measured using international poverty line – population below $1.00 in PPP terms in 2010 was 61.2 per cent while those below $1.25 a day by 2003/2004

was 64.41 per cent and 68 per cent in 2010. The population below $2 a day in 2010 was 84 per cent (World Bank, 2011).

According to National Bureau of Statistics (2004) the total poor rose from 27.2 per cent in 1980 to 65.6percent in 1996, an increase of 141.2 per cent. Over the same period, percentage of population in core poor category rose from 6.2 to 29.3percent, an increase of 380percent. However, between 1996 and year 2004,total poor declined by 17.1percent to 54.4percent, while the core poor declined by 24.9percent to 22.0percent. It is also observed that despite the decline in the proportion of the population in poverty between 1996 and 2004, in absolute terms the population in poverty rose from 67 to 68.7million, while those in core poverty declined by 2.2million. It should be noted that World Bank (2001) estimated that 70.2percent of Nigerians live on less than $1 per day.

The fact that over 50 per cent of total population are poor is more worrisome, coupled with the fact that policy makers are bedevilled with a number of contradictory obstacles. Studies have also shown a consistent level on statistical inconsistency in the measurement of poverty in Nigeria. This suggest the fact that recent estimate carried out for past report on poverty incidencein 2004 may have been 57.0% instead of the 54.4% reported by NBS (2005) (see Appendix 1&2).

More insight into the extent of debacle of poverty in Nigeria is gained by considering urban poverty dimension; urban poor rose from 17.2per cent in 1980 to 58.2percent in 1996, but declined remarkably to 43.2percent in 2004. Rural poor rose from 28.3percent in 1980 to 69.3percnet in 1996, this again declined, but less remarkably to 63.3percent in 2004. With educational dimension to poverty in Nigeria, poverty is concentrated among persons with no education and those with only primary education. Studies have demonstrated that socio-economic growth is critical to poverty reduction; yet, the approach to social equality is haphazard, unethical and deficient in transparency.

While data on Nigeria's poverty over time remains alloyed with criticisms, evidence are abound that Nigeria's poverty has actually increased over time. Nigeria ranks third in the world for the most people living with HIV/AIDS and has the third highest death rate as a result of HIV/AIDS (CIA Factbook). More so, Nigeria's infant mortality rate has been estimated to be currently 99 per 1000 births, by implication, this means that Nigeria has the thirteenth highest infant mortality rate in the world (CIA Factbook). The infant mortality of children under the age of 5 was 189 per 1000births in 2007. These high mortality rates are mostly due to mothers not having enough money to take care of their children (moneylessness). Many mothers are also ignorant of some preventive measures such as immunizations and

vaccines, this made pertussis and tetanus (DPT) for children between 12-23 months to be estimated at 54 percent in2007. Many children in Nigeria die as a result of malaria, diarrhoea, tetanus and similar diseases.

As opined by Chimobi, (2010), when Nigeria is compared with Sub-Saharan Africa, Nigeria seems to be better off in a few economic and social aspects but worse off in most. This is illustrated with some selected economic data in Table 3. First of all, the average Nigerian is slightly poorer in terms of GDP per capita than the average person in Sub-Saharan Africa. Second, the life expectancy of an average Nigerian at birth has been estimated to be as low as 47 years, which is again slightly topped by that of Sub-Saharan Africa (51 years). In terms of gross primary enrolment in 2006, Nigeria was with 96.2 percent slightly better off than Sub-Saharan Africa (93.2 per cent), Nigeria's below that of Sub-Saharan Africa. Nigeria's immunization rates for both DPT and measles are relatively low compared to Sub-Saharan Africa which rates as high as 72percent in DPT and 71 percent in measles, while Nigeria's immunization rates are still at54 percent and 62 percent, respectively for DPT and measles.

Without fear of contradictions, Nigeria faces mass poverty and this has serious social, political, economic, and security consequences that cannot be compromised. Consequently, situation in Nigeria has however been made worse by the rapid population growth rate of about 2.83 percent since the 1990s giving rise to a high dependency ratio and pressure on resources in several areas. The qualitative aspects of poverty derived from the voice of the poor, a consultative World Development Report (2000/2001) carried out by the Department for international Development (DFID) and World Bank in collaboration with the National Planning Commission also manifested poverty in terms of lack of access to resources by individuals which leads a state of powerlessness, helplessness and despair, in ability to subsist and protect oneself against economic shocks, social economic, cultural and political discrimination and marginalisation among others.
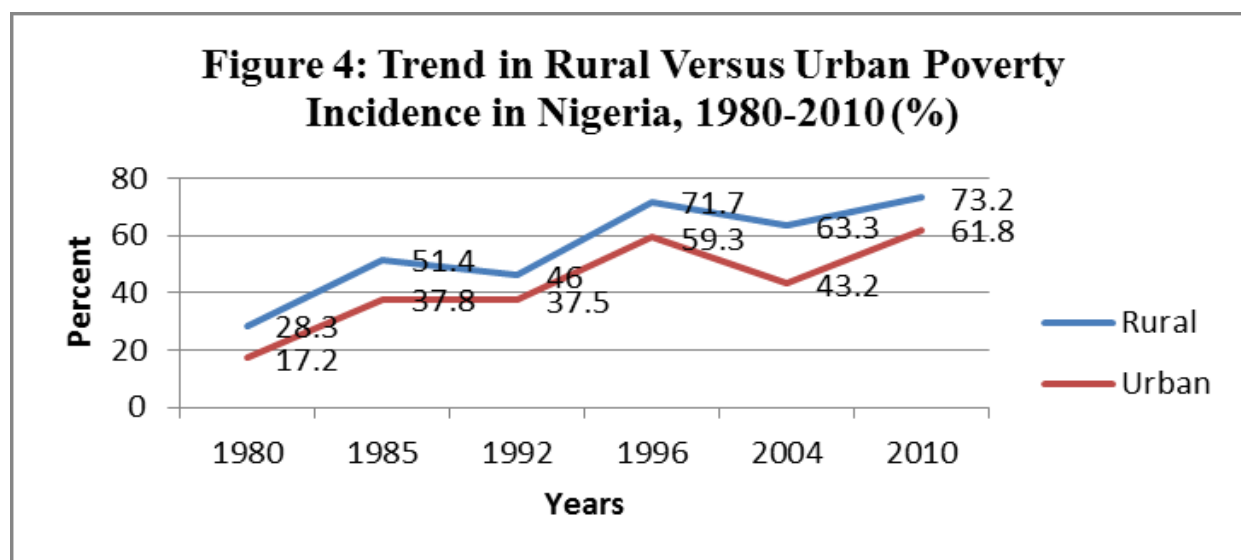
Source: Federal Office of Statistics (FOS)/National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and NBS (2010).

Figure 4 : Trend in Rural Versus Urban Poverty Incidence in Nigeria, 1980-2010 (%)

From the table above, it could be seen poverty increased from 22% to 51.4% from 1980 to 1989 and drops slightly in 1992; it rose again from 71.7%, drops slowly to 63.3% and rose again to 73.2 from 1996 to 2010 in rural Nigeria. In urban Nigeria, the poverty measure was estimated at 28.3%, which rose to 37.8% between 1980 and 1985. The trend increased from 37.5 to 59.3 from 1992 to 1996 and slightly drops in year 2004, and subsequently increased from 43.2 in 2005 to 61.8 in 2010.
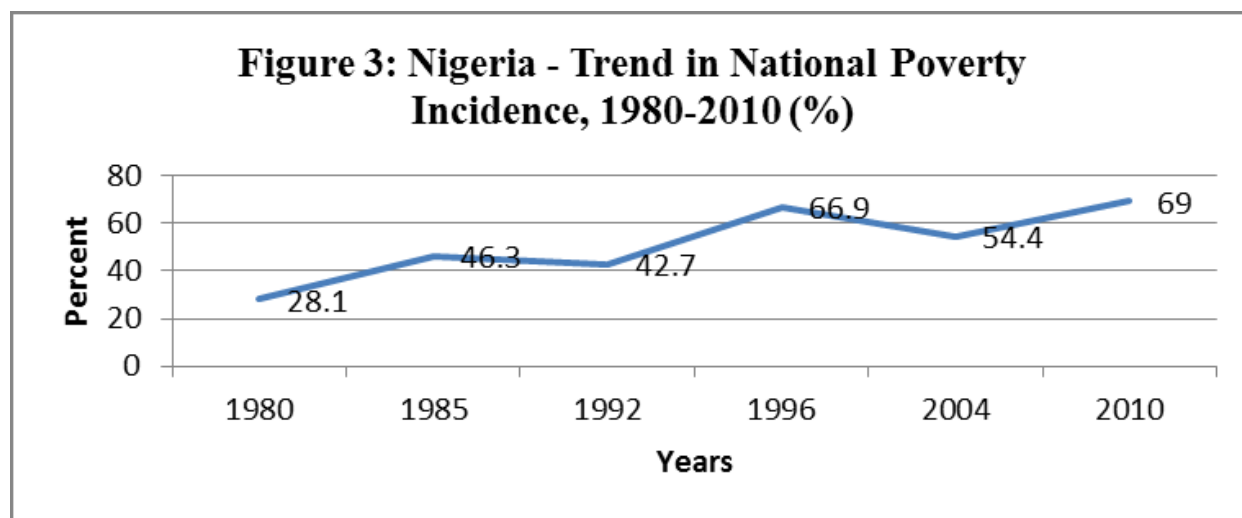
Figure 3: Nigeria - Trend in National Poverty Incidence, 1980-2010 (%)

Source : Federal Office of Statistics (FOS)/National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and NBS (2010).

Figure 3 : Nigeria – Trend in National Poverty Incidence, 1980-2010 (%)

From the table above, there is a steady state of poverty galloping from 28.1% in 1980, to 46.3 in 1985, a relative balance was maintained between 1985 and 1992. However, in 1996, poverty rose sharply to 66.9% and dropped to 54.4% in 2004, only to rise again to 69% in 2010. Consequently, this table further depicts a non-stable relation inpoverty incidence from 1980 to 2010, which is further explicated by different reform programs designed by different Civilian/Military administrations in Nigeria.
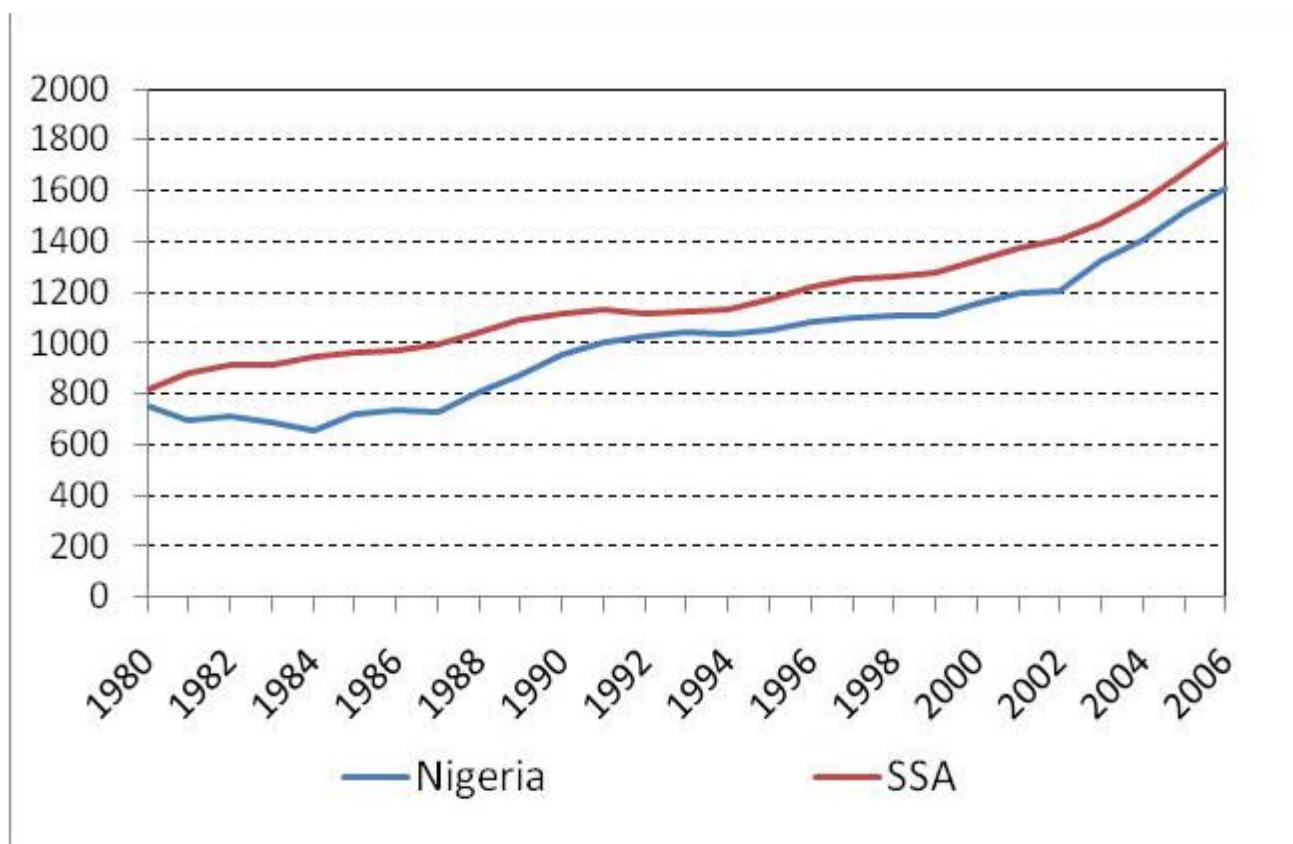
Source: World Bank (2008) World Development Indicators 2008, CD-Rom.

Figure 3 : GDP Per Capita in Current International Dollars, 1980-2006

Although, data on poverty is many times controversial, from the above chart, we could confirm that data provided by the United States Central Intelligence Agency's World Factbook (henceforth CIA Factbook), postulated that 70 percent of the Nigerian population lived below the poverty line in 2007. However, evidence are bound from other case studies and qualitative research indicating a higher perception, knowledge and outcome of poverty from more than 80% of Nigerians, in spite of different poverty alleviation programs designed and implemented by Nigeria government.

What is significant is that while international parity could be a reliable yardstick especially among developed nations whose GDP could be measured using standard economic measures, such measures could be generalized on the basis of validity and reliability of instruments used, conversely, in sub-Sahara Africa and in Nigeria in particular, many factors could be attributed to unstable statistical measurement and inaccurate analysis, which rather make survey analysis as well as intellectual contributions counterproductive. However, general perception posits that more than two - thirdmajority wallop in abject poverty in Nigeria, owing to policy imperfections and misappropriations.

Could Policies address Poverty in the face of Complications in Nigeria?

V. Summary and Conclusion

Poverty is galloping in Nigeria(Oshewolo, 2011), despite several attempts by successive governments to abate the problem, unemployment, malnutrition, illiteracy, low status of women, environmental degradation and limited access to social and health services, including reproductive health services are the consequential effects (Aina, 2012). Sequel to this development, Nigeria is now considered as one the 20th poorest Countries in the world(Okeshola, 2009), The 2011 Human development Index present Nigeria as one of the twenty countries with lowest human development index and with a rank of 156 in a table of 187 countries (UNDP Human Development Report, 2011). Various studies have depicted an estimation of not less than 71.5 percent Nigerians living in poverty, compared with 27.2% in 1980,42.7% in 1992 and 54.4 % in 2004(NBS 2012).

Approximately, 47-48% (estimated to about 15 million persons) of labour force remains unemployed (Aina, 2012), while the high incidence of poverty has made policy formulation a priority, a number of intrinsic and extrinsic factors impair successful implementation of virtually all poverty policies. From Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution, Structural Adjustment Programme, National Poverty Alleviation Programme (NAPEP), Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme (BLP),

People's Bank of Nigeria (PBN), Community Banks Program, Family Support Programmes (FSP), the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) National Economic Empowerment Development Strategies (NEEDS) and the recent U WIN, all to no avail, therefore, there is urgent need for a pro-poor reform agenda, where relative and subjective analysis of inequality could be resolved and uncompromising policy directives strictly adhered, with a vision to address the scourge of social inclusiveness and exclusiveness in Nigeria.

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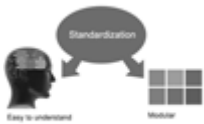
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29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

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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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
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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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