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Editorial

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS) is a scholarly journal that deals with the disciplines of social and development sciences. JSDS publishes research work that meaningfully contributes towards theoretical bases of contemporary developments in society, business and related disciplines. The work submitted for publication consideration in JSDS should address empirical and theoretical contributions in the subjects related to the scope of the journal in particular and allied theories and practices in general. Scope of JSDS includes: sociology, psychology, anthropology, economics, political science, international relations, linguistics, history, public relations, hospitality & tourism and project management. Author(s) should declare that work submitted to the journal is original, not under consideration for publication by another journal and that all listed authors approve its submission to JSDS. It is JSDS policy to welcome submissions for consideration, which are original, and not under consideration for publication by another journal at the same time. Author (s) can submit: Research Paper, Conceptual Paper, Case Studies and Book Review. The current issue of JSDS consists of papers of scholars from Nigeria, Ghana, Thailand, Vietnam and Brazil. Participation and Hindrances to Students' Recreation, The Effects of Globalized Media on Northern Cultures, Wastewater Management in Hanoi, Candidate Policy Ideas and Other Factors that Affect Election Results and Factors Influencing Intergenerational Mobility Levels among Higher Education Graduates are some of the major practices and concepts examined in these studies. Journal received research submission related to all aspects of major themes and tracks. All the submitted papers were first assessed, by the editorial team for relevance and originality of the work and blindly peer-reviewed by the external reviewers depending on the subject matter of the paper. After the rigorous peer-review process, the submitted papers were selected based on originality, significance, and clarity of the purpose. The current issue will therefore be a unique offer, where scholars will be able to appreciate the latest results in their field of expertise and to acquire additional knowledge in other relevant fields.

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PAPERS

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Participation and Hindrances to Students' Recreation at Selected Universities in Ondo State, Nigeria

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Abstract: Recreation has several benefits, one of which is the health advantage that it brings to those who engage in it. Apart from being beneficial to health, one of the other benefits is in connection with good academic performance that it stimulates. This study focused on three selected public universities in Ondo State, Nigeria. It investigates the availability of recreational facilities, students' level of participation in recreational activities, and hindrances to students' recreational participation in the selected universities. A purposive sample of 300 students was adopted and disaggregated into 106, 139 and 55 for the Federal University of Technology, Akure (FUTA), Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko (AAUA), and Ondo State University of Science and Technology, Okitipupa (OSUSTECH) respectively, using the relative population of students in the three universities. Data acquisition instruments included a questionnaire, interview and observation. The questionnaire administration involved a multi-stage sampling procedure that cumulated in obtaining data from the final-year students of each university's faculties and departments. Findings revealed that students' participation in recreation was at low ebb in the three universities with varying degrees of hindrances to participation across the institutions. Poor or absent facilities were the most dominant hindrance to recreation. The worst case was in OSUSTECH where the school authority did not provide any recreational facility on campus. Recommendations include sensitization programmes to enlighten students on the need for recreation and the benefits of same to their health and educational pursuit; and upscaling of recreational facilities in the studied institutions.

Keywords: *Hindrances, Ondo, Recreation, Students, Universities.*

1. Introduction

Every man has the right to rest, to freely participate in communal cultural activities, leisure, play, and recreation, and to have a full opportunity to contribute to his own development, according to the United Nations (Babalola & Alayode, 2012). Numerous studies have shown that making deliberate efforts to enhance the physical fitness of one's physique can help to reduce chronic diseases and improve one's overall health. Students' everyday activities on campus are often strenuous, requiring them to attend lectures, and complete assignments, projects, and fieldwork, all of which result in an elevated level of stress once accomplished. As a result, extracurricular activities must be used to relax the body, soul, and spirit. Elmer (1973) defined recreation as an activity undertaken by an individual in his spare time to meet a personal need or desire, mostly for his satisfaction. Leisure activities are another term for recreational activities. The tourism business exists primarily for recreation. "While all tourism includes enjoyment, not all enjoyment is tourism," according to Burkart and Medlik (1988). The rise of tourist culture results from the formation and cultivation of leisure behaviours. While terms like extracurricular activity and campus leisure are commonly used to describe activities that students partake in outside of class, the word co-curricular activity is becoming more popular.

Dance studios or exercise rooms, strength and conditioning centres, gymnasiums, tracks, swimming pools, squash courts, and multi-use rooms providing space for a range of physical activities are all available on most college campuses. The facilities are viewed as social spaces since they bring large numbers of students, professors, and community members together to engage one another and socialize (Huesman et al., 2009). Active kids, according to Downs (2003), are happier and more satisfied with their school experience, as well as more likely to succeed academically than non-users or light users of recreational activities. Furthermore, the benefits of recreational participation were stronger for those students regardless of whether they attended a public or private higher education institution. Students at smaller colleges, on the other hand, reported slightly fewer benefits than their classmates at larger universities. This is likely to be due to the availability of recreational facilities in these universities. Physical activity "protects against unhealthy weight

gain, provides a way of managing the impacts of university life's pressures, and serves as an early preventive step against future chronic disease," in addition to the previously listed advantages (Miller et al., 2008).

Furthermore, engaging children in recreational activities minimize the key causes for students dropping out of schools, Such as a lack of fitness, a lack of social opportunities, and bullying. Recreational activities provide a number of benefits, including improved physical fitness and improved health and quality of life. They also aid in the maintenance of mental health and psychological well-being, contribute to the development of social skills, provide opportunities for meaningful (social) connection with others, aid in stress management, provide leadership and followership opportunities, and contribute to the development of character, self-confidence, and a positive self-concept. This is not taking into account the supply of opportunities for achievement and success (Ajani, 2014). Recreation, according to Atare and Ekpu (2009), cannot be done in isolation without the use of amenities. Providing a variety of recreational facilities will help students to maintain a healthy balance by encouraging them to socially interact with other students who use the facilities, which will improve their emotional and psychological thinking as well as their self-esteem. This will also allow them to think productively and stay healthy.

The purpose of this study was to look at university students' recreational habits and associated hindrances and to give recommendations for improving students' recreational culture. This was to be achieved by identifying recreational facilities at three Universities in Ondo State, Nigeria; determining the extent to which students participate in recreational activities in the selected universities; and investigating the barriers or hindrances to students' engagement in recreational activities. This study will provide information to stakeholders and investors in the education sector with respect to common and available recreational facilities for university students in terms of quality and type and needs to be met. The information on various hindrances to recreation will also be useful to relevant stakeholders dealing with the holistic development of students in tertiary institutions. Furthermore, the study has great importance in the drive for self and talent discovery for professional sports career by many students and youths, who will further serve as human resources for developing the nation's sports industry.

2. Literature Review

Students' Level of Participation in Recreational Activities: Recreational awareness, according to Ekinci and Ozdilek (2019), is a notion that refers to people's awareness of the benefits of participating in recreational activities. In other words, they relate involvement to an understanding of the advantages of recreation. Physical activities stimulate social contact among students, build student confidence and self-awareness, considerably improve focus and learning, reduce feelings of sadness and anxiety, boost self-esteem, and improve the overall quality of life, according to The State of Queensland (2021). Furthermore, Eski et al. (2017) argue that students' optimal use of leisure time is important since it helps to prevent problems that influence their physical and mental health. Also, participation in leisure activities is an important aspect of university life as students who do not engage may face academic limitations. According to a study released by Soyer et al. (2019), students' restricted participation in leisure activities was due to a lack of time. Furthermore, free time is precious, which is exacerbated by the difficulty in making use of it. According to Eski et al. (2017), limited participation in leisure activities may be due to certain students' inability to manage their time well. There is also a scarcity of information on recreational alternatives for pupils.

Any child who engages in strenuous leisure activities throughout the school day is expected to improve his or her capacity to concentrate, recall, perceive, and attend to academic responsibilities considerably (Hyndman & Wyver, 2021). Despite broad knowledge of the advantages of leisure, many students continue to avoid it owing to a shortage of recreational facilities. According to certain studies, males are more active in recreational involvement, and participation reduces with age (Delaney, 2013), whereas another survey implies that everyone participates in at least one recreational activity. Furthermore, certain sporting activities are more popular among women (Webber & Meaman, 2005). This is in line with Kara and Demirci's (2010) definition of recreation, which holds that involvement in activities conducted for personal enjoyment, frequently to revitalize the mind and body, constitutes recreation. They also stated that people's level of participation in recreational activities is influenced by their proximity to recreational areas. Soccer,

basketball, strolling, dancing, martial arts, athletics, tennis, gymnastics, exercise, swimming, aerobics, and running are all popular leisure activities among students. Nonetheless, as seen in Table 1, Pasli and Harbalioglu (2014) divided recreation into six categories, which comprise all aspects of an individual's daily life, including home, education, entertainment, tourism, and sports activities. Although recreational activities improve children intellectually, they are beneficial to everyone. While individual engagement differs, finding and committing to a suitable leisure activity is crucial for maximum benefit.

Table 1: Categories of Recreation

S/N	Activity Category	Example
1	Taking place at home	Watching TV, reading, listening to music, gardening, do-it-yourself hobbies
2	Having a high social content	Entertainment, eating out, drinking in bars, visiting friends and relatives
3	Cultural, educational events and artistic interests	Visiting theatres, concerts, exhibitions, museums, attending non-vocational classes
4	Pursuit of sport, either as participant or spectator	Golf, football, swimming, tennis, darts, bowls, etc
5	Informal outdoor recreation	Driving for pleasure, a day excursion to the seaside and countryside, walking, picnicking
6	Leisure tourism involves an overnight stay	Longer distance travels, tours, weekend breaks, holidays and vacations

Source: Adapted from (Pasli & Harbalioglu, 2014).

Obstacles to Students' Participation in Recreational Activities: Recreation is time spent engaging in activities, whereas leisure time is unstructured time (Pasli & Harbalioglu, 2014). Music, camping, athletics, theatre, gaming, and social events are examples of recreational activities that may be done outside of one's home. Despite the availability of free time, leisure activities are restricted to a certain extent. Students are unable to fully participate in leisure activities due to personal preferences. Leisure hobbies have been studied by a number of academics. As Tolukan (2010) points out, many students face hardships in life. Girls tend to be more restrained than males while participating in leisure activities, according to Özşaker (2012), and the environment and its conduciveness have an impact on how well free time is spent. Pasli and Harbalioglu (2014) also stated that disparities in money and spare time determine whether or not students participate in recreation. However, Kilic (2013) stated that most students prioritize their schoolwork above recreational activities while in school. This is due to a lack of appropriate resources to handle both academics and recreation (Udokanma & Onwunaka, 2016).

Shyness, ability, and congestion of recreational facilities were also revealed as significant impediments to students' involvement (Jackson, 2009). According to Thomas et al. (2019), the lack of recreational resources on campus also affects students' participation. Numerous studies have proved the numerous benefits of leisure activities and suggested that people engage in 150 minutes of physical exercise each week on average (National Academy of Science, 2013). Despite the fact that recreational activities are promoted, females' involvement is limited due to religious restrictions and norms (Feizabad et al., 2012). Participation in recreational activities keeps students alert and, in turn, contributes to academic success. At higher education institutions, recreational activities have a substantial impact on student's academic progress. The pace at which a student can assimilate or concentrate on his work rises when the brain is relaxed and the body is revitalized, which is why recreational centres in educational institutions are crucial to students' wellness and performance, and this should always be seen as the primary reason for offering essential recreational facilities. According to Atare and Ekpu (2009), recreation cannot take place without the presence of facilities; consequently, if recreation is to influence attitudes and behaviour, school-based amenities are required.

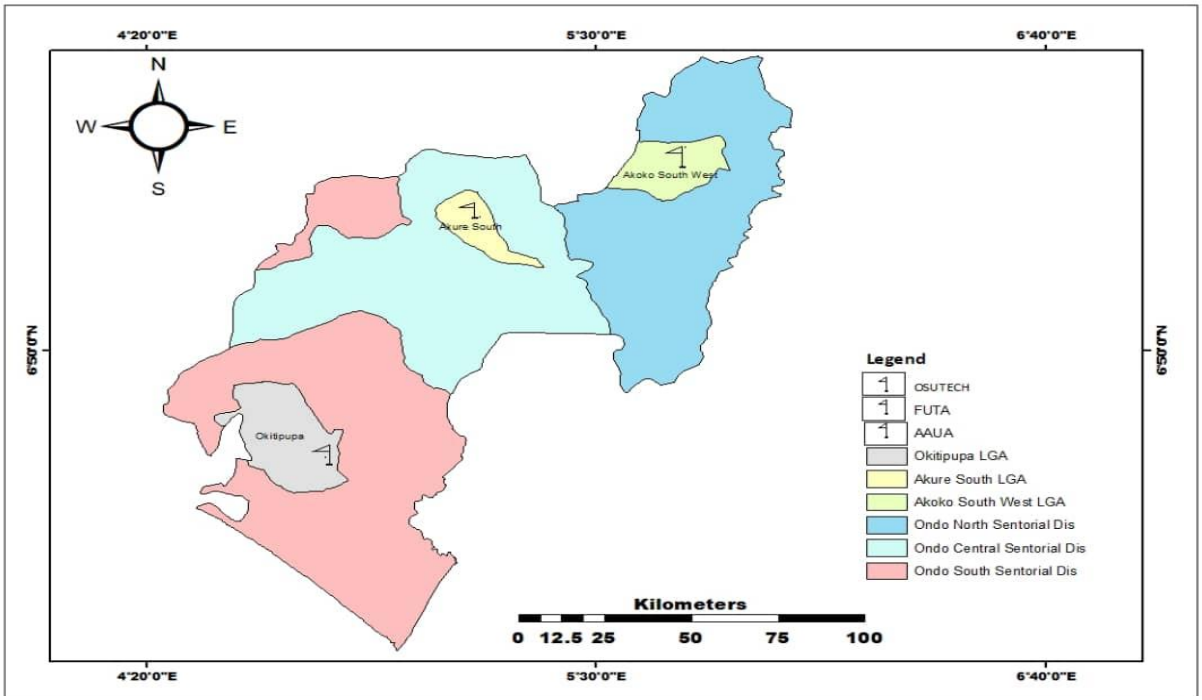
Ekanem (1995) claims that adequate facilities provide benefits such as increased interest in sports and recreation, making training pleasurable and simple, motivating participants and customers, and improving skill efficiency and process comprehension. Children, teenagers, adults, and criminal patients should all be served with the same facility. Services may be held in the apartments, on the grounds, or in the neighbourhood. In a recent study by Aksoy and Arslan (2019) on 497 students (248 men participating in and

249 men not participating in any recreational activities), statistically significant differences were found between the students participating in sportive recreation activity in the field and those who did not participate in any recreational activity. This was in terms of Individual Psychology, Social Environment, Service and Transportation, Lack of Time, Lack of Friends and Lack of Interest. The variables were based on the "Leisure Constraints Scale", which was developed by Alexandris and Carroll (1997) and was conducted in the study of the validity and reliability of Turkish Society by Karaküçük and Gürbüz (2007). The study analysed the normality hypothesis of the data using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. With all variables revealing normal distribution, parametric tests were applied to the independent variables related to the sub-problems and the leisure time subscales. Independent T-test was used for paired comparisons and Pearson correlation was used for the relationship between variables to arrive at the conclusion.

In another study, Kozak and Doğantan (2016) carried out a study in Turkey to ascertain the likelihood of a student continuing to recreate after graduation. The primary objective was to obtain information on preferred recreation activity categories, recreation experiences, and the intent to continue these activities. A quantitative research approach was adopted, using a survey form on 268 students who were registered in student clubs at the university. Factor analysis, correlation, and regression analysis were used in the analysis of the survey data. Factor analysis was conducted on the "Recreation Experience Preferences" (REP) scale items. It was determined that the scale was structured in seven dimensions. The findings of the study determined that the students preferred social recreation activities the most, followed by cultural, artistic, and physical recreational activities. As such students' participation frequencies based on activity categories could be sorted as social, artistic, cultural, and physical, respectively. Also, as the students' participation frequency in recreation activities increased, the experiences acquired increased as well. It was therefore observed that as the frequency of participation in social, cultural, and artistic categories increased, the experiences in "learning about nature, culture and art" and "escape from personal-social pressures" increased accordingly. The purpose of this study is to examine students' recreational patterns in Nigeria using Ondo State public universities as a case study. It will help to ascertain if the causes impeding leisure activities among students at higher institutions are the same within and outside of Nigeria.

Study Area and Case Study: Ondo State is located between latitudes 5^0 45' and 8^0 15'N and longitudes 4^0 20' and 6^0 00'E (Ondo State Bureau of Statistics, 2021). It has a border with the Edo, Delta, Ogun, Osun, Ekiti, and Kogi states, as well as the Atlantic Ocean's Bight of Benin. The state has a population of 5,267,322 people and a land area of 14,788.723 square kilometres. The state is divided into eighteen (18) Local Government Areas, the capital city of which is Akure. The State is split into three Senatorial Districts, with each containing six Local Government Areas (LGAs). The Senatorial Districts are Ondo North (comprising Akoko North-East, Akoko North-West, Akoko South-East, Akoko South-West, Owo and Ose LGAs); Ondo Central (comprising Akure North, Akure South, Idanre, Ifedore, Ondo East, and Ondo West LGAs); and Ondo South (comprising Ese-Odo, Ilaje, Ile-Oluji/Oke-Igbo, Irele, Okitipupa, and Odigbo), according to (SituationRoom, 2021). Three public universities in Ondo state were selected for the study (one from each senatorial district). These are Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko (AAUA) within Akoko Southwest LGA in Ondo North Senatorial District; The Federal University of Technology, Akure (FUTA) within Akure South LGA in Ondo Central Senatorial District; and Ondo State University of Science and Technology, Okitipupa (OSUSTECH) within Okitipupa LGA in Ondo South Senatorial District. FUTA is a Federal Government institution while AAUA and OSUSTECH are Ondo State-owned institutions.

Figure 1: Ondo State Map Showing the 3 Senatorial Districts and Locations of the Selected Institutions



Source: Authors' adaption, 2019.

3. Methodology of Research

The study engaged a survey approach to collect data on the objectives of the study which are on the availability of recreational facilities in selected universities, students' level of involvement in recreational activities and hindrances to students' participation. Data were collected from students of selected universities using a structured close-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire was chosen as a data collection instrument due to its adaptability and capacity to give quantifiable data. Also, information was obtained from coaches of the institutions using an interview guide. Observation of available facilities was documented using photo cameras. Existing academic strata of faculties, departments and levels were involved in the selection of respondent students in a multi-stage sampling process. From each faculty/school, two departments were randomly selected; and the final-year students were equally randomly selected from each selected department for questionnaire administration. The reduced/disaggregated number of copies of the questionnaire were administered to randomly selected students on the final-year class list as obtained from the departments.

In the case of the Faculty of Agriculture in OSUSTECH which had only the Department of Fisheries, the respondent students were directly selected among the final-year students of the department. In all, 300 students were selected at random from the three selected universities across the three senatorial districts and the questionnaire was administered to them. A total of 106 students were selected from FUTA, 139 from AAUA, and 55 from OSUSTECH based on the relative student population of the universities. Secondary data were gathered from online and paper publications and documents relating to the recreational patterns of students and the availability of recreational facilities in higher institutions. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 was used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics was engaged with the use of a Table of frequencies in addition to Likert's scale for the development of the Participation Hindrance Index (PHI). The following faculties and departments make up the three universities as shown in Tables 2 to 4. The Federal University of Technology, Akure adopted the school system instead of the Faculty system, which is the case in the two other universities.

Table 2: List of Schools and Departments in FUTA

Schools	Departments
School of Management Technology (SMAT)	Project Management Technology Transport Management Technology Library Management Technology Entrepreneurship Management technology
School of Engineering and Engineering Technology (SEET)	Agricultural Engineering Civil Engineering Electrical and Electronics Engineering Mechanical Engineering Metallurgical and Materials Engineering Mining Engineering
School of Agriculture and Agricultural Technology (SAAT)	Agricultural Extension and Communication Technology Agricultural and Resource Economy Animal Production and Health Crop, Soil and Pest Management Fisheries and Aquaculture Technology Ecotourism and Wildlife Management Forestry and Wood Technology . Food Science and Technology
SET (School of Environmental Technology)	Architecture Building Technology Estate Management Industrial Design Quantity Surveying Urban and Regional Planning Surveying and Geoinformatics
School of Health and Health Technology (SHHT)	Anatomy Physiology
School of Computing (SOC)	Computer Science Information System Cyber Security Studies Information Technology Software Engineering
School of Earth and Mineral Sciences (SEMS)	Applied Geophysics Applied Geology Meteorology Marine Science and Technology Remote Sensing and Geo-science Information System
School of Sciences (SOS)	Biochemistry Biology Chemistry Computer Science General Studies Mathematical Science Microbiology Physics Statistics

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

Table 3: List of Faculties and Departments in AAUA

Faculties	Departments
Faculty of Arts	English Studies
	Philosophy
	Religion and African Culture
	Linguistics and Languages
	History and International Studies
Faculty of Education	Adult Education
	Arts Education
	Education Management
	Guidance and Counselling
	Health and Human Kinetic
	Science Education
	Social Science Education
	Vocational and Technical Education
Faculty of Law	Public Law
	Private Law
	Commercial Law
	Jurisprudence and International Law
Faculty of Science	Biochemistry
	Chemical Science
	Computer Science
	Earth Science
	Animal and Environmental Biology
	Mathematical Science
	Microbiology
	Physics and Electronics
	Plant Science and Biotechnology
Faculty of Social and Management Science	Accounting
	Banking and Finance
	Business Administration economics
	Geography and Planning Science
	Sociology
	Mass Communication
	Psychology
	Political Science and Public Administration
Faculty of Agriculture	Animal Science
	Agricultural Economics
	Agricultural Extension and Rural Development
	Fisheries
	Forestry and Wildlife Management

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

Table 4: List of Faculties and Departments in OSUSTECH

Faculties	Departments
Faculty of Agriculture	Fisheries
Faculty of Science	Biochemistry
	Botany
	Computer science
	Geophysics
	Industrial chemistry
	Mathematics
	Microbiology
	Physics
	Zoology

Faculty of Engineering	Mechanical Engineering Electrical Engineering Civil Engineering

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

4. Results and Discussion

Respondents' Socio-Economic Profile: Findings on the socio-economic profile of the respondent students are summarised in Table 5. Male and female respondents were 55.7% and 44.3 % respectively in FUTA. This is likely to influence more active participation in recreation among the students since men like sports and other recreational activities that help them to improve their stature and physique. This is supported by Özşaker's (2012) argument that girls are more reserved than boys when it comes to leisure pursuits. Additionally, more than 77% of the respondent students fit into the adult age bracket (above 20 years of age going by the adopted calibration); resulting from targeting the final-year students for data gathering. With 16 years as a lower age limit for admission (coupled with delay in securing admission into the university by many students), this does not come as a surprise. There is much vigour and strength for participation in recreation at this stage of life and it is expected that the students would be highly involved in recreational activities, provided there are no other constraining factors. Though a reduced number of females are likely to be involved in recreation at any point in time, the youthfulness factor could be a greater motivation for recreation by this gender when compared with the older generation. Just 8.5% of the respondents were married at the time, which equally favours a greater involvement in recreation due to relative minimal activities and responsibilities when compared with married students. Also, final-year students with a 5-year programme were more in FUTA than those in a 4-year programme.

Furthermore, data obtained from AAUA showed that there was a slightly greater percentage of female students (56.1%) than male students (43.9%). As a conventional institution with courses of study cutting across all professional fields, the percentage of female students is expected to be higher when compared with a technology-based institution like FUTA. Also, similar to the case in FUTA, more than 77% of the students fell into the adult age category while 11.5% are married a slightly higher figure than obtained in FUTA. This slight increase might have resulted from the higher percentage of female respondents as it is common that women tend to marry at a younger age than men. A similar situation to that of FUTA was observed with the duration of programmes being studied though the percentage is slightly higher for 5-year programmes in FUTA. In OSUSTECH, 54.5% of respondents were male, while 45.5% were female. The dominance of males in a university of science and technology is reiterated in this scenario. Equally, the adult group still dominates the age distribution with more than 74% above age 20, due to the selection of final-year students as respondents for the study. All the respondent students of OSUSTECH were registered for a 5-year programme. The summary of the data shown above reveals that 55.7% of the respondents were male, while 44.3% were female. Seventy-seven per cent (77%) were in the adult group while 10.3% were married. A total of 88.3% were on a 5-year programme while the rest would round off after four years.

Table 5: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Socio-Economic Characteristics		FUTA (%)	AAUA (%)	OSUSTECH (%)	TOTAL (%)
Gender	Male	59(55.7%)	78(43.9%)	30(54.5%)	167 (55.7%)
	Female	47(44.3%)	61(56.1%)	25(45.5%)	133 (44.3%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300 (100%)**
Age	15-20yrs	24(22.6%)	31(22.3%)	14(25.5%)	69 (23.0%)
	21-25yrs	77(72.6%)	99(71.2%)	38(69.1%)	214 (71.3%)
	26-30yrs	5(4.7%)	9(6.5%)	3(5.5%)	17 (5.7%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300 (100%)**
Marital status	Single	97(91.5%)	123(88.5%)	49(89.1%)	269 (89.7%)
	Married	9(8.5%)	16(11.5%)	6(10.9%)	31 (10.3%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300 (100%)**
Level	500 level	94(88.7%)	116(83.6%)	55(100%)	265 (88.3%)
	400 level	12(11.3%)	23(16.5%)	-	35 (11.7%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300 (100%)**

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

Availability, Condition and Use of Recreational Facilities: Out of the three universities chosen, only two (FUTA and AAUA) had recreational facilities within the campus premises. OSUSTECH did not make provisions for on-campus recreational facilities. The facilities in Table 6 are the recreational facilities that were recorded in FUTA and AAUA. Some of the facilities are shown in Figures 2 to 7.

Table 6: Available Recreational Facilities in the Selected Universities

Institutions	Available Facilities
FUTA	Basketball court, Gymnasium, Tennis court, Squash court, Football pitch with Race tracks, Handball court, Table-tennis Hall.
AAUA	Basketball court, Volleyball court, Handball court, Tennis court, Badminton court, Gymnasium, Football pitch with Race tracks.
OSUSTECH	No facilities on campus

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

Figure 2: Football Pitch with Tracks in FUTA

Figure 3: Tennis Court in FUTA

Figure 4: Sports Complex in FUTA

Figure 5: Handball Court in AAUA

Figure 6: Basketball Court in AAUA

Figure 7: Football Pitch in AAUA

The interview conducted with the coaches at FUTA and AAUA provided some facts about the condition of the facilities and their use. It was reported that the facilities in both institutions were in good condition, but some of those in FUTA were not in use as they had been abandoned by students due to a lack of interest in using them. Also, the quality of the facilities in both institutions was rated 'average'. Access to the facilities is free except for the use of the Gymnasium in FUTA. Students' participation in recreational activities was viewed as moderate in both institutions. The university Authority in FUTA organises various athletic, football and basketball competitions while AAUA specifically organises Vice-Chancellor and Convocation games. The interview also revealed that some students' poor recreation habit in FUTA was influenced by the demanding academic schedule, clubbing, lack of knowledge about the importance of recreation and a nonchalant attitude. Enlightenment on the importance and value of recreation and the introduction of new and high-quality recreational facilities and competitions (with prizes) were suggested as measures for improving students' attitude to recreation. In AAUA, the major constraint to recreation was mentioned to be the busy academic schedule while the declaration of lecture-free days, which are dedicated to sports and recreational activities, was suggested to motivate students to recreate. It was equally mentioned that the provision of more accommodation facilities for students on campus would increase their interest in taking part in recreational activities as only female students were accommodated on campus.

Level of Participation in Recreational Activities: The level of participation in recreational activities by students in each university is shown in Table 7. Participation was classified according to the frequency of utilization of facilities on campus and outside the campus. This was disaggregated into daily, bi-weekly, monthly, occasionally and never. In FUTA, 10.4% of the respondent students indicated that they were using school facilities on a daily basis while a meagre 1.9% indicated bi-weekly use. Also, 20.8% and 17.9% were utilizing the school's facilities monthly and occasionally respectively while the rest 49.1% never used the campus facilities. With respect to the use of facilities outside the campus, 62.3% of same respondents never used recreational facilities. Several students reside in proximal residential areas to FUTA but most of the facilities available on campus were not found in those areas. This definitely increased the percentage of those that were not engaged in the use of recreational facilities outside the campus. The other available facilities were used by 4.7% of the respondents on daily basis; very few 0.9% used them bi-weekly; while 5.7% engage on monthly basis and 26.4% occasionally. For AAUA, 8.6% of the respondent students were using the university facilities daily and 15.8% were using such facilities bi-weekly while 16.5% and 1.4% were making use of the campus facilities on monthly basis and occasionally. The non-users accounted for 57.6% of the respondents.

Off-campus facilities utilization attracted only 3.6% on daily basis, 0.7% uses them bi-weekly, 23.0% on monthly basis and 21.6% used them occasionally. 51.1% never used them. These findings have revealed that over half of the students were not actively involved in any form of recreation. Due to the fact that OSUSTECH is a relatively new institution that was established in September 2010 (compared with FUTA and AAUA which were established in 1981 and 1999 respectively), several amenities were lacking, including recreational facilities. As a result, the majority of students who were interested in recreation could only make use of the facilities located outside the campus. Just 5.5% of the respondent students were using off-campus facilities on daily basis (Table 7). The same percentage was involved with such external facilities monthly while about the

same percentage (5.7%) were engaging in such use bi-weekly. Occasionally, about 19.7% used these facilities while 63.6% never utilized recreational facilities.

It is important to mention that one of the factors influencing the reduced percentage of students' involvement with off-campus recreational facilities is the cost involved in accessing those facilities where they are available, whether close to or distant from the university campuses. Students' thoughts about the cost of accessing the facilities include transportation costs to such facilities and payments to use the same facilities. This discourages most of them from using off-campus facilities. In the alternative, many students engage passively in other forms of recreation which do not require much financially outlay, bigger facilities or energy dissipation. It is also of note that a greater percentage of those who use the on-campus facilities actually reside on campus and will usually have time for recreation only on weekends due to academic demands during the week. This weekend recreation may also not be possible all the time due to the need to attend to academic assignments.

Table 7: Level of Participation of the Students in Recreational Activities

Participation		FUTA	AAUA	OSUSTECH	Total
Usage of school recreational facilities	Daily	11(10.4%)	12(8.6%)	0(0%)	23(7.7%)
	Bi-weekly	2(1.9%)	22(15.8%)	0(0%)	24(8.0%)
	Monthly	22(20.8%)	23(16.5%)	0(0%)	45(15.0%)
	Occasionally	19(17.9%)	2(1.4%)	0(0%)	21(7.0%)
	Never	52(49.1%)	80(57.6%)	55(100%)	187(62.3%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300(100%)**
Usage of non-school recreational facilities	Daily	5(4.7%)	5(3.6%)	3(5.5%)	13(4.3%)
	Bi-weekly	1(0.9%)	1(0.7%)	6(5.7%)	8(2.7%)
	Monthly	6(5.7%)	32(23.0%)	3(5.5%)	41(13.7%)
	Occasionally	28(26.4%)	30(21.6%)	8(19.7%)	66(22.0%)
	Never	66(62.3%)	71(51.1%)	35(63.6%)	172(57.3%)
	Total	**106(100%)**	**139(100%)**	**55(100%)**	**300(100%)**

Source: Authors' fieldwork, 2019.

Hindrances to Recreation: The frequencies of the responses of the sampled 300 students in the three Universities were collated and tabulated as revealed in Table 8 (arranged alphabetically) to generate a 5-point Likert's scale that was based on their respective responses. Using the 5-point scale of strongly disagree, disagree, not sure, agree and strongly agree with values 1,2,3,4, and 5 attached respectively, a Participation Hindrance Index (PHI) Table was developed as shown in Table 9. The PHIs were generated from the sum of weighted values (SWVs) and the deviation of each PHI from the mean was equally generated. Furthermore, the variance and standard deviation were calculated for the values of the PHI. A ranking of the PHI based on deviations from the mean revealed that the highest PHI (and consequently the greatest hindrance to students' participation in recreation) was 'Poor Recreational facilities'. This implies that poor quality and quantity of facilities provided across the institutions constitute a very high hindrance to students' interest and actual participation in recreation during the session. The students believe that the quality of the facilities could be better and more could be provided especially in OSUSTECH where there are no facilities on campus. This was followed by 'Academic Engagement' which also implies that students are seriously engrossed in their academic activities, which they will prefer to spend more time on at the expense of recreation since it is their primary assignment in school. The least hindrance comes from the 'Health Challenge' which students did not consider a serious impediment to their recreation interest.

Table 8: Sum of Frequencies for Levels of Hindrances for the Universities

S/N	Hindrance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Absent Facilities	229	2	8	6	55
2.	Academic Engagement	89	19	29	72	91
3.	Distance	169	18	32	36	45
4.	Financial Constraint	194	54	17	21	14
5.	Health Challenge	218	40	10	20	12
6.	Lack of Motivation	73	37	16	115	59
7.	Natural Reluctance	153	29	21	56	41
8.	Poor Facilities	77	12	20	92	99
	Total	1202	211	153	418	416

Source: Author's computation, May, 2022.

Table 9: Participation Hindrance Index (PHI) for Students' Participation

Hindrance	Freq. for Strongly Disagree x1	Freq. for Disagree x2	Freq. for Not Sure x3	Freq. for Agree x4	Freq. for Strongly Agree x5	SWV	PHI (SWV/300)	PHI–Mean	(PHI-Mean)^2	Rank
Poor Facilities	77	24	60	368	495	1024	3.41	0.98	0.9604	1
Academic Engagement	89	38	87	288	455	957	3.19	0.76	0.5776	2
Lack of Motivation	73	74	48	460	295	950	3.16	0.73	0.5329	3
Natural Reluctance	153	58	63	224	205	703	2.34	-0.09	0.0081	4
Distance	169	36	96	144	225	670	2.23	-0.1	0.01	5
Absent Facilities	229	4	24	24	275	556	1.85	-0.58	0.3364	6
Financial Constraint	194	108	51	84	70	507	1.69	-0.74	0.5476	7
Health Challenge	218	80	30	80	60	468	1.56	-0.87	0.7569	8
							∑HI= 19.43		3.7299	

Source: Author's computation, 2022.
Mean = 19.43/8 = **2.43.**
Where Variance = ∑ (PHI - Mean)^2 /8 = 3.7299/8 = 0.4662; Standard Deviation (SD) = √(0.4662) = 0.6828.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper highlights available recreational facilities in three selected public universities across the three senatorial districts of Ondo State, Nigeria and equally informs on the condition of available facilities. It further exposes the regularity of participation of students in recreational activities in these schools and pinpoints the various forms of a hindrance to students' recreation while the school is in session. The hindrances explored include natural reluctance, academic engagement, lack of motivation, financial constraints and health challenges. Others include poor recreational facilities, absence of recreational facilities and distance to available facilities. Based on the findings of the research from both the university sports coaches and the students, the following recommendations are germane. There is a need for university authorities to provide recreational facilities on campus where they are absent, while those with obsolete and insufficient facilities are admonished to upgrade to a high standard and improve on the available stock of facilities as the case may be.

There is equally the need for sensitization of students on the multifarious benefits of recreation to their health and academic performance as recreation comes with several health benefits and mental refreshment. The designation of a lecture-free day or lecture-free hours for students for them to ease off from academic engagement and be able to participate in recreational activities should complement the organisation of sports competitions in the universities. This will equally motivate them to participate in recreation activities on

campus. Furthermore, the provision of accommodation for students on campus will bring more students closer to the on-campus facilities, thereby encouraging them to use the facilities, especially on weekends. The universities should sustain participation in competitions with other institutions within the country. As much as possible, access to all facilities on campus should be free of charge to encourage the students to make use of such facilities. It is hoped that when the above-stated recommendations are implemented, the recreation culture of students on campuses will improve and their academic performance will equally improve as well as their health condition.

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The Effects of Globalized Media on Northern Cultures: A Case Study of DAGOMBA, FRAFRA and Wala Ethnic Groups in Tamale Metropolis

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Abstract: The existence of globalized media has influenced most people's ways of living, causing significant changes in Ghana's northern culture. Accepting different civilizations, such as Christian and Islamic civilizations, results in a hybridization of culture, which is shown in their way of life and attitudes regarding issues. This study uses the ethnic groupings of the Dagomba, Frafra, and Wala in Tamale to investigate the effects of globalized media. The study used both quantitative and qualitative research methods to collect relevant data. Using SPSS version 22, it also used descriptive statistics for descriptive analysis and cross-tabulations, as well as the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance to examine the amount of agreement for some specific variables. Out of the ninety people polled, 54 had a television, which they usually used to watch Telenovelas (42.2 %). The outcomes of this study imply that there is a favorable impact on Ghana's northern culture, as seen by their attitude toward social issues (65.6 %) and clothing style (23.3 %). This indicates that while there may be favorable cultural changes, there may also be bad changes. Globalized media, which has the highest rank of 1.73 in the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance, is at the center of it all, playing a vital role in interweaving cultures across time and place. The study suggests that, because the media has a favorable impact on people's attitudes toward social concerns in the north, media houses should promote more social programs.

Keywords: *Globalization, Media, Culture, Civilization, Northern Ghana.*

1. Introduction

Globalization has been the primary driver of cultural hybridization across time. A phenomenon in which the cultures of distinct groups of people are influenced by the cultures of other groups. "Globalization aspires to make the world a place where people from all regions of the globe may communicate with one another regardless of time and distance" (Giddens, 1990). The media play an essential role in the globalization process, particularly in terms of information and communication technology (ICT). Televisions, laptops, mobile phones, and other communication technologies facilitate the global transmission of all types of information. The African continent is one of the world's locations where civilization and globalization coexist because Western technology is spreading its civilizations over the world (Spengler, 1965). With the introduction of globalization and the use of modern technologies, civilization has gained a huge boost. Uncivilized people are those who do not adhere to the Western way of life (Yeboah, 2007). The new age of the twenty-first century strives to adopt the Western way of life to foster civilization and globalization. Culture can be hybridized by embracing civilization and globalization through the products of information and communication technologies.

The producers of globalized media connect their cultural philosophies to the globalized media they sell. This is why Chinese-made mobile phones contain Chinese characters and a Chinese sense of manipulation. As a process, globalization seeks the exchange of cultures across the globe, whether within the African continents or between the African and Western continents. It is always the dominating culture that exerts influence over the submissive culture throughout an exchange. The question today is, in terms of cultural influence in the exchange of cultures, whose culture dominates the other? According to Kraidy (2002), the role of mass media in cultural globalization is a contentious issue in international communication theory and research. Early theories argued that mass media had a significant impact on audiences. Nonetheless, important theoretical formulations in international communication tend to support the notion that the media have a tremendous influence on cultures and communities. Concurrently, a corpus of literature has evolved that questions the reach and power of transnational media. Some scholars in the tradition have questioned cultural imperialism but haven't come up with any conceptual alternatives.

Other scholars have used literature from the social sciences and humanities to come up with theoretical alternatives to cultural imperialism. In the traditional states of Northern Ghana, migrant groups and indigenes cohabit since Northern Ghana is home to a number of diverse peoples speaking a variety of related languages and demonstrating significant cultural connections (Awedoba, 2006). This interaction permits the transfer of cultures from one group to another, resulting in cultural hybridization. As globalization and civilization advance, cultural hybridity becomes more pronounced. Historically, the Northern people of Ghana, albeit not all, had facial marks for a clan and ethnic identity or medicinal and aesthetic purposes until recent times when traditional authorities have been observed fighting against facial marks in various communities (Awedoba, 2006). Most individuals ignore the process that development goes through especially with respect to the African continents. The study of the effects of globalized media on the culture of Northern Ghana is relevant because it seeks to shed more light on the essence and the adverse effects on one's own culture.

2. Literature Review

Conceptual Framework: The theory of imperialism comprises not only direct actions but also indirect ones. Imperialism is exemplified as a system in which a person is forced to act against his or her will because of the current circumstances. The purpose of civilization is to entice and influence people into doing something they have never considered doing. Because the present is so modern, everyone wants to be considered civilized in the way the West does. The capacity to be influenced by a person indicates the possibility of being utilized directly or indirectly to achieve the vision of another. When globalization reaches its zenith, its consequences may be difficult to regulate due to its speed and magnitude. This can only be accomplished through worldwide media that can reach anyone, everywhere. The information transmitted is determined by the media owner. While everyone has the right to choose, it is the content of the media that draws and manipulates their continued access. This is consistent with the Uses and Gratification hypothesis, which states that the media's intended purpose dictates the effect that can be achieved. Even a single exposure to visual and auditory stimuli influences an individual's way of thinking and problem-solving. This study tries to comprehend the reasons for the selection of media, if media influence cultural orientation, the rate at which media influence, and whether media have influenced the historical values of Northern culture, which is a system of population culture. All of these things are connected and show how globalized media has changed Northern culture.

The Conceptualization of Globalization and Media: Giddens (1990) defines globalization as "the intensification of worldwide social relations, which binds distant places in such a way that local occurrences are influenced by distant events and vice versa." Globalization is also known as "Westernization" or "Americanization." This is because the majority of globalization's contents are foreign or western to Africans and people of subservient cultures. Globalization has greatly compressed time and space in the sense that events occurring in one part of the world have a considerable impact on other parts of the globe, independent of their physical location and time (Wiseman & Gomez-Mejia, 1998). This is made feasible by the global dissemination of new ideologies through media outlets. It is believed that globalized media is a primary driver of globalization, as it steadily connects its global audience and consumers to foreign cultures, thus making global compression an even greater reality than it currently is. As a result, subservient cultures are observed embracing foreign music, fashion, cuisine, ideals, government, and manners of life.

Among others, to conform to modern trends. The term "foreign" refers to cultures that exist outside of their original borders. Certain content of globalized media, such as satellite channels such as CNN, BBC, Al-Jazeera, and DW TV, which are all global news services with audiences from all over the world and diverse cultures, has been accepted by people worldwide. Aside from this, the use of the internet through social media, western movies and music, and periodicals is strengthening interconnections between individuals of different cultures. The impact of globalization on Africa and other subservient cultures is controversial, as two schools of thought have emerged as a result. One school of thought asserts that globalization is damaging since the flow of knowledge is perceived as unidimensional, whilst another school of thought asserts that globalization is positive (Daramola & Oyinade, 2015). According to the first school of thought, globalization is damaging due to the unidirectional flow of information; from this perspective, globalization attempts to homogenize the world through the utilization of globalized media.

Whose contents are foreign to Africa but indigenous to the West? It has become a constant flow of ideas from Western nations to African nations, eroding African culture (Dennis & Merrill, 1984). By emphasizing the unidirectional nature of information flow, globalization endangers indigenous cultures. This flow is concentrated on the movement of information from Western civilizations to fewer dominant cultures, which controls fewer dominant cultures. According to Tunstall (1977), indigenous cultures are being displaced and eradicated by western media products. This is not the case for subordinate cultures, as globalized media is altering indigenous cultures economically, culturally, socially, and politically in tandem with globalization. The distortion of Africa on global platforms as a continent beset by "an unexplained series of disasters, economic instability, refugees, famine, epidemics, and wars" is accelerating the erosion of the identity of the African people (Kavoori & Malek, 2004). The image of Africa is tarnished by the Western media's unfavorable coverage of tourism, investment in the extraction of natural resources, and business prospects that could have been reported to the world instead. Negatively affecting Africans' ability to identify with their culture, globalization is hindering Africans from identifying with their culture.

The western globalized media is the ideal model for imposing western culture and influence on developing nations. According to Svetlana Gibson, unrestricted access to globalized media increases the likelihood of misrepresentation, stereotyping, and the erosion of cultural and intellectual property rights. This focuses on the dangers posed by globalization to African culture; modes of dress, native foods, values and standards of African customs, languages, and rites are slowly disappearing. This will be the adverse effect of globalization on Africans, as there will be a loss of history and a lack of a sense of belonging, a dilution of African behavior that globalization does not accept, and the gradual eradication and clearance of all heritage of African origin, as globalization is a one-way information flow. The second school of thought contends that globalization is beneficial. This school of thought is centered on the benefits and contributions of globalization, which "unifies and integrates many cultures into a global village, thereby enriching everybody" (Miraz, 2009). Through the homogenization of cultures, globalization seeks to make the world a universal place; it has been successful in breaking down barriers and improving interconnection through international media.

Which also promotes Western ideologies, thus making globalization productive? In this aspect, globalization has unified the world through trade and investment, governance, and culture, as well as increased world sustainability by removing time and space barriers and fostering a universal lifestyle. Globalization's effects on cultures that want to become more like the West through integration include the use and consumption of more and more western lifestyle elements, like clothes, food, language, and form of government. Globalization has narrowed the economic gap between Western and African states, thereby enhancing economic growth and development. Promoted information flow and interconnection have higher development and improved living standards in terms of open commerce, improved labor mobility, increased capital flow, and the elimination of trade barriers between nations. Shin and SH (2009) discovered that globalization has reduced global poverty and increased the prosperity of both developed and developing nations. The term "media" is the plural of "medium," which is defined as a means of transmitting information to users such as readers, audiences, and viewers. There are fundamentally two types of media: traditional media and new media. Traditional media consist mostly of television, newsletters, and newspapers for the dissemination of information.

The new means of sending information to audiences today (new media) are the result of technological advancements in the old media. Traditional media have been turned into satellite, digital plasma (TV), digital radio, the internet, smartphones, desktops, laptops, and tablets, to name a few. The introduction of these technologies into society has boosted the usage of media, facilitated communication and information dissemination, and expanded the audience that may be reached. Additionally, the media has increased access to knowledge and enhanced interactions between friends and family regardless of location. Africa, for example, is a continent with a complex media environment that, along with the rest of the developing world, is transitioning from the traditional to the digital era. In addition to an increase in radio and television ownership, there is a growth in computer and mobile phone ownership, which increases user access to the internet. When comparing Africa to Western nations, "there is a comparable proportion of mobile-only users, but they are not sensible comparisons" (Coyle, 2004). With this rise, the role of the media changed from just transmitting information to spreading ideas that, if reached by an audience, could be a chance for civilizations to grow and change or a threat to them.

Globalized media refers to the vehicles via which new global ideologies are disseminated across the globe. The internet, movies, videos, notions of investment prospects and economic advancements, governance (politics), and health, among others, can be categorized as the content of media through which ideologies are practiced when received by technical devices across international borders. Technological gadgets such as computers, laptops, notebooks, mobiles, smartphones, televisions, the internet, and satellites act as the carriers that ensure the flow of media materials, thereby providing audiences across the globe with information on global events. In this context, globalized media refers to the technological gadgets that communicate economic, political, social, and cultural concepts to transform the world into a global village. Despite its purpose, globalized media seeks to educate its readers by providing a variety of information that users can access anytime the need arises. Through the usage of social media such as e-mails, Skype, Facebook, WhatsApp, and Twitter, among others, globalized media has increased engagement among family and friends and maintained interconnectedness regardless of a person's geographical location. As a result, people tend to imitate the characteristics of dominant societies whose content is shown in global media, resulting in changes in clothing, food consumed, ceremonies, and other aspects of daily life.

This is because the media influences the way an individual thinks in relation to the information given (Bray, 2007). Despite the benefits connected with the usage of globalized media, "others fear that this will lead to the displacement of indigenous cultures through the unidirectional transmission of ideas and values" (Santos, 2001). This means that subservient cultures are required to pay for access to globalized media content. Since globalized media is a force that seeks to homogenize the world's cultures, the effects of globalized media on Africa are sparked by international mass media through contemporary technological developments. Today, the majority of globalized media tends to portray and promote content relevant to its country of origin; nevertheless, "the reality is that Africa is falling behind in accelerating the development of adequate indigenous scientific knowledge to tackle its problems" (Abayam, 2012). This has resulted in Africans being exposed to a tremendous amount of globalized media content that is extremely strange to them. The concept of globalized media is associated with the decline of less dominant cultures and the emergence of dominating civilizations. African communities have traditions and high moral standards that discourage youngsters from engaging in incorrect and immoral acts that are regarded as unacceptable by society.

In contrast, since the arrival of globalized media content such as movies, music, telenovelas, social media, and online stores, among others, the cherished values of traditional African society have been significantly eroded. Globalized media, especially the internet, which is arguably one of the most effective media tools, has brought in a lot of foreign immorality in the form of drug abuse, bad manners in dress, using bad language, sexual immorality, violence, and crime. In a healthy African society, "clothing plays a crucial part in stimulating or repressing sexual drive as a sign of a culture's moral standard" (Tunrrayo, 2008). In the Ghanaian Akan language, the term 'Aketesia' (a nicely dressed woman) refers to a woman who adheres to the requirement that she dresses modestly. Unfortunately, the manner of dress no longer reduces sexual desire; rather, it has become the cause of sexual harassment, rape, prostitution, homosexuality, a rise in teenage pregnancies, and the spread of STIs such as HIV and AIDS. As (Aral & Ward, 2006) verified, the rapid spread of new technology and media has had an effect on the sex industry around the world. According to Allan (2018), although the media has helped people find a partner, it has also contributed to the spread of sexually transmitted illnesses.

"A 2016 study suggested that online dating platforms contribute to the transmission of HIV," (Allan, 2018). Contrary to African principles, the modern African male pulls down his pants to display his undergarments, and the modern African woman dresses in highly tight, partially naked, and revealing attire, as a sense of modern African fashion of Western provenance. Again, "multiple studies demonstrate that violent entertainment increases hostility in viewers." The number of films and video games that depict violence and crime continues to rise. This is troubling owing to its grave repercussions as African society adopts habits such as occultism in schools, drug misuse, homosexuality, criminal activity, and pornographic material consumption. Currently, drug addiction is on the rise in Ghana as the majority of adolescents use drugs such as marijuana, crack, meth, cocaine, and Tramadol (Citifmonline.com/Ghana, 2018). Others use these medications in relation to the role models they admire (Wood, 2011). The use of these narcotics has a significant impact on crime and violence rates, as well as the number of deaths in society. Johnson (2012) asserts that the proliferating new media relatives are perceived.

As both gifts and threats, particularly to African civilizations. The media has had a positive impact on certain aspects of society by not only enhancing interactions but also providing a forum for discussing social issues and preserving cultural heritage. As a result, cultural history is preserved through television programs such as Ghana's Most Beautiful, radio programs on culture, African films and blogs, journals, and newspapers that focus on African civilizations. According to Ohiagu (2010), the media may assist African societies in developing, preserving, and enhancing their values, as well as ensuring their visibility in growing global cultures. Tables are shifting to the point where a variety of African prints, African clothing, bags and accessories, local cuisines, movies, and photographs of customary marriages and rites are featured on the pages of social media (bloggers), newspapers, and television. African fashion is undoubtedly gaining momentum in the global community as people share their fashion ideas via social media (Niyi, 2014). The multi-media feature of globalized media facilitates the preservation of African values through short films, audio-visuals, written essays, and graphics and images. This endows globalized media with a "high capability of information storage and distribution and an interactive nature, allowing consumers to become familiar with, comprehend, and appreciate many cultural aspects" (Solo-Aneto & Jacobs, 2015).

Moreover, the media not only improves connections between individuals of different cultures but also "has the effect of connecting web users of the same ethnicity into a tight-knit online community." The majority of these online communities are centered on social media, where members of the same group or ethnicity gather to discuss and exchange ideas on matters of social importance. By giving jobs and investment opportunities through globalized media and so contributing to a globalized market, globalized media can be considered to have significantly aided the economic development of subordinate cultures. The eliminated barriers support free trade by allowing countries to freely interchange goods, services, and resources. Increased investment in the media has significantly boosted economic growth (Haaker & Morsinck, 2002). Among the numerous applications of globalized media and its function as a vehicle for disseminating new and global ideas are the use of globalized media for worldwide business transactions and the reduction of trade barriers. Globalized media is credited with the growth of smaller brands and new businesses, as well as the expansion of Africa's indigenous industries. Individual business owners market their products and services to attract customers, while nations market their tourism and hospitality industries, resources, and regulations beneficial to multinational corporations to attract investments through globalized media.

The ability of globalized media to reach a larger audience ensures that businesses reach their target market, investors, and customers who purchase goods and services via online stores or advertisements. When more business is done through the media, foreign exchange and GDP go up, unemployment goes down, the standard of living goes up, and the country as a whole gets better. Unfortunately, the contribution of the globalized media to economic progress is lacking in the areas of money laundering and computer fraud (known as "Sakawa" in Ghana), tax evasion, economic inequality, brain drain, and free trade. Regarding free trade, it is also important to evaluate the influx of foreign products, particularly imports and foreign foods, which are overwhelming our marketplaces. The List (1841) referred to the elimination of trade restrictions as "kicking away the ladder" to benefit developed nations. This can affect developing industries because they must compete in trade to keep up with developed industries. Therefore, developing economies must be safeguarded. The use of globalized media in international business transactions results in tax avoidance, as unmonitored transactions promote online fraud and money laundering, from which poor nations derive little advantage. Easy access to knowledge encourages the migration of highly educated individuals to industrialized countries, resulting in a labor force loss.

Most of our harvested resources are shipped to industrialized nations to be refined and manufactured into final products, after which they are sold back to us at a premium. The representative loses to Africa because "through globalization, rich nations might get economic benefits from less developed nations (Shin & SH, 2009). In the realm of politics, globalized media promotes good governance and social sustainability by relaying information from citizens to the government and from the government to the population. Free media and increased access to information have a greater effect on reducing political risk in nations with high political risk than in countries with lower political risk. The availability of information enables citizens to hold the government accountable for promises made and for the proper use of funds. The vulnerable and the underprivileged in our community are afforded the opportunity to air their grievances through the globalized media to influence government policy in their favor. "Globalization undermines the national state, according

to these analysts, not only by limiting the resources under national control for molding economic and social results but also by diminishing the legitimacy and authority of government in the eyes of the public" (Berger, 2000). In the view of the African populace, the political system of government is riddled with inconsistencies. This has led to mistrust and the ongoing questioning of the authority of the African governments and their independence from Western state involvement, not to mention the frequent pleading for aid and support from Western nations, which is evidence of illegitimacy.

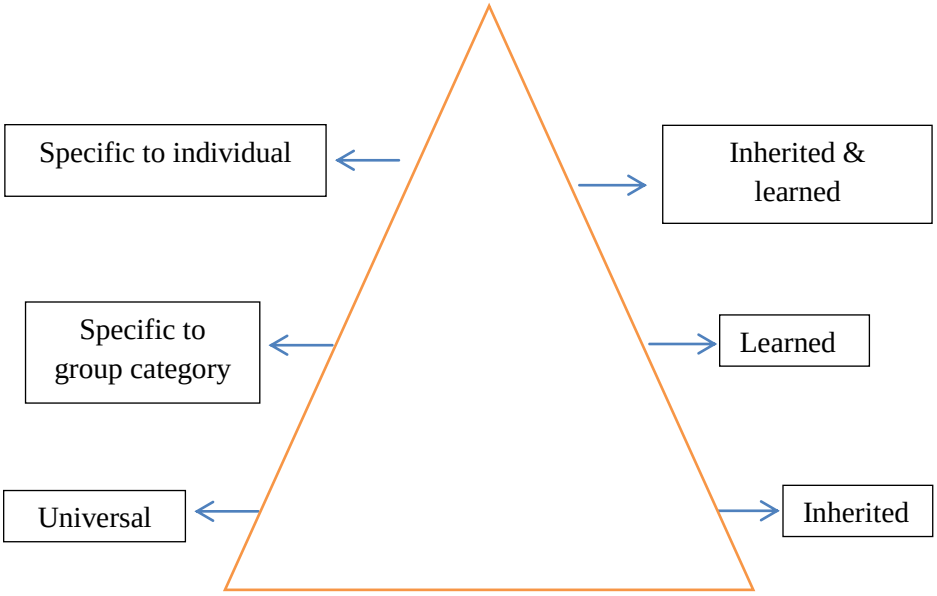
Civilization and Cultural Hybridization: Chang (1982, p. 365) defines civilization as "a Spatio-temporal continuum and a long-term dynamic structure; it is also a product of human evolution as well as a new phase in this evolution, in which cities form." This allows civilization and culture to be employed interchangeably, even though they are distinct concepts pursuing different goals. According to Wei (2011), there are more than four (4) situations of civilization, of which three (3) will be described: one in which religion is embodied, one in which religion imposes behavioral patterns, and one that typically develops in a complex economy alongside equally complex sciences and technologies. It is clear from this statement that globalization and civilization are interdependent. According to Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952, p. 145), civilization is derived from the verb 'civilizer,' which implies attaining or transmitting refined manners, urbanization, and development. In contrast, culture represents morality, but civilization is a symbol of love, honor, and external appropriateness, according to Kant (1977, p. 49). In the case of hybridization, the existence of any alien features that contradict the culture of the community indicates that hybridization occurs. Civilizational hybridization is the adoption of another civilization by one civilizational group (Wei, 2011). Similarly, to how the Germans accepted Christianity, the residents of Tamale city have adopted Islam as their religion.

The hybridization of cultures and civilizations is prevalent in the northern region of Ghana due to the influence of globalized media on diverse religious organizations (Kroeber, 1973, pp. 1-27). Talcott Parsons conceived of culture as a value-orientation system whose generalized symbols of action orientation resolved the problem of double contingency in social systems (Parsons & Shils, 1951). He describes culture as a factor that influences human behavior through "transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems," but contrasts this with a concept of the social system that focuses on "the specifically relational system of interaction between individuals and collectivities" (Talcott & Kroeber, 1958, p. 583). Talcott (1973) eventually reduced culture to a dichotomy between appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Nonetheless, he consistently maintained the possibility of referring to the cultural system as the component of behavior that is organized around symbols, ideas, and other "stable meaning patterns."Sociological system theory joins the sociological mainstream, which characterized culture as "a never-ending debate on the rightness of choice" (Douglas, 1989, p. 89). Their reasoning is founded on the notion that society is a dynamic system in which the determination of what is right and wrong is left to society. Regarding what is right and wrong, societies have various perspectives. Becker (1982) says that culture is a "shared understanding" that develops when everyone's point of view is related to how other people see the same situation.

Culture is the complex amalgamation of information, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other skills and practices acquired by a social being (Avruch, 1998, p. 6). "Culture is a nebulous set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures, and behavioral conventions shared by a group of people, which influence but do not dictate each member's behavior and interpretations of the "meaning" of other people's behavior (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 3). To understand the culture of a group or organization, it's important to distinguish between three basic ways that culture shows up: (a) observable artifacts, (b) values, and (c) basic assumptions. When one enters a culture or group, one observes and touches its artifacts. Before anything else, the physical layout of the organization or community must be observed. Some of these physical layouts are how people dress, how they talk to each other, the smell and feel of the place, how emotionally intense the place is, and other things (Schein, 1990, p. 111). The description of "how" a group produces its environment and "what" behavioral patterns are evident among its members, but the underlying logic of "why" a group behaves as it does is frequently not understood. Before studying how members of a specific group behave, it is necessary to examine the values that influence conduct. Nevertheless, while identifying such values, it is typically observed that they accurately represent only the public or professed ideals of a culture (Spencer-Oatey, 2012, p. 3).

To truly comprehend a culture and identify a group's values as they pertain to conduct, it is necessary to examine the group's underlying assumptions, which are often unconscious but which impact how group members see, think, and feel (Spencer-Oatey, 2012, p. 3). According to Spencer-Oatey (2012), culture is not inherited; rather, it is acquired. He went on to explain that culture is a product of a person's social environment, not their genes, whereas human nature is universally inherited. On the one hand, culture is not the same as human nature, and on the other, it is not the same as a person's personality. Human nature is the universal level of a person's inherited mental software, which is encoded in their DNA. This level of mental programming includes the human capacity to experience fear, anger, love, joy, and sadness; the need to interact with others; to play and exercise; and the ability to perceive the environment and discuss it with other humans. Spencer-Oatey (2012) notes that culture modifies what a person does with these emotions.

Figure 1: Three Levels of Uniqueness in Human Mental Programming



Source: (Hofstede, 1994, p. 6).

Personality, on the other hand, is an individual's unique set of mental programming that he or she does not share with any other human being (Spencer-Oatey, 2012, p. 6). He then contends that cultural features are partially inherited through an individual's unique set of genes and partially acquired through experience. This situation shows how to change the effects of both collective programming (culture) and a single personal experience (the singular personal experience).

The Dynamic Culture of the North: As it is, society transforms its cultural states without understanding what it is doing. Culture must be memorized and managed as it is practiced by society's members. If it has not been dealt with, culture will not exist. Culture is also growing restless. It begins to question its tradition to acknowledge the selective nature of its memory and the failure of its control. Contemporary culture comprises self-doubt (Geertz, 1973; MacCannell & MacCannell, 1982). This means that it is easily influenced by cultures that appear to be more powerful, superior, and capable than it. Losing its context, culture is losing its meaning. As modern technology spreads around the world, culture is becoming more "modern."Current observations indicate that cultural traditions are transforming as a result of modern technologies. Language, dress, religion, food, and ceremonies (such as funerals, namings, and weddings) are all transforming their original forms into modern culture. In addition, several cultural traditions that are viewed as negative and evil in some civilizations are currently being modified.

Some cultural practices, like widowhood rights and female genital mutilation (FGM), are now seen as old-fashioned in some countries, like the northern region of Ghana, where they were once common. The Upper East, Upper West, and Northern regions are administrative divisions that have developed over time in the

northern portion of Ghana. During the colonial period, however, they were managed as portions of the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast, with their headquarters in Tamale. After Ghana's independence, Bolgatanga became the capital of the Upper Region. In the 1980s, the Upper Region was divided into the Upper Region and the Upper West Region, which was its capital. The remaining eastern portion of the upper regions is now known as the Upper East Region. The northern region of Ghana is inhabited by numerous people who speak a range of languages that can be categorized as branches of the Gur family of Niger-Congo languages. Gonja, Nawuri, Nchumburung, Dagomba, Mamprusi, Nanumba, Konkomba, Bimoba, Basare, Anufo, and others make up the Northern Region. Frafra, Kusasi, Builsa, Kasena, and others make up the Upper East region. Dagaba, Wala, Sisala, and Vagala, among others, make up the Upper West region.

A Comparative Analysis of the Three Northern Ethnic Groups: The Dagomba, Frafra, and Wala ethnic groups primarily represent the three northern regions that are the focus of this research. They share sufficient similarities to be considered a unit. Although a wide number of languages are spoken, the majority of them belong to one or more branches of the Gur language family, and almost all groups are patrilineal. Some of the areas in the three northern regions have traditionally been ruled by centralized kingdoms. Responsible for the soil, the institution of the earth priest is nearly universal. People typically reside in widely spaced communities. The three ethnic groups employ facial tribal marks as a means of identification to distinguish one tribe from another within a civilization. Nevertheless, tribal insignia vary from one ethnic group to the next. The Northern region (Dagombas) is primarily Islamic, whereas the majority of the Upper West (Walas) are Christians, particularly Catholic, and the Upper East (Frafras) are fiercely traditionalists with an emphasis on ancestor cults. Nevertheless, Christians and even Muslims tend to incorporate ancient beliefs and customs into their social life. These territories are home to the ethnic groups of Dagomba, Wala, and Frafra, respectively. In the days of their ancestors, marriage was a prevalent cultural norm among ethnic groups.

In the cultures of the three ethnic groups, polygamy is extremely prevalent, with many males having numerous wives. The bride's wealth is prevalent; the family of the groom pays a price, which is the bride's wealth, to the family of the bride. The necessary expenditure differs among ethnic groups based on their respective cultural values. A married couple will live together, with the wife moving into the husband's father's property. The pair resides with the groom's parents if the groom has no home of his own and his father is still alive. Historically, the majority of the population is farmers who rely heavily on rainfall to produce their property. A few of the individuals who live near man-made or natural water features have the ability to irrigate their land. The three regions have the same extended dry season and brief wet season. According to 2006 UNFPA studies, the languages of the Frafra (Gurene) and Wala (Wali) are closely related and comparable (Kropp-Dakubu, 1988). In many instances, the official name for the language and the ethnonym are closely connected. Nevertheless, these are not always the labels that people use to refer to themselves as an ethnic group or their language. Although linguistic resemblance does not necessarily imply mutual understanding, it may be feasible to some degree.

Unfortunately, there is no native language that can be seen as a lingua franca for the whole north, not even on a regional scale. (UNFPA 5th Country program). In the Upper East, Upper West, and Northern regions, chiefs or elders frequently lead the communities. Chiefs are prominent in the communities of the Dagombas, Mamprusis, and Gonjas, but less so in the Upper West and Upper East. In the northern region of Ghana, this individual is typically male, but there are a few female chiefs among the Dagomba and Mamprusi. Chiefs are selected from a pool of eligible Prince Candidates. Once elected, they hold the position for life. According to these assessments, northern Ghana is not exceptional. Much like their languages, the cultures in this region of Ghana are distinct but interconnected. The influence of foreign cultures is evident in their current way of dressing, the food they eat, religion, tradition, business practices, and other sociopolitical activities. In terms of the acceptance of global ideology in production, movies and music productions are also covered. In spite of the fact that their traditional dances are depicted in diverse ethnic communities, they are only performed on significant occasions such as marriage rites, festivals, and other formal celebrations. The uniqueness of the dances is lost when different dance styles are mixed in, which happens when people watch a lot of globalized media that shows different kinds of dance from around the world.

3. Methodology

In this phase, the target populations for the study are the Dagomba, Frafra, and Wala ethnic groups. For the study, a sample of ninety (90) respondents was recruited from each of the three ethnic groups using primarily purposive and snowball sampling procedures, targeting primarily individuals who are at least eighteen (18) years old and have a fundamental cultural orientation. The sample size was determined by the availability of time and resources, but its representativeness was not compromised. The following describes the distribution of the sample size between ethnic groups: Dagomba=30, Frafra=30, Wala=3. For the study's data gathering, both primary and secondary data collection methods were utilized. Primary data is the raw, unprocessed, or unaltered information extracted directly from the study area. Consequently, the snowball system of data gathering was utilized to identify all population members belonging to the same ethnic group. Thus, one individual assisted in the identification of another individual from the same ethnic group. The Dagomba individual assisted in identifying the second Dagomba individual until all data was obtained. During data collection, this format was used to describe the different ethnic groups. Primary data was collected from the study area about age distribution, ethnicity, religion, educational level, access to globalized media, media use and its influence on Northern culture, and media type.

A mixed research analytical method is the application of qualitative and quantitative research methods to the analysis of research activity. This was employed for all the specified purposes, when necessary, but the quantitative research design, which takes the form of a closed-ended or open-ended questionnaire, was used to collect the majority of the data. A qualitative research design tries to investigate a case study in the textual sense, with images, videos, and audiovisuals playing a significant role in enhancing the comprehension of a research project. Here, content analysis is utilized to examine the visuals collected from the study region, which serve as evidence of the alterations in the cultural orientation of the people of Northern Ghana. Content analysis is a research technique for examining documents and communication artifacts, such as texts in a variety of formats, images, audio, and video. Quantitative research design takes into account the numerical or figurative aspects of an object of studies, such as the population, the number of people affected by the study, and the number of unaffected people. The acquired metaphorical data was interpreted using SPSS, which is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. This is used to analyze the questionnaire's obtained data. Frequencies, cross-tabulation, and the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance of Ranking were used to examine the data.

4. Discussions of Results and Findings

This paper's discussion will be guided by the following set of questions: What globalized media are available? What is the rate at which globalized media affects cultural orientation? What are the specific changes in the cultural orientation due to globalized media? What are the effects of globalized media on the historical values of the culture?

Profile of Study Area: Tamale metropolis is the subject of the investigation. It is the capital of Ghana's Northern Region. Northern Region is the country's largest region, having a total population of people from all regions of Ghana. As a result, Tamale is a cosmopolitan metropolis where ethnic groups such as Dagomba, Frafra, and Wala can be accessed. Tamale metropolis has a total population of 371,351 people, with 185,995 males and 185,356 females throughout all age categories as of 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). Service and sales personnel account for 33.0 % of the employed population in Tamale, followed by a craft and allied dealers (21.5 %), and skilled Agricultural, Forestry, and Fishery workers (17.6 %). Professional employees account for only 8.1 % of the Tamale metropolis' employed population. In terms of the population with access to information, communication, and technology, 53.7 % are aged 12 and up. Males outnumber females in terms of mobile phone ownership, with 55.5 % and 44.4 %, respectively.

Only roughly 7.4 % of the population aged 12 and up use internet services in the city, while 9.5 % of total homes own desktop/laptop computers. Recently, the metropolis has seen an increase in media exercises, for example, FM radio stations have increased from three (3) to eight (8), and television stations have increased from one (1) to five (5). (5). In terms of religious group distributions, Islam reigns supreme in Tamale, followed by Christianity, Spirituality, and African Traditional faiths. Dagombas make up the majority of the

population, but other ethnic groups such as Gonjas, Mamprusis, Akan, and Dagaabas also live in the city. Tamale metropolis is considered cosmopolitan since it houses individuals from all over the country and the world. People from the Upper East and Upper West regions, as well as others, are examples of people who live in Tamale (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

Demographic Characteristics: This analysis considers individuals of the Dagomba, Wala, and Frafra ethnic groups from ages 18 and above, their sex, educational level, marital status and religion. The table below shows the sample population distribution of the respondents.

Age Distribution: Of the sample population in Table 1 below, the ages ranging from 26 to 35 are the highest, followed by 18 to 25, then 36 to 55, then 56 and above as the least population among the sample under study.

Educational Background: From the figures, the educational level of the respondents is very impressive as 38.9% represent respondents who are in or have attained tertiary education which is the highest figure. 35.6% of respondents have gained secondary education, 17.8% achieved the junior level of education and 4.4% attained the primary level of education. About 3.3% represent the populations who have not attained any level of formal education.

Ethnicity and Sex: The fact that the total population sample for each ethnic group under study has been achieved means that, indeed Tamale metropolis is a cosmopolitan area. The data collected shows 33.3% each for Dagomba, Frafra, and Wala ethnic groups. The male population sample has the highest number of 51 than the female population sample of 39. It is seen that; the males are dominant in number in the population sample collected which corresponds to the 2010 population census of Ghana's population of males and females in the Tamale metropolis.

Religious Background: The Northern region of Ghana is said to be an Islamic-dominated region which reflects in the sample population obtained from the respondents about their religious background. The largest proportion of the religious background of the respondents is the Muslims with 54%, followed by Christians with 32%, then the Traditionalists with 4%. Islamic religion and Christianity have taken over the Traditional religion of the Northern people of Ghana which forms a part of their culture. This change has led to a drastic decrease in the tradition of the people thereby affecting their culture. According to a cross-tabulation analysis of this study, seventeen (17) of the 30-sample population of the Frafra ethnic group are Christians, 24 of the 30-sample population of Dagomba ethnicity are Muslims and eighteen (18) of the 30 population of the Wala ethnic group are Muslims. This somehow contradicts the result of the UNFPA 5th Country program. Currently, the Islamic religion has taken over the Traditional religious hold in the Wala territory as it has done with the Dagomba ethnic territory. The presence of Wei's (2011) Civilizational hybridization is seen through the distribution of religious groups wiping away the African Traditional religion if not absolutely.

Marital Status: Not everybody in the Tamale metropolis is married, the results prove that 55.6% of the respondents are single, 33.3% are married and 1.1% are divorced. This also means that it is not entirely true that people from the northern part of Ghana get married very early in terms of age. The data collected focused on respondents of ages ranging from 18 years and above who are of age to get married but most are still unmarried. Though the number of divorces is just one (1), it shows that divorce can be seen anywhere even in the northern part of Ghana whether male or female. These results are evident in the table below.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Dagomba	Frafra	Wala	Total
Ages				
18-25	11	13	9	33
26-35	17	11	15	43
36-55	2	5	5	12
56 and above	0	1	1	2
Sex				
Male	13	20	18	51

Female	17	10	12	39
Religion				
Christianity	6	17	9	32
Islamic	24	12	18	54
African Tradition	0	1	3	4
Educational level				
None	0	0	3	3
Primary	1	1	2	4
J.H.S	3	6	7	16
S.H.S	13	11	8	32
Tertiary	13	12	10	35
Marital Status				
Single	17	18	15	50
Married	12	12	15	39
Divorced	1	0	0	1

Source: Field survey, 2018.

Analysis of Globalized Media on Northern Cultures: The data collected on the media available shows five media devices of which all respondents have at least one media device. About 64.4% have access to more than one media according to the research results. Out of Ninety (90) respondents, 58.9% have access to Television and 41.1% do not have Television. There are 50:50 %ages of those who have and do not have Radio. According to interviews made with Radio ABC and 123 in Tamale, both local and English language programs are held respectively. Although they are under one administration the programs held are different from each other. The station does not have any means of measuring its audiences but believes that most of the population in Tamale are patriotic listeners. Programs such as Women empowerment, social and human development, as well as programs to help listeners to reflect on their historical background are under taken to educate the population in Tamale metropolis. Bilchimsi Saha (Time with our ancestors), Goonji (Xylophone) and Lungsi (Drummer) are some of the Local programs to lead the minds of the people back to history. This is in reference to what Ohiagu (2010) meant in his words that media can be used to propagate the culture of specific people to maintain beliefs and traditions. Radio Tamale was not left out of the interview, this radio is more like a British radio which targets only the elites in the Tamale metropolis. It is fully run in English, unlike Radio 123 and ABC. They address social, political and economic issues.

Both radio stations do advertisements for various items and food joints. Media is used as a means for commercialism; being paid to advertise products and selling out business ideas through radio discussions as Radio Tamale does. The radio stations also promote both foreign and local music but above all, foreign music takes over the local music since it is played more to the public. 33.3% of the respondents have access to computers/laptops and 66.7% do not have access to computers/laptops. 88.9% have mobile phones whiles 11.1% do not have mobile phones. In line with Coyle's (2004) analysis of mobile phone users in Western countries compared to Africa, 'there are a similar proportion of mobile-only users but are not sensibly comparable countries". The results prove that there still are people who do not have mobile phones in this advanced world of interconnectedness. Satellite usage has the least of respondents who have 21.1% and 71% proportion of users and non-users respectively. The satellite enables people to get access to almost all television stations not excluding the foreign ones as well. The proportion of satellite users means that just a few have become aware of its ability in the Tamale metropolis. Among all the media devices used mobile phones have the greatest proportion of respondents who use it followed by Television, Radio then computers/laptops and satellite**.** The table below shows the media access, the specific media access, frequencies and their %ages available to the respondents in the Tamale metropolis.

Table 2: Media Availability and Accessibility

Media devices	Frequencies	%ages%
T.V	54	60
None	36	40
Total	90	100
Radio	45	50
None	45	50
Total	90	100
Computer	30	33.3
None	60	66.7
Total	90	100
Mobile phone	80	88.9
None	10	11.1
Total	90	100
Satellite	19	21.1
None	71	78.9
Total	90	100

Source: Field survey, 2018.

Analysis of the Effects of Globalized Media on Cultural Orientation: This section analyses respondents' internet access, what purposes the internet is used for, accessibility to Television, the days and regularity of watching Television and ranking T.V stations according to the frequency of the programs shown, the specific programs patronized by the respondents, and the specific changes seen in the lives of the respondents according to the programs they watch. The data collected from the survey shows that 85.6% of the respondents have access to internet services which they use for their various and personal activities. The use of the internet service varies according to the personal needs of the respondents. The results from table 2 show that the respondent use the media device for at least one of the purposes stated. It can be seen that most respondents engage the internet service for research purposes resulting in 41.1% followed by the educational purpose of 37.8, then by Entertainment and News with equal %ages of 40% each. The proportions for socialization and sports are 25.6% and 24.4% respectively. The least proportion of internet usage is for fashion at 14.4%.

The media is used as a means to satisfy the hunger for a particular purpose. The respondents have access to and use the various media devices available to them for education, to keep them updated on current issues as well as entertain them when bored. In terms of surfing the internet, 44.4% of respondents are regular surfers, 17.8% of respondents are irregular, 15.5% are very regular and 8.9% are irregular surfers of the internet. Only 13.3% do not have access to the internet, therefore, are non-surfers of the internet. The regularity of internet surfers is far greater than the irregularity of internet surfers as the survey has identified. This implies that almost all the time, most people surf the internet. A greater number of people can be influenced through the use of internet service and they in turn influence the less population who do not surf the internet; this contributes to the principle of domination. Whereby Africans are influenced by dominant cultures due to greater consumption of foreign principles through the frequent use of media (Abayam, 2013). The table below shows the distribution of internet access and what it is used for by the respondents.

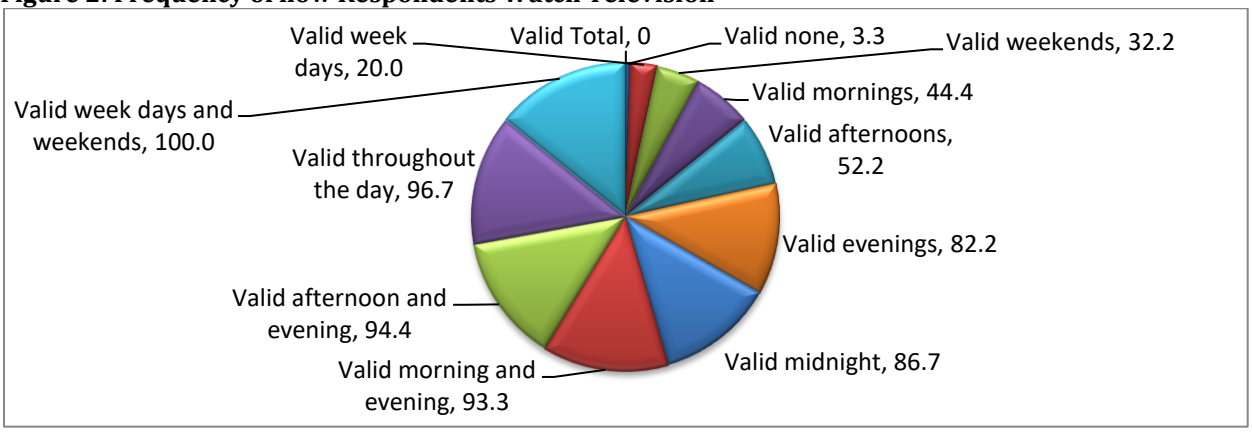
Table 3: Uses of the Internet Service

	Frequency	%
Internet use for Education		
No	56	62.2
Yes	34	37.8
Total	90	100
Internet use for Fashion		
No	77	86.6
Yes	13	14.4
Total	90	100
Internet use for Socialization		
No	67	74.4
Yes	23	25.6
Total	90	100
Internet use for Entertainment		
No	54	60
Yes	36	40
Total	90	100
Internet use for Sports		
No	68	75.6
Yes	22	24.4
Total	90	100
Internet use for Research		
No	53	58.9
Yes	37	41.1
Total	90	100
Internet use for News		
No	54	60
Yes	36	40
Total	90	100

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Access to the Regularity of Watching Television: About 96.7% of the respondents have access to Television. Accessibility does not only mean the possession of something but the ability to also use something though it might not belong to the individual. As said earlier, 60% of the respondents possess television but now, 96.7% of the respondents have access to the Television. This implies that, the inability to purchase Television is not a hindrance to watching television programs. Sixty % (60%) possess and use Television, 36.7% do not possess but use television, and 3.3% do not possess and do not use Television. This analysis is based on the cross-tabulation analysis of respondents who possess Television and those who have access to or use Television. In all, 54.4% of the respondents watch Television daily, 24.4% watch it weekly, 17.8% watch it every fortnight and 3.3% have no pattern of watching Television since they are non-users. Figure 2 below shows the distribution of how frequently the respondents watch Television. Television is one of the advanced traditional media used as a means for globalization; hence contributes to making the world a global village. Television was used as the main tool of analysis because the majority of the Ghanaian populace have it in their homes even on phones and at workplaces. It is seen that; television stations have something to show all the time which influences the respondents to keep up with their Television programs even at dawn. Most respondents often watch Television in the Evenings which has the highest proportion of 27 respondents.

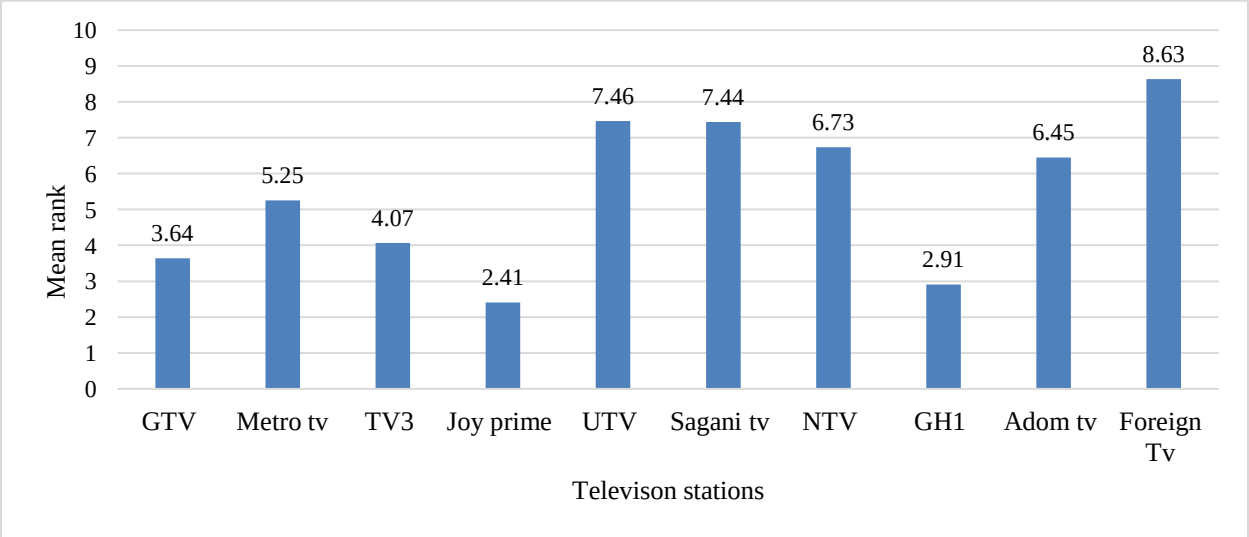
Figure 2: Frequency of how Respondents Watch Television



Source: Field survey, 2018.

Ranking Television Stations According to Preference of Films Shown: Respondents were allowed to rate ten Television stations according to the programs they preferred from one (1) which is the highest to ten (10) the lowest rank. To determine the level of agreement in regards to the most preferred Television station for foreign programs, the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance was employed. The results revealed Kendall's W=0.51, which is the level of agreement of respondents though not up to the highest expectation but very significant. The first three (3) positions of the results included Joy Prime with a mean of 2.41, GH1 with a mean of 2.91 and GTV with a mean of 3.64. These results show that G.T.V, 'the station for the nation' is rather promoting foreign ideologies through showing foreign programs (Abayam, 2013) stated that "the reality is that, Africa is lagging in accelerating appropriate indigenous scientific knowledge to solve their problem". G.T.V is the station for the Ghanaian nation which sees to the propagation of the Ghanaian culture and affairs but has diverted its focus and responsibility for the nation by spreading foreign principles through its programs showed. The Bar chart below displays the ranks of Television stations in terms of foreign films shown.

Figure 3: Ranking of Television Stations Available in Relation to Foreign Programs Showed

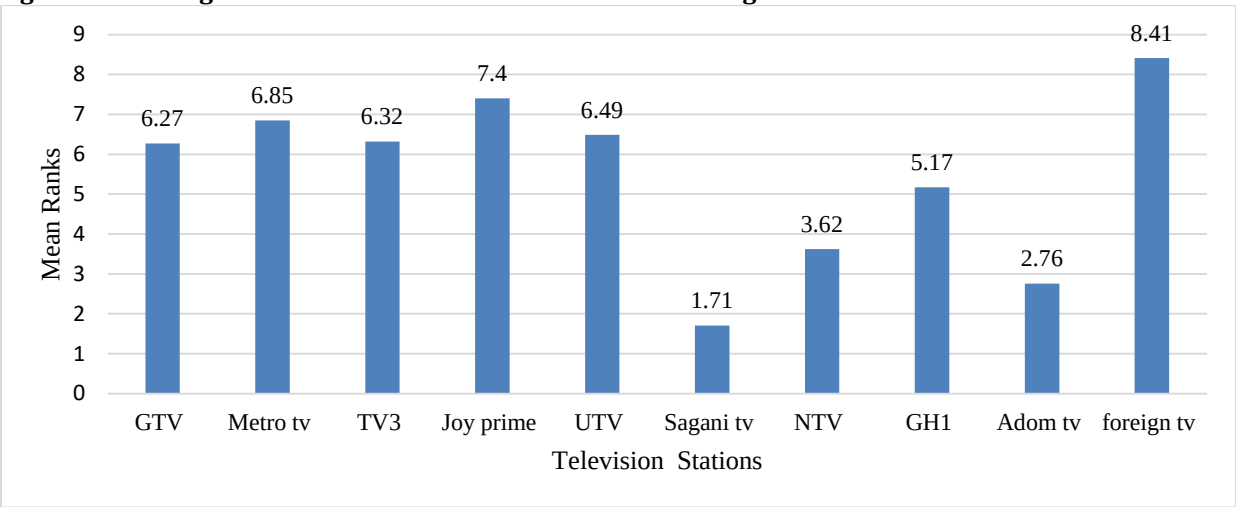


Source: Field survey, 2018.

The same Television stations with respect to local films showed present Sagani T.V with the highest mean rank of 1.71. As the name portrays the locality of the station so are their programs shown. The same applies to Adom T.V which means Grace T.V in the Akan language; the station is second in the ranking of the most shown and loved Television stations for local films with a mean of 2.76, N.T.V in the third place with a mean

of 3.62. The station for the nation G.T.V takes the fifth position with a mean of 6.27 as the Television station has prioritized foreign films over local films. With regards to the significant agreement of these results, Kendall's W=0.51 helps to know that, the level of agreement of respondents is relevant. The figure below shows the mean ranks for Television stations in respect of Local programs showed.

Figure 4: Ranking Television Stations in Relation to Local Programs Showed



Source: Field survey, 2018.

A proportion of 42.2% of respondents watches Telenovelas, 28.9% watch foreign news, 23.3% watch action movies, 18.9% watch music videos, 8.9% watch documentaries and 7.8% watch reality shows. This shows how most respondents patronize foreign movies especially Telenovelas than their local films. If watching violent entertainment can cause an increase in the aggression of those who watch then (Denga, 1983; & Nnachi, 2003), these programs can affect somehow the behavior of the individuals who watch them frequently either positively or negatively. This is because, the media shapes a person's way of thinking with respect to the information shared (Bray, 2007). As said earlier, what is seen or heard for even the first time can influence the behavior or attitude of a person. These programs affect a proportion of 65.6% of respondents' attitudes towards social issues. Social issues such as gender equality, tribal marks, women empowerment and others make the society worth living in, this is a positive influence of media on the culture of the Northern people of Ghana. There has been 23.3% influence on the dressing mode of respondents, 20% influence on relationships with friends and 14.4% changes in the family relationship. This shows how some people of Northern Ghana have embraced the modern style of dressing in this 21st century. The Figure reveals how indecent the lady on the motorbike is dressed revealing her green underwear. This is in accordance with the research findings that 23.3% of respondents are affected in terms of dressing due to the media programs they view.

Figure 5: Showing the Negative Effect on the Mode of Dressing

Source: Field survey Tamale metropolis, 2018.

Analysis of Specific Changes in Cultural Orientation of the Study Groups as a Result of Access Globalized Media: This section analyses the changes within various elements of the Northern culture of Ghana as well as the level of changes. The results from table 3 show that there have been greater changes in most of the various elements of culture with proportions of 94.4% on respect for elders, 92.2% each on marriage ceremonies and mode of dressing, 87.9% on gender issues, 82.2% on family meetings, 77.8% naming ceremony, 75.6% on festivals, 66.7% on funeral rites, and 40% changes on enskinning chiefs. Considering the proportions on the various elements of culture, Enskinment of Chiefs has experienced not up to 50% changes. This means that the people of the northern part of Ghana are doing well to protect their culture in terms of Enskinning chiefs. In Ghanaian society respect for elders is a very important aspect of culture, the presence of media has led to a drastic change in the respect the society has for elders. Also, the mode of dressing in the northern part of Ghana helps to identify their culture but here is the case that their mode of dressing has been greatly influenced by the presence of media and the products consumed. The table below shows the frequency and %ages of the impact of media on the various elements of culture.

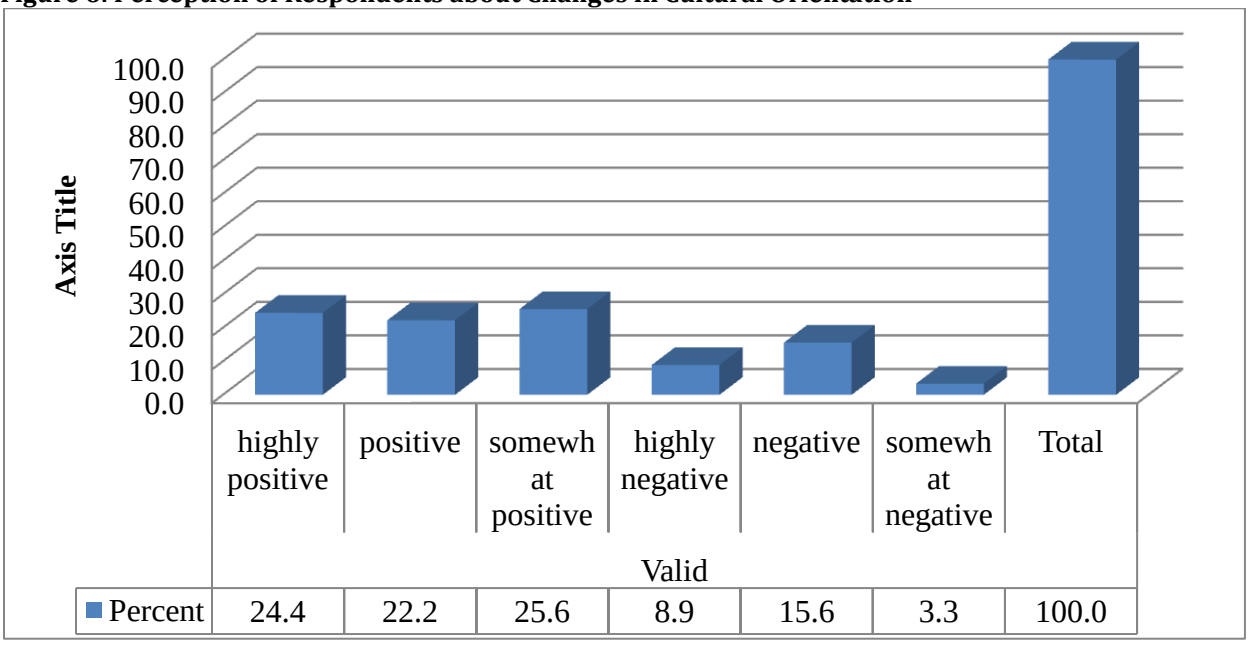
Table 1: Specific Changes within Northern Culture

	Frequency	%
Festivals		
Yes	68	75.6
No	22	24.4
Total	90	100
Marriage Ceremonies		
Yes	83	92.2
No	7	7.8
Total	90	100
Family Meetings		
Yes	74	82.2
No	16	17.8
Total	90	100
Naming Ceremonies		
Yes	70	77.8
No	20	22.2
Total	90	100
Funeral Rites		
Yes	60	66.7
No	30	33.3
Total	90	100
Enskinning Chiefs		
Yes	36	40
No	54	60
Total	90	100
Respect for Elders		
Yes	85	94.4
No	5	5.6
Total	90	100
Gender Issues		
Yes	79	87.8
No	11	12.2
Total	90	100

Source: Field survey, 2018.

In rating the level of influence, the figure below displays the highest %age to be 25.6% translated as a somewhat positive influence of the changes in the elements of the Northern culture. Somewhat positive change means that, though the change is positive, there is a pinch of negativity in the changes which reflect in the attitudes towards social issues and mode of dressing as gathered from the study.

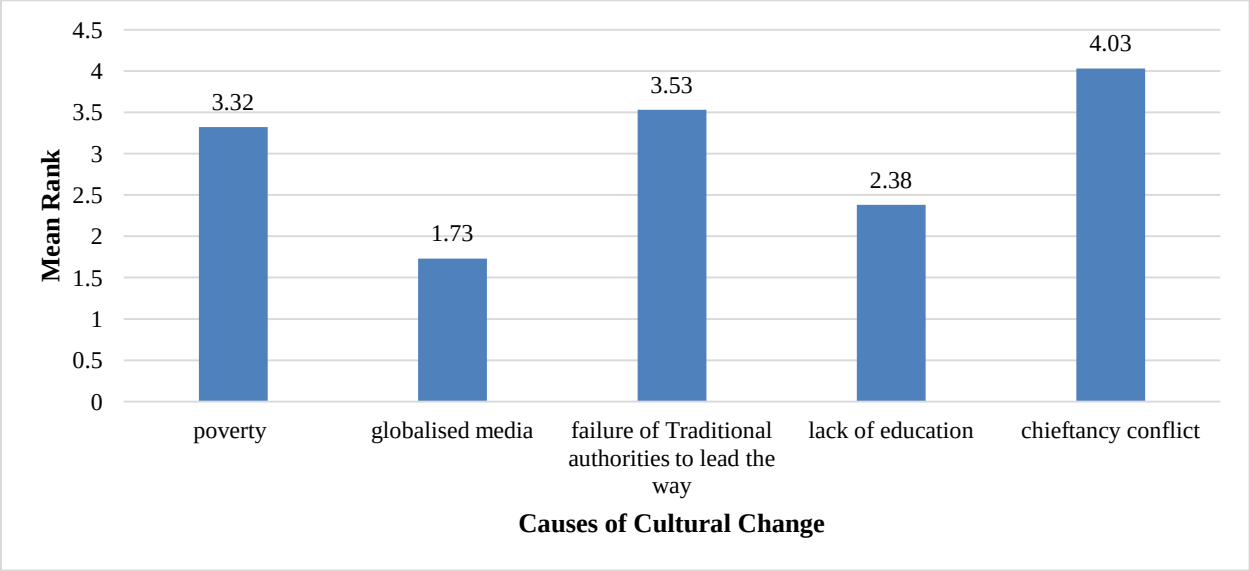
Figure 6: Perception of Respondents about Changes in Cultural Orientation



Source: Field survey, 2018.

Analysis of Impact of Globalized Media on the Historical Values of Culture: This section analyses how the present culture reflects the historical values of culture and the causes for it not reflecting the historical value of culture. According to the findings of the research, festivals, naming ceremonies, and funeral rites of today's culture reflect the historical values of culture with proportions of 52.2%, 58.9% and 51.1% respectively but the Enskinning of Chiefs does not reflect even up to 50% of the historical value of culture as it possesses the proportion of 46.7% of reflecting historical values of culture though it has not up to 50% changes. In a Kendall Coefficient of concordance, the causes of changes in the culture of northern Ghana in the Tamale metropolis have suggested that media is the main cause of the changes in cultural orientation with a mean of 1.73, followed by lack of education with a mean of 2.38, poverty with a mean of 3.32, then by the failure of traditional authorities to lead the way with a mean of 3.53 and finally by chieftaincy conflict with a mean of 4.03. Though the level of agreement is below average with a coefficient of W=0.38, it is quite relevant for this study. Media is a very strong instrument when used either for positive or negative reasons. It is responsible for shaping the mindsets of people as said by Santos (2001) that, "some believe that this will contribute to a one-way transmission of ideas and values that result in the displacement of indigenous cultures". Media influences cause people to draw their assumptions and conclusions affecting their attitude towards situations. The figure below shows the causes of changes in the cultural orientation of Northern culture in Ghana.

Figure 7: Causes of Changes in Northern Cultural Orientation of Ghana



Source: Field survey: 2018.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The main idea behind this study is to analyze the effects of Globalized media on the Northern culture of Ghana; basically, the Dagomba, Wala and Frafra ethnic groups; in a case study in the Tamale metropolis. Quantitative and Qualitative research methods were used to collect data suitable for the analysis. Though there were various limitations in the collection of data, they were well catered for and will not affect the validity of the results in any way. A sample population of Ninety (90) was selected with thirty each affiliated with the ethnic groups. 51 are males and 39 are females. 32 are Christians, 54 are Muslims and 4 are Traditionalists. This proves the dominancy of the Islamic religion in the Tamale metropolis. Five media were selected which included, Television, Radio, Computer, Mobile phone and satellite, at least one was used by the respondents. Also, about 64.4% of the respondents have access to more than one media. The proportions of respondents in use of the various media stated were 58.9%, 50%, 33.3%, 88.9% and 21.1% respectively, showing that mobile phone usage is very wide in the Tamale metropolis. Radio ABC is responsible for reminding the people of the Tamale metropolis of their historical backgrounds through radio programs such as Bilchimsi Saha (time with our ancestors). Also, both Radio Tamale and Radio ABC use the radio as a means for commercialism as they advertise products and functions of foreign ideologies for money.

In the use of the internet, 85.6% of the respondents have access to internet services. 41.1% use the internet service for Research purposes, 40% use it for News, 37.8% for Education, 14.4% for Fashion, 25.6% for Socialization, 40% for Entertainment and 24.4 use the internet service for Sports purposes. In reference to respondents' regularity of internet surfing, proportions of 8.9% and 17.8% are very irregular and irregular surfers respectively whiles proportions of 44.4% and 15.5% are regular and very regular surfers respectively. In terms of Television accessibility, almost all the respondents have access (thus; ownership and usage) to it. Proportions of 60% own and use Television, 36.7% do not have but use Television, and 3.3% do not have or use it. A proportion of 54.4% watch Television daily, 24.4% watch it weekly and 17. 8% watch it every fortnight. In ranking the Television stations in and outside Ghana according to the programs they show using Kendall's Coefficient of concordance, Joy prime T.V station came out in the first place with an average of 2.41, followed by GH One with an average of 2.91 then G.T.V with an average of 3.64 with an agreement of W=0.51. The same ranking analyses were done for the same Television stations in terms of Local programs shown but now the table turned and G.T.V (the station for the nation) came out in a fifth place with a mean of 6.27, whiles Sagani T.V came out as first with a mean of 1.71. The level of significant agreement is W=0.51. The

programs watched by respondents as their favorite are Telenovelas, Action Movies, Foreign news, Documentaries, Reality shows, and Music videos.

These earned proportions of 42.2%, 23.3%, 28.9%, 8.9%, 7.8% and 18.9% respectively. In all Telenovela came out as the first and the most viewed program in the Tamale metropolis. These programs in one way or the other affect the lives of the respondents in terms of dressing, relationships with their family, relationships with friends as well as attitude towards social issues. A proportion of 23.3% of respondents are affected by their mode of dressing, 14.4% are influenced by their relationship with family members, 20% are affected by their relationship with friends, and 65.6% are influenced by their attitudes towards social issues. These have special effects on culture and its elements such as Festivals, Marriage ceremonies, Family meetings, Naming ceremonies, Funeral rites, Enskinning the Chiefs, Respect for elders, and Gender issues. The changes are in proportions according to the view of respondents. In reference to the elements of culture stated are proportions of 75.6%, 92.2%, 82.2%, 77.8%, 66.7%, 40%, 94.4%, and 87.8% of the changes respectively. There was one element that was listed by a respondent to have also experienced some form of change. This element is the Inheritance system in the Northern part of Ghana. These changes according to the perception of the respondents have a somewhat positive influence on their cultural orientation with a greater proportion of 25.6%. If there have been changes in the elements of culture, there might be the possibility of it not reflecting the historical values of culture. According to the results, the Enskinment of Chiefs does not reflect the historical value of northern culture though it has a less proportion of change.

With respect to Festivals, there is a proportion of 52.2% reflecting the historical value of culture, Naming ceremonies have a proportion of 58.9% reflection of historical value and Funeral rites with 51.1% reflection of historical value but Enskinment of Chiefs has a proportion of 46.7% of reflection of the historical value of culture. Five elements were listed for the cause of these various changes in culture to be ranked from 1 to 5 by the respondents. The results show that Media is the major cause of change in the culture of Northern Ghana with a mean of 1.73, followed by Lack of Education with a mean of 2.38, Poverty with 3.32, Failure of Traditional authorities to lead the way with a mean of 3.53 and Chieftaincy conflict being the least influencer of change with a mean of 4.3. These were done by using the Kendal Coefficient of concordance with W=0.38. In conclusion, the results prove that the presence of globalized media has caused a lot of changes in the culture of the Northern part of Ghana, affecting every part of their lives. It is also known that; civilization and globalization are partners in making the world a global village as they use globalized media to propagate their objectives. The results give a somewhat positive influence of globalized media on the northern culture of Ghana but a somewhat positive denotes the presence of a negative effect on the northern culture of Ghana. These could be seen in the changes in their attitude towards social issues with a proportion of 65.6% and mode of dressing with a proportion of 23.3% as positive and negative influences respectively.

Recommendations: Based on the survey conducted and the results arrived at in this study, the following recommendations are made for guiding and promoting the Northern culture of Ghana. The recommendations are according to the specific objectives of this study. These are;

- The accessibility and availability of globalized media which is of a higher proportion among the people of the Northern cultures should be taken advantage of as a means to educate users on local cultures which will also be a form of preservation of culture for generations to come.
- Secondly, with respect to specific objective two (2), the already drafted bill which indicates that media content of radio and television stations should have programs of which 50% are of Ghanaian ideologies, should be passed on as a policy to monitor and regulate media contents in Ghana, especially the Northern part of Ghana. This is to remind Television and Radio stations especially, GTV of their responsibility to Ghanaians and to also reduce the effect of false cultures which have invaded the northern part of Ghana and Ghana herself.
- Thirdly, since media has a positive influence on the attitude towards social issues of the people of the North, it is very right to be used as a means to promote more social programs. This will help maintain order and prevent ignorance of serious social issues in the regions and the country as a whole.
- Finally, to foster historical values of the culture in the regions, globalized media houses should hold programs that will enable the Northern people and Ghana as a whole to reflect on the historical values of their cultures in order not to depart from them. This is to give credit to Radio ABC and 123

in Tamale, to keep up with their programs meant to bring the minds of the people in Tamale on their history concerning culture.

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Wastewater Management in Hanoi: The Possibility of Using a Soft Path Approach

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Abstract: Hanoi is known as the City of Lakes because there are some one hundred natural or manmade watercourses within its territory. However, in common with all of Vietnam, more than 60% of the city's water resources derive from beyond the country's borders. Much of that water is polluted, both within Hanoi and downstream because wastewater is discharged directly into the Nhue and Day rivers via the Nhat Tuu and Ba sewers, among other channels. International attempts to revive the To Lich River in the city, notorious for its black color and unwholesome smell, have proved to have only limited success. There is some scope for new materials to improve filtration effects and experiments in this area continue. Rapid urbanization in Hanoi has been intensified by the sudden decision to increase the city's size so that it became comparable to the southern capital of Ho Chi Minh City. This has led to large areas of industrial land being incorporated into municipal water management systems. One possible means of relieving the pressure on these systems would be to employ approaches derived from the soft path of water management. To date, most scientific investigation of these issues depends almost entirely on technocratic approaches to water management issues and the attempt to force technical solutions to deal with social issues. Consequently, this paper investigates the possibility of understanding how Hanoi residents interact with current wastewater management approaches and how their needs might be better met in the future.

Keywords: *Hanoi, sanitation, soft path approach, wastewater management.*

1. Introduction

Viet Nam has one of the fastest rates of urbanization in the world, with almost 43% of the country's population expected to be living in cities by 2030. The process of urbanization in Vietnam takes place very quickly. Consequently, major cities in Vietnam such as Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Hai Phong and Da Nang are facing the problem of heavily polluted water (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, 2017). In these cities, domestic wastewater is discharged directly into receiving sources (i.e., rivers, lakes, canals and ditches) daily (ARUP, 2017). Furthermore, many factories do not process wastewater to reach the required national technical standards on the environment, while many hospitals and health facilities do not have proper wastewater treatment systems (Ministry of Health, 2017). At present, the level of pollution in canals, rivers and lakes in the major cities is very heavy (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, 2017). Hanoi faces particular problems with respect to water management because of its intensive industries, its rapid urbanization that has not been accompanied by concomitant improvements in water management and the fact that, unlike other cities in Viet Nam, the majority of its water sources derive from beyond its borders. In particular, major rivers that pass through Chinese territory are liable to be dammed, often more than once.

This leads to decreased flow, negative impacts on ecological systems and the loss of sedimentation in lower reaches of the rivers and, hence, greater erosion, with further loss of livelihoods and ecological resources. These problems have tended to have greater impacts on more vulnerable members of society since they have less ability to deal with external shocks and fewer resources in resorting to market-based solutions. Research has indicated that buying bottled water is many times more expensive than having water piped into households (Daniere & Takahashi, 1999). The problems attendant on withholding water from urban communities have been amply demonstrated by the privatization of the water supply in South Africa. These and similar problems are not, of course, limited to Viet Nam. Thinking about water management from an internationalist perspective in the era of climate change led to the re-evaluation of the concept of integrated water resources management (IWRM), which resurfaced in the first decade of the century as a means of bringing about the Millennium Development Goals. IWRM has been defined by the Global Water Partnership (Global Water Partnership, 2006) as a process that promotes the coordinated development and management of water, land and related resources.

In order to maximize the resultant economic and social welfare equitably without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems. Odendaal (2002) explains that the purpose of IWRM is to find the right balance between protecting the water resource itself while meeting social and ecological needs and promoting economic development. This approach recognizes both the need for sustainability and awareness of the reality of economic development. It has some valency with Vietnamese thought, which emphasizes the country and its people being defined by the presence of water and its management – in common with the other countries of the Greater Mekong Subregion, Vietnamese agriculture relies upon wet paddy rice cultivation and, hence, the food security of the people depends on the ability to manage water as required. The Vietnamese term for the country, *dat Viet*, meaning both rivers and mountains, indicates the longstanding belief that there is an organic relationship between the Vietnamese people and the land and, hence, both a requirement for proper care of the land together with the ability and knowledge to do so. In addition to this, the Vietnamese Communist Party has adopted what for Marxist-Leninist movements is a standard Promethean approach that asserts humanity's mastery of nature and the right to make nature fit with the requirements of the people who live within it.

IWRM in this context, then, represents the ability of the Vietnamese people to manage water resources according to their own needs and in line with the government's stated developmental goals. In a parallel development in thinking about water management, Gleick (2002) introduced the concept of the soft path of such management, which 'seeks to improve the overall productivity of water use and deliver water services matched to the needs of end users, rather than seeking sources of new supply." It is helpful, in this case, to think of the needs of people and organizations rather than the means by which they may be achieved. People want to consume food and other products and take advantage of available services; historically, meeting these needs might have required the use of water (sometimes on a very intensive basis) but that need not be the case in the future. Various initiatives suggest alternative means of meeting these needs with greatly reduced use of water, although there are unavoidable lower limits to what can be achieved in this respect. Nevertheless, more can be achieved by an approach that "… complements [centralized technology and infrastructure] it with extensive investment in decentralized facilities, technologies and human capital (Wolff & Gleick, 2002)." In some ways, this approach is conversant with the Vietnamese government's embrace of the smart city concept.

Smart city development (SCD) began with the attempt to manage mobility flows through real-time analysis of big data sets but has subsequently evolved into a wide range of initiatives aimed at making the quality of life of citizens better (or at least maintaining the same level) while paying more attention to the needs of sustainability and the carbon footprint of the city as a whole. In Viet Nam, most cities have been encouraged to present a plan for their SCD according to local needs and capabilities. Following the usual Vietnamese model of development, individual cities draw up a plan for SCD with recognized targets and timelines and then submit these for approval by central authorities. Once approved, city authorities are expected to bring the plans to reality. Cities have generally created plans that match their strategic intentions – some emphasize tourism management, for example, while most plan to use facial recognition software for security purposes. It would be appropriate to include water management approaches in SCD, although there are no such provisions for this in the current iteration of the plan being used in Hanoi. The use of IWRM and the soft path for water development mean that, at least for some citizens, their receipt of water services will occupy the same conceptual space as the mundane interactions with the state that make up everyday politics. This concept aims to explain how everyday resistance to vertically imposed power can bring about large-scale political change.

Writing at first about the collapse of collectivist farming in northern Vietnam (and subsequently expanding the analysis in terms of both space and time), Kerkvliet (2005) observed: "Persistent struggles over labor, land, harvests, draft animals, fertilizer, and other resources contributed significantly to the collapse of collective farming. Even more striking, the struggles were rarely open and organized. They manifested themselves instead in the way people lived, worked, and went about doing – or not doing – the things they were supposed to do." Although it is not expected that Hanoi citizens are actually resisting the water management regimes in place, it is anticipated that people will be making their daily variations on their use of such services and interactions with service providers that indicate gaps between what is available and what is required. That such a dynamic of urban living does take place in urban Vietnam is demonstrated by the lives

of street vendors (e.g., Lincoln, 2008, Turner & Oswin, 2015), who the authorities would like to regulate and remove from many parts of the city, thereby removing their livelihood opportunities. In common with street vendors attempting to survive elsewhere, Hanoi Street vendors have adopted a range of tactics that enables them to navigate the restrictions placed upon them, albeit temporarily. The current paper aims to investigate through personal interviews the nature of this everyday politics in the case of Hanoi and the citizens' use of water services. In doing so, it is hoped to determine the extent to which the soft path is being used and, hence, the extent to which generalization of the results may be claimed.

2. Wastewater Management System in Hanoi

Looking deeper at the Hanoi wastewater management situation, rapid urbanization makes the quality of the natural environment more and more impaired, affecting the quality of life of the people. In Hanoi, domestic wastewater accounts for a large proportion, about 67.6% of the total wastewater generated in the area and only about 20.6% of the city's total domestic wastewater are treated (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, 2017, National Environmental Report, 2017). Therefore, to improve the water environment in Hanoi, wastewater should be treated onsite and managed as a decentralized system, in the same way that plays a vital role in wastewater treatment in small communities (Libralato et al., 2012). Green technological options can be considered to minimize the negative influence of untreated wastewater on surface water bodies such as wastewater treatment systems that operate through a complex synergy of soil, water, vegetation and atmosphere ((Paruch et al., 2019) that are collectively known as nature-based treatment systems (NBTs). NBTs such as soil filters, constructed wetland, algae ponds or multi-soil layering systems are being applied popularly today (Mahmood et al., 2018, Paruch et al., 2019, Singh & Kumar, 2017) and could prove to be effective environmental management solutions.

For Hanoi, particularly in low population density or suburban areas. Constructed wetlands were basically created based on traditional soil filtration (An, 2015). After about 30 years of the government-directed "production priority" outweighing the importance of environmental issues, Hanoi has seriously polluted all its five rivers, respectively from east to west, the Kim Nguu River, the Set River, Lu River, To Lich River and Nhue river. In fact, more than ten years ago, all of the five rivers were already seriously polluted. In the dry season, sometimes, the river bed is shallow and the bottom inert. These rivers have the natural function of draining rainwater and wastewater for the Hanoi area. The drainage culverts system of Hanoi is a combined sewage system that remains unchanged from the past to the present (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, 2017). According to the Hanoi Department of Construction, the total amount of domestic wastewater in Hanoi city needing to be treated is about 900,000 m^3/day. In fact, only about 20.6% of the city's total domestic wastewater is treated, while the remaining more than 700,000 m^3/day is still untreated and instead is discharged directly into the environment. The total amount of wastewater treated in 2015 was 185,600 m^3/day and night, distributed in WWTPs as follows:

Table 1: Volume of Wastewater Distributed in Hanoi WWTPs in 2015

Name of Factories	**Treated Volume** ***M^3/Day and Night***	**Design Capacity** ***M^3/day and Night***
Kim Lien	3,700	3,700
Truc Bach	2,300	2,300
Bac Thang Long - Van Tri	5,600	42,000
Yen So	174,000	200,000
West Lake	15,000	15,000
Thong Nhat Park	13,300	13,300
Total	**185,600**	

Source: Hanoi Department of Construction (2017).

Nature Based Treatment Technology*:* Nature Based Treatment (NBT) technology has been used to treat wastewater for a long time. Many on-site systems, such as soil trenches, constructed wetlands, high-rate algal ponds and compound media filter beds, have been used to treat wastewater in small household communities (Matamoros & Bayona, 2013, Ma et al., 2015). All of these methods can be applied to treat decentralized

sewage with different efficiencies. The use of soil for wastewater treatment and environmental remediation has existed for a long time and is used in many parts of the world, especially in Japan, India, the Netherlands, Germany and Thailand (Luanmanee et al., 2001). Constructed wetlands (CWs) are basically created based on traditional soil filtration and seem to have started in Germany, based on research by Kathe Seidel in the 1960s and by Reinhold Kickuth in the 1970s (Kadlec & Wallace, 2009). CWs treatment systems are generally divided into three categories: free water subsurface (FWS) CWs, subsurface flow (SSF) CWs, and hybrid CWs. SSF CWs may be further classified according to flow direction into vertical subsurface flow (VSSF) and horizontal sub- surface flow (HSSF) systems (Kadlec & Knight, 1996). The FWS CWs are effective in the removal of organics through microbial degradation and removal of suspended solids through filtration and sedimentation (Kadlec et al., 2009).

Constructed wetlands play a huge role in wastewater treatment; CWs are often built to treat wastewater in areas where sewer infrastructure is not available. The Water Environment Research Foundation (WERF, 2006) summarizes as many as 1,640 projects using small-scale wetland ecosystems (<200 m^3/day or by total area). The area is responsible for <6 ha in wastewater treatment in the US and Europe. Some 50% of applied projects treat less than 2.6 m^3/day and night, mainly based on the size of one US household; nearly 90% of wetland systems in the database serve a population of fewer than 5,000 people and 70% are identified for use in domestic wastewater treatment. Thus, the number of artificial wetland systems for household wastewater treatment in the world is very large. WERF (2006) also summarizes the results of denitrification and total nitrogen removal in vertical wetland construction wastewater treatment systems. The technique of treating wastewater by tree-planting CWs is quite popular to treat domestic wastewater. Studies have shown the significant effects of oxygen on nitrogen transport and nitrogen removal of tree-planting CWs with the vital roles of soil and Phragmites australis.

Soil is a natural material with the ability to filter and very good adsorption of pollutants (Nga, 2014, Sato et al., 2005). Laterite is capable to treat domestic wastewater with high efficiency (Yen, 2016). Scientists have also shown that Phragmites australis (common reed) can import 0.3 kg of oxygen/day/m of roots. Reed (P. australis) has also been selected as a plant species in CW systems in many countries such as Austria and Denmark (Brix & Arias, 2005). Vertical CWs planting Phragmites australis has the potential to eliminate N-NO_3^- in wastewater. N-$NH4^+$ can be treated through nitrification or absorption by aquatic plants (Farahbakhshazad & Morrison, 1997; Chadde, 1998, Moreno et al., 2002). In all of these approaches, little if any attention is paid to the human dimension since it is evident from the observation that people intervene in wastewater and water management systems in urban environments in various ways. Consequently, the purpose of this paper is to investigate human interactions with water management in Hanoi to understand how improvements from a human perspective may be made.

3. Methodology

This paper reports on both primary and secondary research efforts made to understand peoples' responses to water management, specifically wastewater management, in Hanoi. Primary research involved personal interviews of relevant individuals, including leaders of non-governmental organizations, government officials and water management academics. Interviews used a semi-structured approach and were recorded for subsequent transcription and interpretation from the original Vietnamese into English. Content analysis was used to identify the main findings, which are presented below.

4. Day-to-Day Use of Water

Environmental concerns in Hanoi have become high in recent years. The Air Quality Index figures have been repeatedly at a dangerous level and this has resulted from a combination of extensive use of coal across the north of the country and under-regulated industrial activities: recently, mercury was released into the air following a factory accident. Market failures are rife, such as the case of three men hired to dispose of dangerous industrial waste who simply dumped it in a nearby river, thereby subsequently making tap water unusable for 1.4 million Hanoi residents ("Hanoi Tap Water 'Safe for Consumption after Contamination Episode: City Leader," 2019). This episode, which is not unique, revealed the problem of fragmentation among the various supply companies which, currently, work independently of each other and have been

accused of lacking needed capabilities (Loan, 2019). By contrast, Ho Chi Minh City's water supply is provided by the Saigon Water Company (Sawaco), as a unified provider. In Hanoi, four companies provide services, which are VIWASUPCO, HAWACO, Son Tay Company and Ha Dong Company.

Together, these companies extract 1,000,000 m^3/per day of groundwater, which helps contribute to the city's land subsidence problem (Wright-Contreras et al., 2017). The fragmented water supply system has tended to amplify the differences between service levels depending on geography. Periurban areas see residents combining the use of piped water when available with the purchase of bottled water and of privately-owned well water, which is generally filtered personally. As a result, levels of satisfaction vary in different parts of the city. An important determinant of the level of satisfaction with services is the level of information available and the willingness of people to believe that information: some respondents in a previous survey were willing to use their judgment of whether a source of water was or was not safe rather than rely on official or institutional advice (Nguyen, 2017). The situation was similar for wastewater, with the overall system being considered to be unsatisfactory and the results of spreading pollution very evident in the dead rivers that once flowed through the city and the evidently stressed lake system that once would have provided storage and hydration for the people. A survey of 300 urban residents by Indochina Research found that water pollution ranked third among five principal concerns related to pressing social issues.

Along with food safety, air pollution, sexual harassment and healthcare (Anh, 2019). These issues have clear implications for gender, in that they tend to be more evident to women and are more likely to be encountered in their daily routines. More generally, the World Bank has estimated that polluted water, under-investment in water treatment and overdependence on rivers coming from overseas could cause as much as a 6% decrease in national GDP (Sen, 2019). Recently announced plans by Hanoi city authorities featured the expansion of fees to both residential and industrial users of the wastewater system. It has been argued that the level of income that could be raised by these means will continue to indicate systematic under-investment (Hai, 2019). Sufficient investment could help in the self-regulation of water services in the city. One respondent observed that: "The Hanoi Lake system has the ability to regulate extremely severe and extreme climates, and we must protect it." This sense that previously effective forms of water management have been allowed to deteriorate was a theme repeated more than once. Those claims were made by scientists armed with data makes takes them beyond the level of nostalgia.

The Role of NGOs: The role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in water management in Hanoi and other parts of the country tends to indicate the intersectionality of the community interests with which NGOs tend to be concerned. One respondent observed: "There must be a holistic approach, which is a holistic consideration of needs to have a development vision, which should then be used appropriately and effectively. At the present, there is more focus on groups with more power like hydropower development groups. They use water more like water grabbing. Another example is the big project like coal-fired thermal power plants which use water to cool the system and then pollute the environment. In other words, at present, they lack an overall vision and there is a lack of coordination among related departments." While the NGO is motivated by the desire to improve the quality of life for communities, that quality of life depends on water which is subject to processes beyond the initial purview of the NGO. To challenge the problems caused by industrialization that damage water supply, it is necessary to challenge state-private sector links and the (implicit) contract between the governments.

This can bring about conflict if it appears the NGO is trespassing in areas for which it is not licensed. Another respondent spoke about an NGO she had established that had three areas of activity: a clean air and water program that involves extensive outreach work; a sustainable energy program involving education and community involvement and, thirdly, a green community program that helps embed research results into community practice. Such a project logically incorporates the various elements required to deal with the intersectionality of water and community development and this reflects a change in policy on behalf of the Vietnamese government which was to reverse its previous level of restrictions on foreign NGOs and to encourage their spread, as demonstrated by Decision 59/2001/ QD-TTG on 24th April 2001, which set up the Foreign NGOs Committee which now regulates their activities. The Women's Union, in various branches, works in cooperation with some international NGOs and provides local expertise and capacity for them.

Although this suggests a level of additional bureaucracy in the activities involved, it does provide opportunities for closer involvement with some local communities.

Discussion

As Hanoi, together with the rest of the country, comes increasingly to be influenced by capitalist development, some elements of such a change that have been identified in comparable cities elsewhere may also be discerned here: the gentrification of central parts of the city and relocation of pre-modern or non-aesthetically pleasing elements (e.g. street vendors); replacement of traditional distribution and consumption patterns by profit-making systems and the introduction of business management education aimed, as Sartre observed, at producing graduates able to take their place in the emergent bourgeois structures. Do these processes represent what Harvey (Harvey, 2005) called 'accumulation by dispossession?' This cannot really be argued in the case of water management because the roots of the problems inherent in this case predate the creation of the *doi moi* (economic restructuring) process and it is the processes of urbanization that have done the most to contribute to the worsening of the problems and this has, to a significant extent, been brought about by the intensification of industry in the periphery of the city to boost production for state-level development targets. Currently, wastewater management is hampered by being managed by commercial interests obliged to act within constraints to prevent inequality but also preventing sufficient investment.

Soft path for water elements has been included in water management by some NGOs in Hanoi to a certain extent and perhaps to greater extents in some other, secondary cities of the country. It would not be correct to call Hanoi a primate city as McGee (1967) would have it but, nevertheless, it does contain a significant amount of the nation's principal political, cultural and historical institutions and that represents a certain conservatism of thinking when it comes to change. This is far from the ossification of central Bangkok and there is little doubt that the country's leaders see Hanoi as being an open, global city, as the building of the Formula One track rather indicates. However, it does make change an issue that should be approached with due care and involve the various layers of administration that make up municipal administration. In terms of SCD, it is apparent that there is little possibility that water management will be included in it for the foreseeable future. To some extent, these results from the nature of the Vietnamese planning model, which requires locally, produced plans to receive central authorization before being brought into reality in such a way that it does not violate what has been agreed upon. In general, this means that the current smart city plan will need to be implemented at least in significant part before it can be updated to incorporate much-needed water management elements.

5. Conclusion

This paper reports on research in progress to determine the everyday interactions between the people of Hanoi and the water services they receive, especially in the case of wastewater treatment. It has been shown that water management in the city is characterized by under-investment, fragmentation of authority, widespread pollution, over-reliance on international river supply and inadequate planning for the future in what is, inarguably, a complex situation. However, the research is ongoing indicates that these conclusions are interim for now and it remains to be seen whether they will be borne out by a more extensive understanding of the situation. This also holds for understanding the extent to which the understanding of the situation in Hanoi can be generalized to other cities in Vietnam and beyond. Research on water management in Hanoi is more advanced in terms of pure science than it is for the social sciences, although some progress has been made in this respect. Conditions within Vietnamese society as a whole make it more likely that the former may be conducted officially rather than the latter.

Consequently, recommendations drawn from social sciences require prudent management if it is to be hoped that they will in due course be implemented. In this case, it is recommended that technocratic city authorities incorporate voices from the population in drawing up plans for water management and the implementation of new schemes. It would be preferable if development priorities were adjusted to bring personal experience to the forefront but it is unrealistic to expect rapid industrialization to take a step backward in the foreseeable future. At least, better, more open and better-policed zoning regulations would help ensure that levels of pollution are reduced in residential areas. It is conventional to acknowledge research limitations in

this section and it is clear that any research based on a qualitative approach may be vulnerable to criticism of the sample of respondents achieved and how analysis of their views was conducted. This is true in the current case and the best approach to dealing with this is to conduct further research on the same and related subjects.

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Candidate Policy Ideas and Other Factors that Affect Election Results: A Case Study of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

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Abstract: Politics primarily focuses on decision-making and resource allocation. This resource allocation may emerge from political parties and candidates' policy proposals. Numerous studies have explored the impact of candidate policy proposals on election outcomes, but less attention has been paid to the impact of other factors. Using Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) as a case study, the study examines the impact of candidate policy proposals and other factors such as ethnicity, gender, and party affiliation on election outcomes. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) is located in Kumasi, in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The sample size of 255 people came from the Department of History and Political Studies and the Department of English, both of which are part of the Faculty of Social Sciences. The third and fourth-year students in these departments were given online Google-style questionnaires. In addition, journal, article, and book data were used to support the analysis. The majority of survey respondents stated that politicians' policy opinions have a considerable impact on elections, which was a significant conclusion. In order to provide equal opportunity for all, the laws governing gender discrimination and ethnic politics must be properly enforced and followed. Possession of a party card should not be a prerequisite for receiving benefits in the country. Everyone should have equal access to opportunities.

Keywords: *Election, politics, students, university, outcome.*

1. Introduction

Elections are important political activities that are undertaken in almost every society, organization, and country. It is the basis and one of the strongholds of well-established democracies around the world. An election itself is a stream of connected antecedent and subsequent behavior (Key, 1966). Elections as defined by some scholars like Eulau, Gibbins, and Webb as the formal process of selecting a person for public office or accepting or rejecting a political position by voting. Political candidates are people nominated to run for political offices. Political candidates are very instrumental in determining the outcome of elections in the state. The kind of policy ideas or statements they communicate to electorates can shift things in or out of their favor. To run the affairs of society perfectly, there is the need for good governance with good policies. Policies are a set of ideas or plans that are used as a basis for making good decisions (Dye, 1972) defined policies as anything a government chooses to do or not to do. Thus, a policy is an action that employs governmental authorities to commit resources in support of the preferred value (Considine, 1994).

However, the kind of policies and ideas put in place before elections are some of the major factors that trigger the electorates to vote during an election. But do the electorate focus solely on policies when voting? Or do other factors come into play to determine the outcome of an election? This and many more have been left unresolved and hence, the need for investigation. Elections are the most important and obvious mechanism by which all citizens can pick or remove their leaders peacefully, and they are evidently costly affairs (Anglin, 1998). Elections are the main way that policymakers are forced or encouraged to pay attention to citizens. A multiparty system is needed for elections so that people can vote for candidates from different political parties with different ideas and different ways to solve problems (Mesfin, 2008). Democracy, according to Makinda (1996), is a form of government that is strongly anchored in the notion that everyone in any community should be free to establish their own political, economic, social, and cultural systems.

2. Literature Review

Impact of Candidate Policies and Factors on Election Results: According to Lago and Martínez (2011), citizens elect other citizens to reflect their interests. For the purposes of this study, an election is any formal way that voters choose who will run for public office. According to Dye (1972), a policy is anything a

government chooses to do or not do. This "something" is defined by Birkland (2001) as the acts or decisions to act or not act to alter or retain certain characteristics of the status quo. Anderson (2015) defines policies as the behavior of a key actor or group of players, such as an official, a government agency, or a legislature, in a particular area or activity, such as public transportation or consumer protection. Policies and manifestos will be used the same way for the purposes of this research and based on what these researchers have said. Laver and Garry (2000) define manifestos as the ideal policy solutions, stated policy solutions, and policy predictions that reflect a party's actual convictions, what they believe the audience or the public would purchase, and what they claim to accomplish in the future if elected. In a similar vein, Ray and Bell (2008) view manifestos as little more than party advertisements or contracts between parties and voters. Harmel et al. (2016) agree that the main goals of manifestos are to show how the party wants to be seen and to help people figure out who the party is. Manifestos are papers that outline, in greater or lesser depth, the policies or programs a political party intends to follow if elected. They outline the development approach the party will undertake if it wins the election (Ayee, 2011). Dolezal et al. (2016) contend that manifestos are the richest sources of information regarding party policies. In contrast, Royed (1996) defines it as a party's chosen course of action if elected to office.

Like other political science terms, the term "candidate" is difficult to define. This phrase has very few or no known definitions. According to the research, a candidate is an application for a post. According to the Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary, a candidate is also a person who has been officially proposed for a job, an honor, or an election. According to Dictionary.com, a candidate is a person nominated to run for political office or fill a specific post. According to the Oxford definition, a candidate is an individual who applies for a position or is nominated for an election. According to the New Oxford American Dictionary, a candidate is a person who has been formally nominated for an office. These sources indicate that candidates are individuals nominated for a certain office. Before being nominated to lead a political party or an organization, they must go through a number of procedures. Before Ghana's independence in 1957, elections and manifestos were a part of the country's governance, politics, and culture. This is demonstrated by the number of elections held in the country and the number of manifestos associated with these elections (Ayee, 2011). Many experts and extant literature tend to believe that policies are developed to entice voter support (Harmel et al., 2016). Additionally, others say that voters do not even consider policies while being aware of their existence. From Down's 1957 fundamental work, it can be deduced that parties provide policies to both retain their current supporters and attract new ones. Thus, policies are designed primarily with the party's prospective voters in mind.

Referring to the mandate model and using British parties as examples, Kavanagh argues that British parties are programmatic; they campaign on policies and pledge to implement them if elected (Kavanagh, 1981). Consequently, policies are viewed as contracts between parties and voters (Ray & Bell, 2008). However, while the mandate model may be appropriate for British issues, it may not be relevant to parties worldwide (Harmel et al., 2016). Even though it is ambiguous to emphasize the "contract" concept, political parties formulate policies with voters in mind. Given that voters have options, how do they choose whom to support (Hague & Harrop, 2004)? They would seek a candidate who could bring progress to the district. If this is credible, then we can claim that such voters are socio-tropic (Sanders, 2009) in the sense that they vote for the benefit of the whole, wherein the parts share the greatest good of the greatest number (Dwivedi, 2005). This indicates that voters do consider policies while casting their ballots. Ayee (2011) says, using the Ghanaian situation as an example, that the promises made on political parties' platforms are the basis for communication during elections and the policies they choose when they are in power. In addition to how parties use their policies to set the agenda for their campaigns, Wagner and Meyer (2014) argue that some parties may choose to stress their concerns, whereas others may choose to ride the wave by focusing on issues that are important to voters. They show that a party's first strategy is to speak as much as possible about its subject. These are policy areas where the government has a long-standing reputation for effectively addressing issues and prioritizing the resolution of major obstacles.

Political Alignment and Voter Choice: According to Eyestone (1978), issues are the driving force behind politics. The electorate decides whether to support these issues or not after political candidates and the parties they represent identify public concerns and develop strategies to address them. Therefore, if the party's platform focuses on these concerns, it should perform better at the polls. A widely held belief

regarding democratic elections is that the votes of numerous individuals are influenced by their evaluations of the competing candidates' personalities and other personal characteristics, and that, as a result, the outcomes of democratic elections are frequently determined by "personality factors" of this type. The characteristics include race, age, gender, and religion. Gender as a voter When voters have no additional information about candidates, they may utilize first names to infer candidate gender, a ballot-based information cue (McDermott & Monika, 1997, 1997). Voters attribute characteristics and positions to a candidate based on their perceptions of the group to which the candidate belongs (Huddy, 1994; Rapoport et al., 1989; Stephan et al., 2008). Through gender stereotyping, voters can apply their attitudes about women in general to female candidates (Sanbonmatsu, 2002). While the majority of stereotyping involves attributing personality qualities (Esses et al., 1993), gender stereotyping is also associated with political tendencies (McDermott & Monika, 1997). Voters generally perceive female candidates to be more moral and liberal than male ones. When voters express good sentiments regarding women as a group, they are more likely to characterize female candidates positively and vote for them (Esses et al., 1993). In addition to the rational-choice viewpoint, there is the sociological explanation of voting behavior, which is frequently associated with the work of Butler and Stokes (1969).

According to this view, the decisions of voters are impacted by social background and social psychology, particularly variables contained in party identification and sometimes long-term and lifelong attachments, as well as social features, particularly class identity. Pomper (1975) says that voters select candidates based on their social group, with voters favoring candidates of their ethnicity due to the psychological connection of belonging to the same group. Thus, it is believed that ethnic voting is motivated by feelings of group solidarity. Borjas (1999) says that for minority groups, this group solidarity is founded on a perception of discrimination, whereas Kaufman (2003) describes it as a combination of common interests and intergroup competitiveness. Political identification among Hispanics has become so distinctive that Stokes (2003) refers to it as "group consciousness" and Kaufman (2003, p. 201) refers to it as "pan-Latino affinity." Consequently, when the ethnicity of candidates can be deduced from their names on the ballot, Hispanic candidates may have an edge in Miami-Dade County. When it comes to explanations for the voting behavior of the electorate in African countries, however, the literature is replete with articles by Bates (1974) that suggest ethnicity or "political tribalism," as Lonsdale (1986) calls it—is the most influential factor in determining people's electoral choices. Considering the emergence of identity politics and ethnicity in particular (Chabal & Daloz, 1999), ethnicity has been identified as the most significant determinant in African politics. Indeed, elections in African countries have been described as ethnic "censuses" (Rothchild, 1989), with voters more often than not voting along ethnic lines and against policy preferences. As a result, ethnic appeals can be useful to politicians because constituencies are typically dominated by a single ethnic group, and the appeal of common ethnic ties can generate unified support where other issues would be divisive (Bates, 1974).

It is widely believed that ethnic undercurrents have a significant impact on elections in Ghana's Fourth Republic. Similar to ethnicity, another cultural component, a common religious belief system can unify members of a political party. As party members canvass for votes, it can serve as a mobilizing agent. Ghana appears to be one of the most religious nations in Africa. Multiple indicators demonstrate the religiosity of Ghanaians, including religious affiliation, service attendance, prayer frequency, and the significance of religion in daily life (Gallup International, 2016). Consequently, some religious leaders can influence their followers' political decisions, including voting decisions. As a result of a religious renaissance in sub-Saharan Africa (Gifford, 2006) and the fact that most Africans, including Ghanaians, put religion above all other things that make them who they are, U.S. Partisanship is a central factor in determining electoral behavior in all democracies (Plutzer & Zipp, 1996). Identifying parties enables individuals to learn more about the individuals and policies associated with parties (Franklin & Jackson, 1983). According to Bartels (2000), the significance of partisanship in the election process depends not only on the level of partisanship of the voter but also on the amount to which it influences voting behavior. Miller (1991) categorized voters based on their responses to a question he posed on partisanship. Sniderman et al. (1991) consider and underline the significance of long-standing political links to political parties as a key factor in the electoral success of some parties. All of these scholars feel that a voter's decision is more likely to be influenced by partisan and party identification lines than other variables. In addition, Sniderman et al. (1991) accept this truth and then introduce minimalism to the issue's public.

He claims that the public demonstrates a basic amount of political attention and knowledge, minimal mastery of abstract political concepts, minimal stability of political choices, and minimal restraint of attitude. In essence, he argues that the public lacks the fundamental understanding to participate in political issues and debates, lacks sufficient information to pay attention to political events, and is unstable and emotionally committed to political parties. But is that truly the case? Do voters lack logic? According to Popkin (1994), voters do reason about parties, candidates, and issues. They have presuppositions in their minds and draw conclusions based on these presuppositions. In summary, they consider who and what to vote for, what political parties stand for, the significance of political endorsements, and the power of political parties. Sniderman et al. (1991) agree that when voters make decisions, they do take into account a number of public-interest factors.

3. Methodology

Research methodology refers to the procedures that will be utilized to study the research problem. It examines how data would be acquired and evaluated, as well as the rationale behind the adoption of particular procedures or strategies to identify, collect, process, and analyze data used to comprehend the problem (Kallet, 2004). This chapter describes the approach used to achieve the purpose of the study. This chapter's mission is to assess and explain the techniques employed in this research to address the objectives stated in chapter one. This chapter is structured as follows: study area profile; research design; survey area; target population; sample size and sampling procedure; data source; data collection method; and data analysis. The study design includes the researcher's plans, tactics, and procedures for investigating a notion of variables (Creswell, 2009). Research design is the component of methodology that determines the researcher's plans, procedures, and steps for conducting an inquiry into a research problem (Kaniel, 1997). There are numerous sorts of research designs, including experimental, non-experimental, and survey designs. This investigation utilized a survey research design. This method is utilized to collect data from a large population sample. Due to its accessibility and convenience, the study chose Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) as its survey area.

The aforementioned survey region decreased the expenses associated with performing this study. KNUST is located in the Oforikrom Municipality in the Kumasi Metropolitan Area in Ghana's Ashanti Region. It is situated on a 16-square-kilometer campus with varied terrain and attractive surroundings. It is around seven kilometers away from Kumasi's major business district. In its brief history (bestbrainz.com), it has become a key center for the training of scientists and technicians not only for Ghana but also for other African nations and the rest of the world in its brief history (bestbrainz.com). The US News and World Report ranked it as the best university in Ghana and West Africa, the fourteenth (14th) best in Africa, and seven hundred and sixth (706th) best in the world in 2019. A study population is a subset of the broader population with similar characteristics, such as age and sex. The target audience for this study is male and female students from the Department of English and the Department of History and Political Studies at KNUST. This is because they have participated in college elections and are familiar with campus politics. The research employed a convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling is a nonprobability sampling strategy in which individuals are chosen based on their accessibility and availability to the researcher.

Students in both departments were chosen using the convenience sampling method. This method assisted in selecting students who were available and willing to supply the necessary data for the study. The emphasis of the study was on third- and fourth-year KNUST students in the Department of History and Political Studies and the Department of English. The Department of History and Political Studies selected majors in political studies. There are 701 students in the History and Political Studies and English departments combined. Yamane's formula, n=N/(1+N(e)2), is used. The given sample size was 255 with a 95% level of confidence and a margin of error of 0.05. Students were administered surveys in both departments. Students in their third and final years who have previously participated in an election were handed questionnaires. The research included both primary and secondary data. The main data consists of the responses collected on the ground by the researchers for this study. This provided firsthand information regarding respondents' perceptions and general knowledge regarding the candidate's policy proposals and other factors influencing election outcomes. 255 students from the two departments at Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology served as the primary data sources.

In addition, a literature assessment on the concept of candidates' policy views and other factors that influence election outcomes will be conducted for secondary data sources. These were found in journal articles, standard books, and online sources that were easy to find and related to the topic being studied. The study's primary data collection instrument was a survey. Due to the impossibility of conducting interviews with the sample size, questionnaires were employed in surveys. They are also cost-effective and save time. Invented by Sir Francis Galton, a questionnaire is a research tool consisting of a series of questions (items) designed to collect standardized replies from respondents (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The 255 questionnaires that were sent contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions were employed to clarify the questions for the respondent and prevent misinterpretation, as well as because they are simple to answer and require minimal time. When open-ended questions were asked, people could say what they thought and felt in their own words. The acquired data sets were quantitatively examined. The information received from respondents was quantitatively evaluated using the SPSS program. To evaluate the responses of respondents, the closed-ended portion of the surveys was input into SPSS. The open-ended portion of the questionnaire was qualitatively evaluated. The research was conducted in accordance with the following ethical principles: First and foremost, the respondents were reassured by the researchers that none of the information they supplied would be used against them and that their identities would not be disclosed, i.e., anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained. In addition, respondents will not be required to participate in the study.

4. Results and Discussion

Socio-Demographic Data: This explains the socio-demographic data of respondents and gives a general background of the respondents involved in the study.

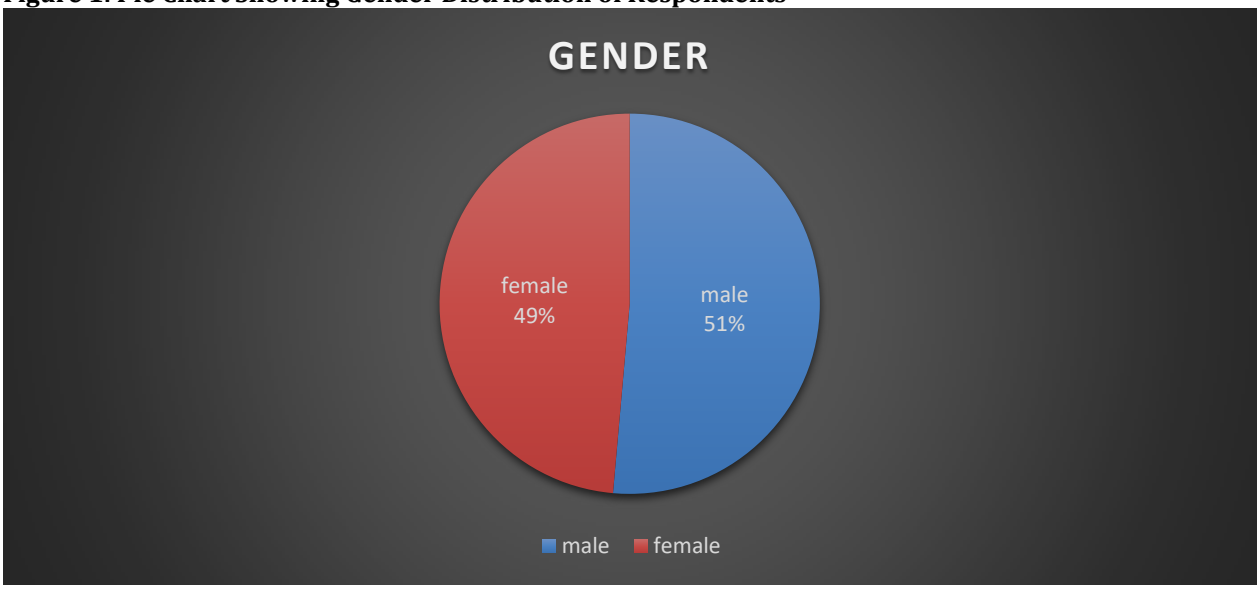
Gender of Respondents: This study covered all gender groups. Both males and females were identified and questionnaires were issued to them. The table below shows that researchers issued questionnaires to 255 respondents. Out of the total, 131 (51.4%) represented males and 124 (48.6%) represented females.

Table 1: Gender Distribution of Respondents

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Male	131	51.4	51.4	51.4
Female	124	48.6	48.6	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 1: Pie Chart Showing Gender Distribution of Respondents



Source: Online Survey 2020.

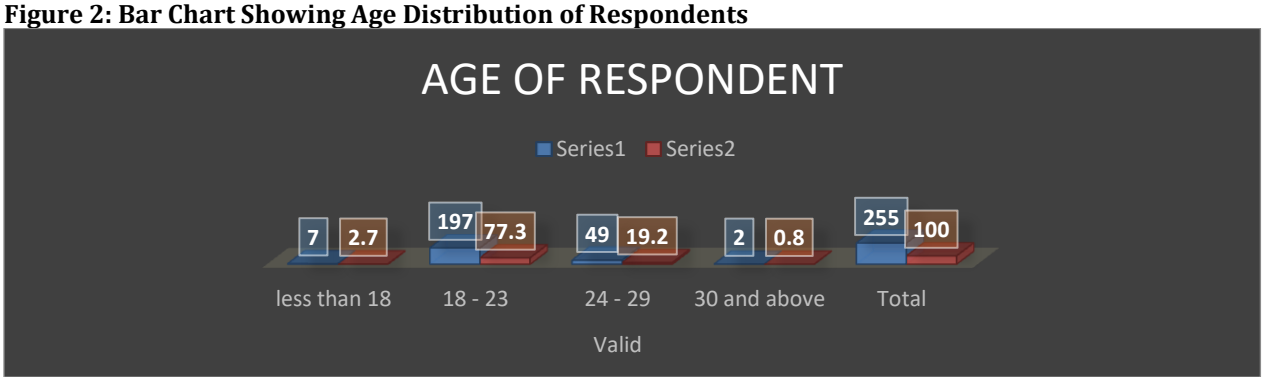
Age of Respondent: The average age group was respondents who fell between the ages of 18-23 which constituted 77.3 % (197 respondents), followed by the age between 24-29 years which constituted 19.2 % (49 respondents). Seven respondents were of the age less than 18 age group, representing 2.7 % while two respondents of the ages 30 and above represented 0.8 %.

Table 2: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
less than 18	7	2.7	2.7	2.7
18 – 23	197	77.3	77.3	80.0
24 – 29	49	19.2	19.2	99.2
30 and above	2	.8	.8	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 2: Bar Chart Showing Age Distribution of Respondents



Source: Online Survey 2020.

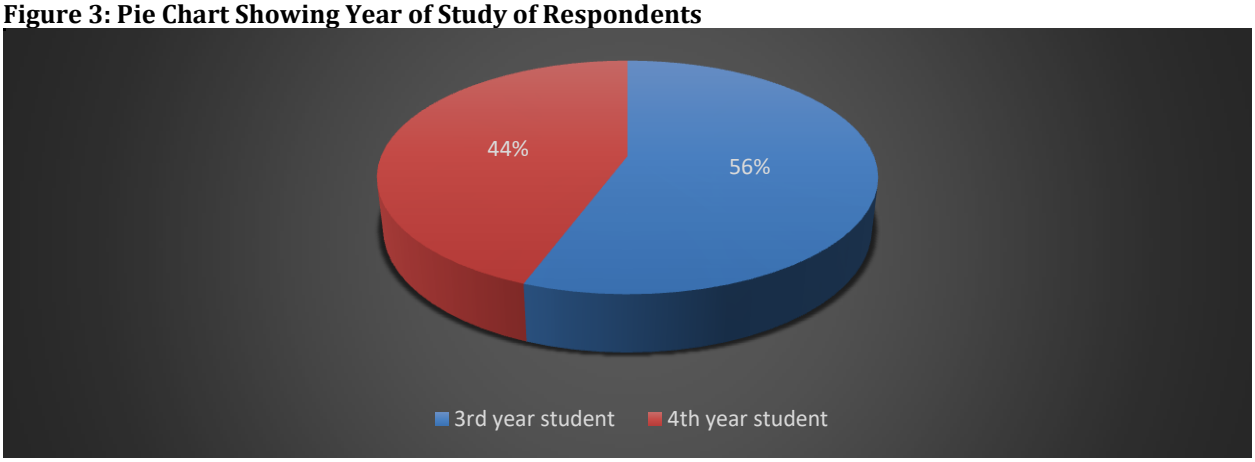
Year of Study of Respondent: Table 3 shows clearly the respective year of study of the respondent. Out of the 255 respondents, 142 respondents representing 55.7% were 3rd-year students and the remaining 113 respondents representing 44.3 % were 4th-year students.

Table 3: Year of Study of Respondents

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	3rd-year student	142	55.7	55.7	55.7
	4th-year student	113	44.3	44.3	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 3: Pie Chart Showing Year of Study of Respondents



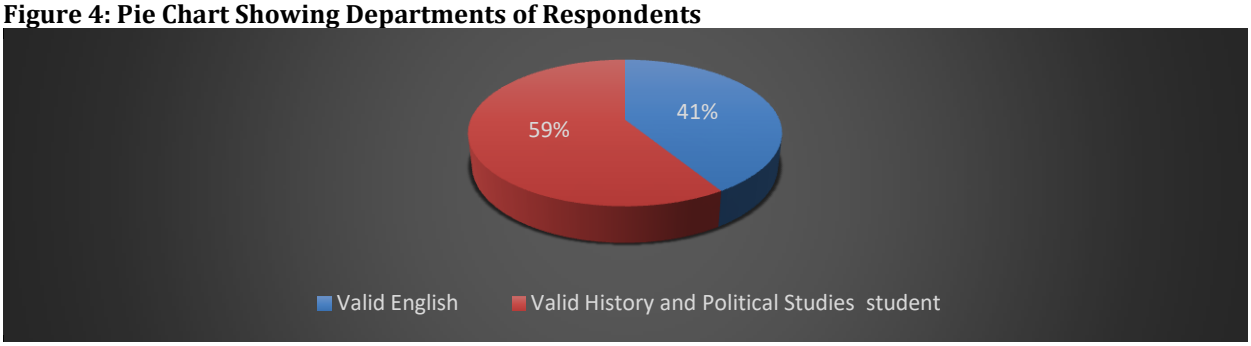
Department of Study: The table below shows the departments of the various respondents. Out of the 255 respondents, 105 respondents representing 41.2 % were students in the department of English and the remaining 150 people representing 58.8 % were students from the department of History and Political Studies all in the faculty of Social Science.

Table 4: Department of Respondents

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	English	105	41.2	41.2	41.2
	History and Political Studies student	150	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 4: Pie Chart Showing Departments of Respondents



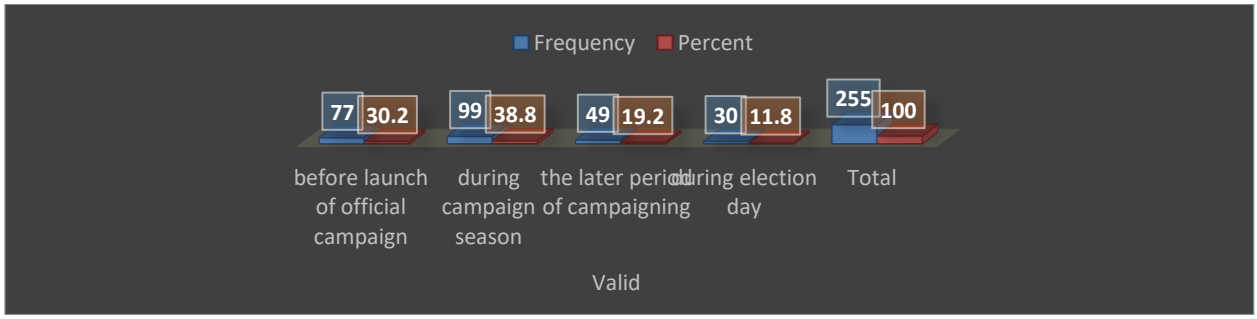
Respondent Made Up their Mind to Vote: Respondents responded to the time they made up their minds to vote in an election. Out of the 255 respondents, 30.2 % representing 77 people selected that they made up their minds before the official launch of the campaign. 38.8 % representing 99 people selected that they made up their minds during the campaign season. Also, 19.2 % representing 49 people selected that they made up their minds at the later period of the campaign. Finally, 11.8 % representing 30 people chose that they made up their minds on the day of the election.

Table 5: Responses on the Respondents Decided to Vote in an Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	before the launch of an official campaign	77	30.2	30.2	30.2
	during campaign season	99	38.8	38.8	69.0
	the later period of campaigning	49	19.2	19.2	88.2
	during election day	30	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 5: Bar Chart Showing the Responses on the Time the Respondents Made Up Their Mind to Vote in an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

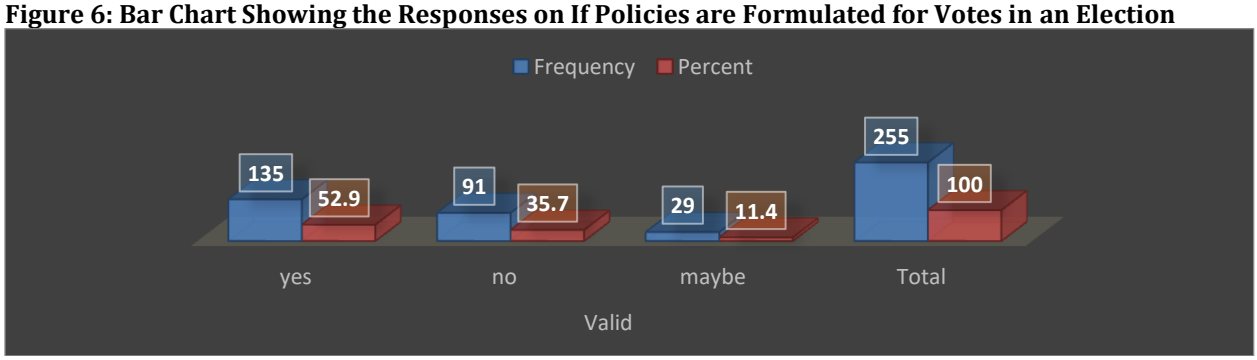
If They Thought Policy Ideas are Formulated for Votes: The table below shows responses of respondents' views on whether policy ideas are formulated solely for votes. The information provided indicates that 180 respondents which represents 70.6 % answered 'yes', while 31 respondents representing 12.2 % answered no.

Table 6: Responses on If Policies are Formulated for Votes

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
	yes	180	70.6	70.6	70.6
	no	31	12.2	12.2	82.7
	maybe	44	17.3	17.3	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 6: Bar Chart Showing the Responses on If Policies are Formulated for Votes in an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

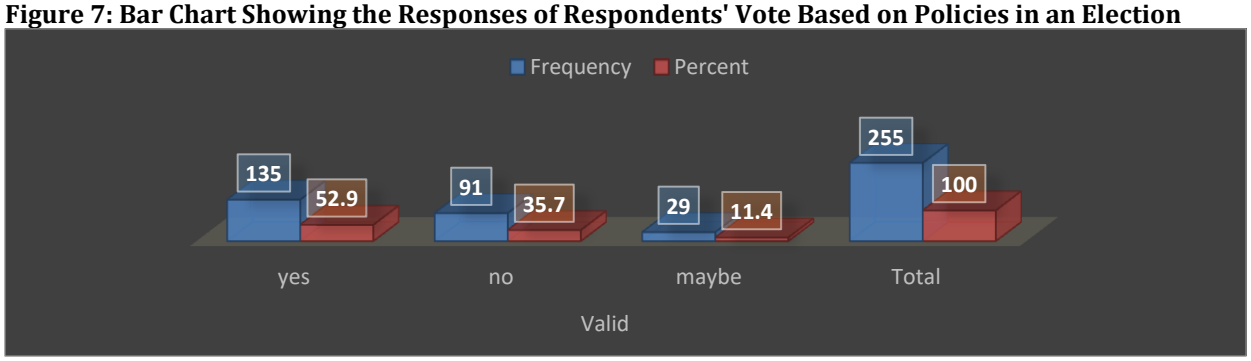
Do Respondents Vote Based on The Policy Ideas of Candidates: The respondents were asked whether they voted based on a candidate's policy proposals. 135 of the respondents, or 52.9%, indicated that they do vote based on a candidate's policy ideas, according to the data. 29 respondents, or 11.4%, could not say whether they vote based on a candidate's policy ideas or not, whilst the remaining 91 respondents, or 37.7%, are certain that they do not vote based on a candidate's policy ideas. First and foremost, respondents vote based on the candidate's policy ideas because the policies are appealing and necessary. Moreover, the policies are realizable and practical. The reforms would ultimately have a positive impact on the economy.

Table 7: Responses on If Respondents Vote Based on the Policies of a Candidate

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	yes	135	52.9	52.9	52.9
	no	91	35.7	35.7	88.6
	maybe	29	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 7: Bar Chart Showing the Responses of Respondents' Vote Based on Policies in an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

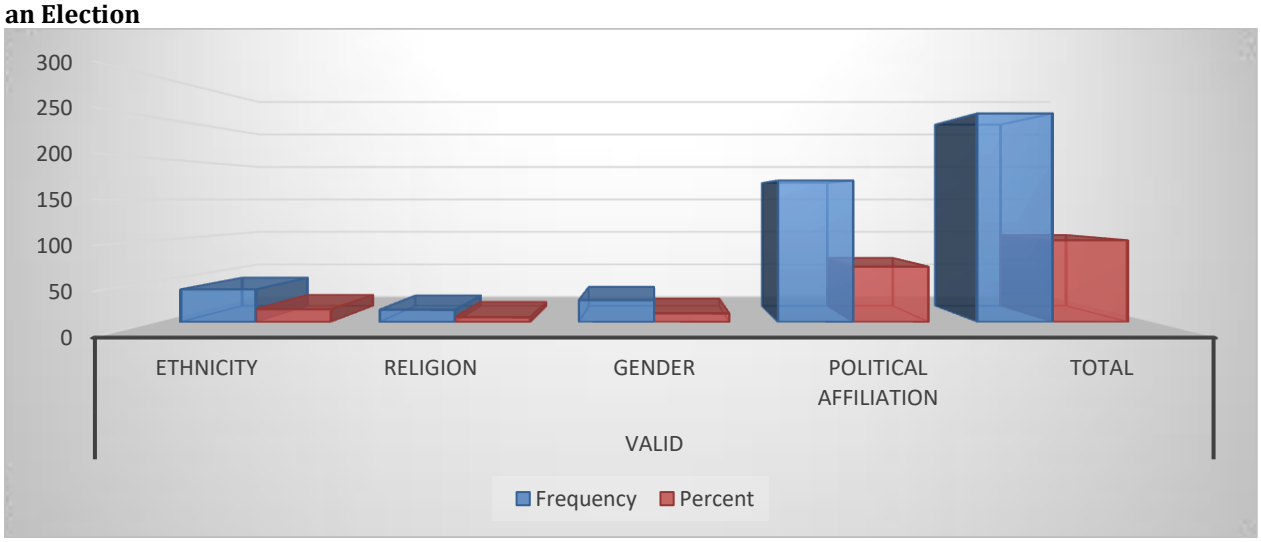
Other Factors That Motivate People to Vote: At this point, respondents were asked about other factors that encourage them to vote in an election. 40 respondents, or 15.7%, replied that they are occasionally motivated to vote based on the ethnic background of the candidate. 15 people, or 5.9%, said that a candidate's religion affects their decision about whether or not to vote for them. Also, 10.6% of respondents (27 people) said that the gender of the candidate makes them want to vote, while 67.8% of respondents (173 people) said that their political affiliation is the main reason they vote.

Table 8: Responses on the Other Factors That Motivate Respondents to Vote in an Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Ethnicity	40	15.7	15.7	15.7
	Religion	15	5.9	5.9	21.6
	Gender	27	10.6	10.6	32.2
	political affiliation	173	67.8	67.8	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 8: Bar Chart Showing the Response to the Other Factors That Motivate Respondents to Vote in an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

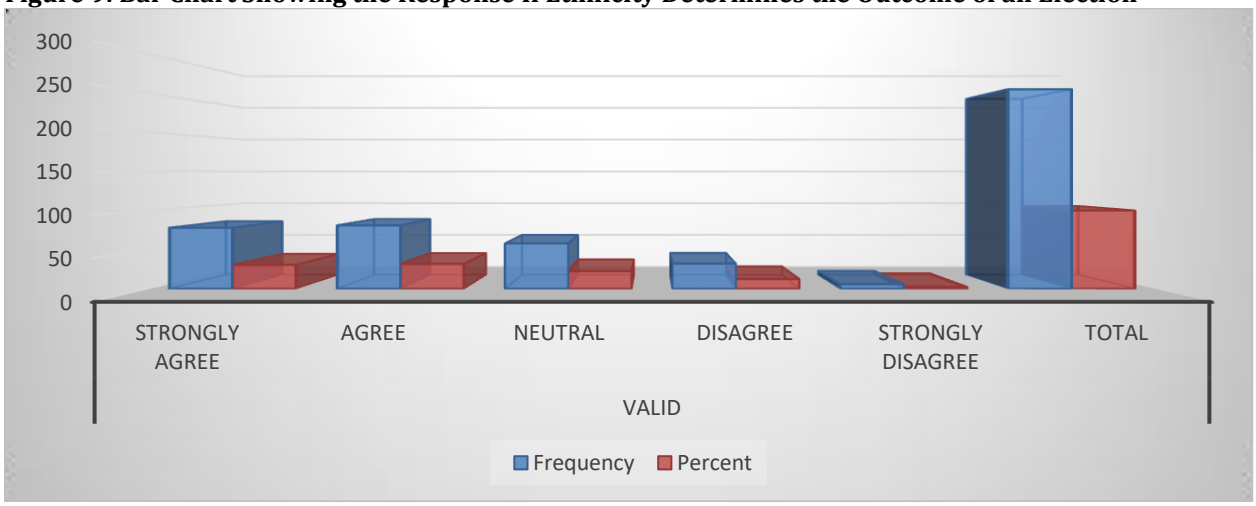
If Ethnicity Determines the Outcome of Elections: The table below shows the tabulation of respondents' views on the extent to which they think ethnicity has an impact on the outcome of an election. Data gathered from the respondents showed that 78 respondents represented 30.6 % "strongly agree", 81 respondents representing 31.8 % "agree", 58 respondents representing 22.7% "neutral," and 32 respondents representing 12.5 % "disagree," while the remaining 6 respondents represented 2.4 % strongly "disagree." Among the reasons given by the respondents include: firstly, people vote for candidates because they belong to the same ethnic group; hence they want to support their own. Secondly, some of the respondents hold to the fact that ethnicity has nothing to do with politics but rather what the leader can do.

Table 9: Responses on if Ethnicity Determines the Outcome of Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	strongly agree	78	30.6	30.6	30.6
	Agree	81	31.8	31.8	62.4
	Neutral	58	22.7	22.7	85.1
	Disagree	32	12.5	12.5	97.6
	strongly disagree	6	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 9: Bar Chart Showing the Response If Ethnicity Determines the Outcome of an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

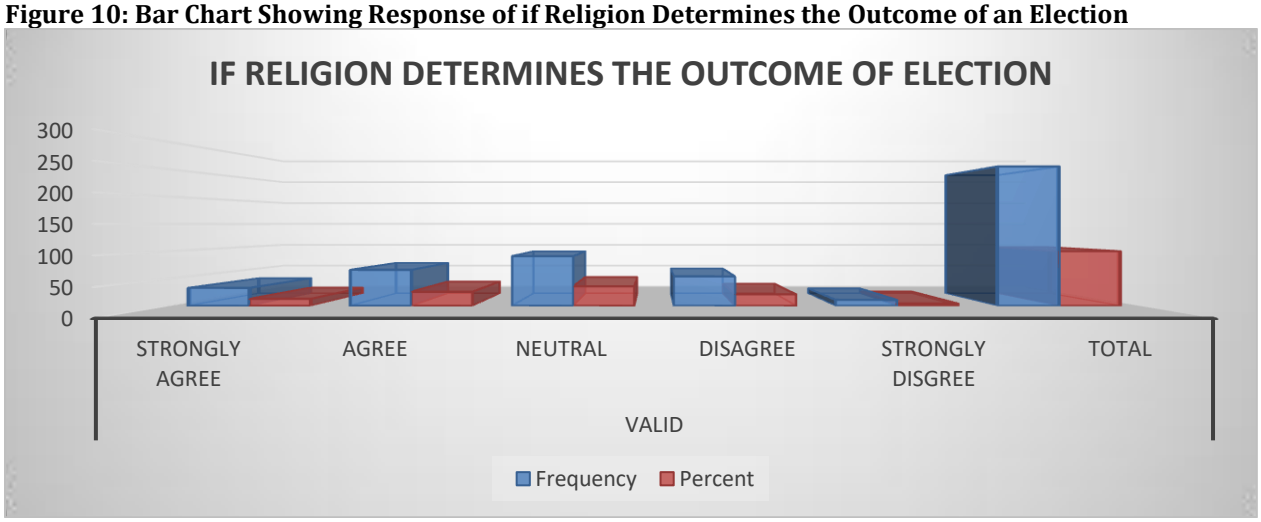
If Religion Determines the Outcome: Within the scope of the survey, respondents were questioned about the extent to which religion can influence the outcome of an election. 12 responses representing 4.7% "strongly agree"; 73 respondents representing 28.6% "agree"; 97 respondents representing 38.0% "neutral"; 67 respondents representing 26.3% "disagree"; and 6 respondents representing 2.4% "strongly disagree". First, individuals vote for candidates of the same faith to demonstrate their support for the candidate and also to express support for their religion. Secondly, others concur that religion has no actual impact on the electorate or elections. Therefore, anyone of any religion is capable of performing a given task.

Table 10: Responses on If Religion Determines the Outcome of an Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	strongly agree	12	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Agree	73	28.6	28.6	33.3
	Neutral	97	38.0	38.0	71.4
	Disagree	67	26.3	26.3	97.6
	strongly disagree	6	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 10: Bar Chart Showing Response of if Religion Determines the Outcome of an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

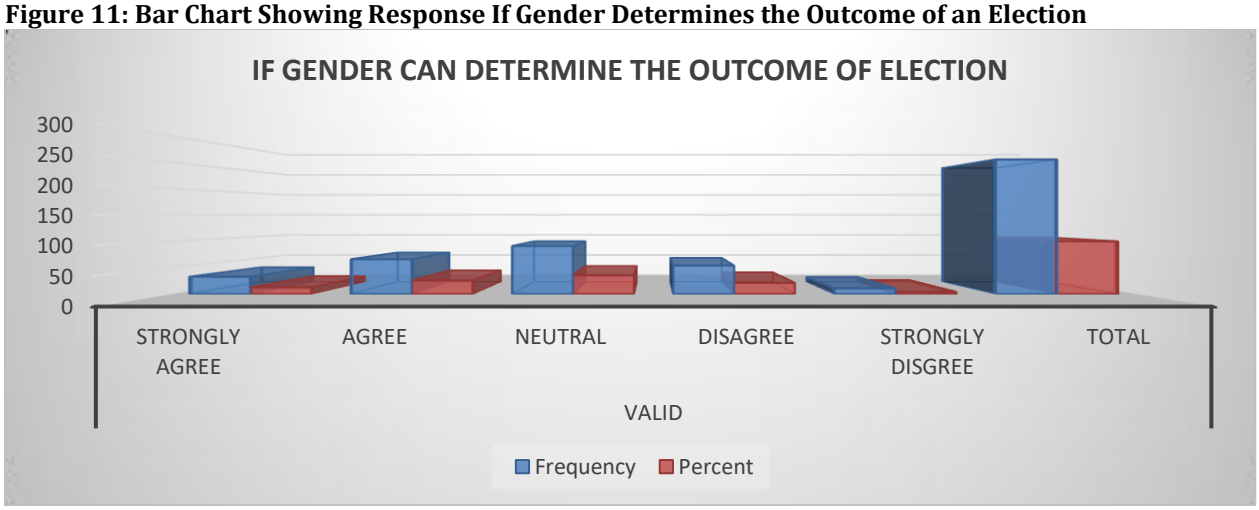
If Gender Determines the Outcome of Elections: The study explored the extent to which the gender of a candidate can influence the outcome of an election, and found that 33 respondents represented 12.9 % "strongly agree," 66 respondents representing 25.9 % "agree," 91 respondents representing 35.7 % "neutral," 54 respondents representing 21.2 % "disagree," and 11 respondents representing 4.3 % "strongly disagree." According to one of the most common responses, men are excellent leaders who do not wish to be dominated by women. Additionally, they desire that certain positions be reserved for only one gender. Second, other people agreed with the idea that anyone, regardless of gender, can be a leader.

Table 11: Responses on If Gender Determines the Outcome of an Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	strongly agree	33	12.9	12.9	12.9
	Agree	66	25.9	25.9	38.8
	Neutral	91	35.7	35.7	74.5
	Disagree	54	21.2	21.2	95.7
	strongly disagree	11	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 11: Bar Chart Showing Response If Gender Determines the Outcome of an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

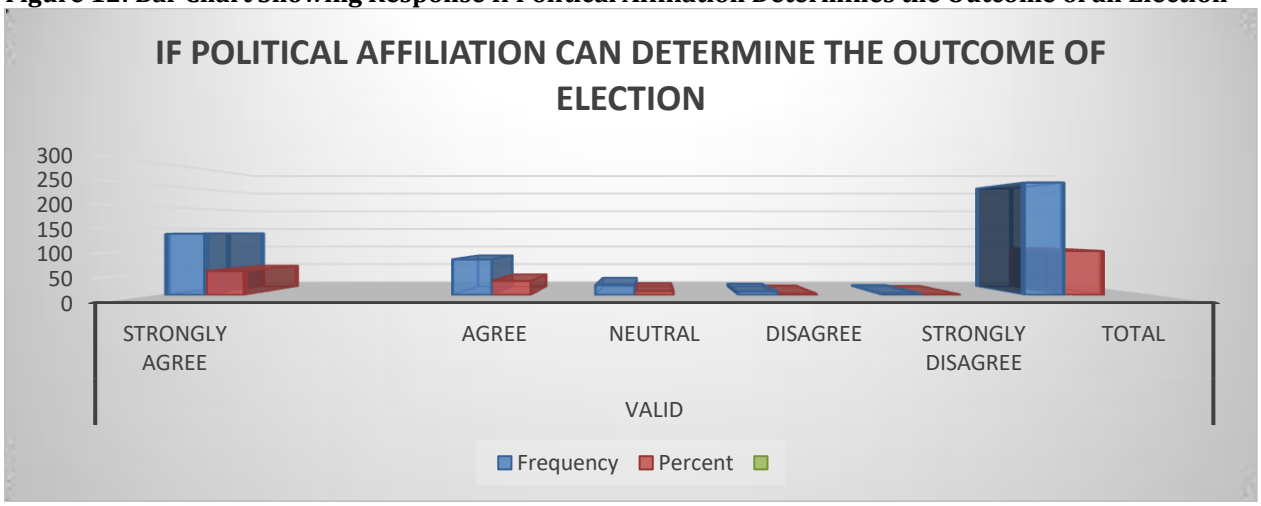
If Political Affiliation Determines the Outcome: The study investigated the extent to which the political affiliation of electorates influences the outcome of elections. The study found that 139 respondents, or 54.5%, strongly agreed that political affiliation has a substantial effect on election outcomes. 81 responses representing 31.8% 'agree', 23 respondents representing 9.0% 'neutral', 8 respondents representing 3.1% 'disagree', and the remaining four respondents representing 1.6%'strongly disagree'. The majority of respondents decided that they vote for the political party with which they are affiliated, and participation in political parties is advantageous. Furthermore, certain political parties perform better than others. Second, some believe that they vote primarily on the candidate's policies rather than their party allegiance.

Table 12: Responses on If Political Affiliation Determines the Outcome of an Election

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	strongly agree	139	54.5	54.5	54.5
	Agree	81	31.8	31.8	86.7
	Neutral	23	9.0	9.0	95.3
	Disagree	8	3.1	3.1	98.4
	strongly disagree	4	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Source: Online Survey 2020.

Figure 12: Bar Chart Showing Response If Political Affiliation Determines the Outcome of an Election



Source: Online Survey 2020.

Analysis of the Findings: The study presented above illustrates respondents' perspectives on candidate policy ideas and other factors that influence election outcomes. According to the notion of behavioral persuasion, the majority of people had already decided to vote when the material was released. Before the elections, only 77 people had decided to vote for a candidate. The remaining voters decided when candidates presented their policy proposals. When the stimuli (ideas of policy) were applied to the organism (the electorate), the organism changed its psychological composition and moved in a particular direction. The notion of low-information rationality is an additional validated theory of significance. This idea asserts that people use signals and shortcuts to react to government issues due to a lack of information. This was made abundantly clear by respondents' agreement that political affiliation influenced their voting behavior. They may not have understood the candidate's policies, but they chose to vote for him anyhow.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The goal of this study was to discover whether electors vote based on policy ideas during elections and whether other factors such as gender, religion, and ethnicity influence election outcomes. It also investigated whether voters vote based on political affiliation. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) in the Ashanti Region served as the study region. The group included students in their third and final years from the English, history, and political studies departments. 255 students were chosen as the sample size using a technique of convenience sampling. Online Google forms were used to distribute questionnaires to collect the essential data for the study. Using descriptive statistics, items were analyzed using frequency tables, charts, and narrative data presentation. The respondents' general knowledge of policy concepts and their effects on election outcomes was a noteworthy finding. The majority of responders from the departments of English, history, and political science concur with the statement that the outcome of an election depends heavily on the candidates' policy proposals. Some respondents said that they vote based on policies because some of the policies are appealing and others address societal issues. Few respondents from each field disagreed that policy ideas influence election outcomes. In addition, respondents were asked if other factors could significantly affect the outcome of an election. Forty respondents stated that the ethnic affiliation of a candidate occasionally motivates them to vote. 15 respondents indicated that a candidate's religion influences their decision to vote.

In addition, 27 respondents indicated that the gender of the candidate motivates them to vote, whereas the majority of respondents, 173, indicated that they vote based on their political affiliation. In examining respondents' perspectives on the extent to which ethnicity, religion, gender, and party affiliation influence election outcomes, a larger proportion of respondents agreed that ethnicity influences election outcomes. They disclosed that they voted for them to support their own. Also, the majority of respondents concurred that they vote for candidates of the same faith because they believe religion affects the candidate's life and

personality, and hence they support their own. In addition, a greater proportion of respondents agreed that gender has a significant impact on election outcomes. They confirmed that the majority of individuals believe that men are superior leaders and that the majority of men and women do not wish to be dominated by women. In conclusion, the majority of respondents concurred that they vote according to their political identity. They affirmed that they vote for the parties to which they are attached because some parties smell better than others, and they may readily receive benefits from the parties to which they are affiliated. The statements of individuals who disagreed with the ethnicity, gender, religion, and political affiliation variables demonstrated that gender, ethnicity, and religion have no bearing on one's talents. Therefore, anyone of any race, creed, gender or political affiliation is capable of performing a given duty. Therefore, the focus should be on the policy proposals.

Recommendations: It was evident from the collected data that a candidate's policy ideas are not the only factor influencing elections.

- Political parties should develop programs that are feasible and motivate more people to vote.
- To offer equal opportunity for all, the laws controlling gender discrimination and ethnic politics should be strictly enforced and adhered to.
- Possession of a party card should not be required to access advantages in the country. Everyone should have the same opportunity. At the beginning of voting, political parties and their candidates have given policy proposals to electorates. It is important to emphasize that while policy ideas might influence election outcomes, they are not the only determinant. Ethnicity, religion, gender, and party affiliation can all have a significant impact on election outcomes. Consequently, future researchers can examine how these other factors influence election outcomes by examining them individually. Since this study focused solely on literate university students, it would be prudent for other researchers to evaluate the influence of candidates' policy proposals among illiterate voters. This will help provide a full understanding of the young and the variables influencing their candidate selection. To get people to vote for them, political parties can also come up with plans that include all of the above factors.

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The Factors Influencing Intergenerational Mobility Levels among Higher Education Graduates in Brazil: A Comparison of the Years 2004 and 2018

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Abstract: The paper aims to analyze the levels of educational intergenerational mobility of students graduating from higher education in the years 2004 and 2018 and to identify the characteristics associated with the chances of higher levels of educational intergenerational mobility. The paper's main contribution is to provide evidence regarding how public policies contributed to intergenerational mobility. Moreover, the results highlight the persistent inequalities, which are often veiled by apparently positive results that do not conform to the real conditions necessary to break the cycle of poverty between generations. We use data from the Brazilian National Student Performance Exam (ENADE) and estimate an Ordered Probit. The study innovates in the use of data from university graduates, construction of mobility levels, calculation of mobility in relation to the father and the mother separately and controlling for the effect of higher education expansion policies. The results show that greater chances of intergenerational mobility in relation to parents are linked to the following conditions: being a woman; being over 24; a lower income family; not white or yellow; financially helping the family; studying in private institutions; having a scholarship or a Fies loan; being a 'quota student' and being a distance learning.

Keywords: *Education, Higher Education, Intergenerational Mobility, Ordered Probit, Public Policies.*

1. Introduction

Brazil is one of the most unequal countries in the world: the top 10% captures 59% of total national income while the bottom half of the population takes only around 10% (Chancel et al., 2022). This situation provokes a quest for solutions to reduce it; otherwise, its persistence can easily be reproduced between generations, making its eradication even more challenging. This fact is demonstrated by the results of the study by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2018) in which it was found that descendants of low-income Brazilian families (among the poorest 10%), can take up to nine generations to reach the country's average income. The most plausible solution for this situation is through intergenerational mobility of upward education, defined as the case in which the child's educational level, as an adult, is higher than that achieved by his father and/or mother. Intergenerational mobility of upward education is recognized as being fundamental for economic growth, poverty reduction and individual and social development in developing countries, as it generates instruments for achieving better occupations and, consequently, higher income (Li & Zhong, 2017; Tansel, 2002). Children of parents with little or no formal education, who complete higher education, tend to break the so-called poverty trap.

Since this level of education increases the chances of getting jobs with better wages and working conditions (Carvalhaes & Ribeiro, 2019; Hasenbalg, 2003; Salata, 2018). However, reaching higher education involves steps that are not always accessible to families whose parents have no or low education and, consequently, lower income. Among the obstacles to access and permanence are the competition for places in public institutions, the value of monthly fees in private institutions and the difficulty in reconciling study and work. More universal access to higher education is essential to reduce the disadvantages of less privileged groups in society (Carvalhaes & Ribeiro, 2019). Thus, given the pressing need to democratize access to higher education, an expansion in the number of institutions and places offered (Borges & Ribeiro, 2019; Dias Lopes, 2017) has been undertaken through federal public policies such as Fies, ProUni and Reuni. Although the ideal of expanding the admission of students from socio-economically disadvantaged classes endures, there are still barriers to access at this educational level (Mahlmeister et al., 2019). Therefore, this study seeks to identify the characteristics associated with the chances of university graduates, between the years 2004 and 2018, presenting higher levels of educational intergenerational mobility.

Mobility levels were classified as: high, when the father and/or mother never studied or only completed the first years of elementary school; medium, if the father and/or mother completed elementary school; low if the father and/or mother completed high school; and null (or immobility) when the parents completed higher education or graduate school. It should be noted that the individuals who completed higher education in these years (2004 and 2018) are representatives of different institutional contexts since Brazilian higher education has undergone significant changes in the last two decades. This is the first study to analyze educational intergenerational mobility from the perspective of mobility levels. To do so, the units of study adopted are graduates of higher education in Brazil, a level of education with great potential to positively change the economic and social reality of low-income families. In addition, variables related to Brazilian educational public policies are included in the model, enabling a comparison of the chances of higher mobility between those who benefitted from some public policy to reach higher education and those who did not.

The findings of this research are a source of evidence regarding, how public policies implemented over the analyzed time interval contributed to intergenerational mobility, or moreover highlight persistent inequalities, which are often veiled by apparently positive results that in reality do not conform to the real conditions necessary to break the cycle of poverty between generations. As for the analysis of the comparison of chances between groups, according to different variables, of the graduates presenting different levels of mobility, it is worth reiterating (Black & Devereux, 2011, pp. 31-32) who argue that studying intergenerational mobility and its characteristics is "crucial for the development of appropriate public policies because without knowing the mechanisms, it is impossible to understand how to promote change". Therefore, to achieve the proposed objectives, including this introduction, the article has six sections. Section two presents the institutional background related to more equitable access policies for higher education in Brazil, as well as the relevant theoretical framework for educational intergenerational mobility. Section three contains the database and variables used for the empirical strategy, which, in turn, is the subject of Section four. Section five presents and discusses the results obtained, and the Sixth and final Section includes the closing remarks.

2. Theoretical Background

Several studies have explored the relationship between income inequality and educational level associated with the process of accumulating human capital. According to (Checchi, 2006), the educational choices of one generation are correlated to the next, implying that greater equality in schooling will increase social mobility and a reduction in income inequality. In turn, persistent poverty and, therefore, low rates of intergenerational mobility, are the result of a convergence of social characteristics (Durlauf, 2002). In Brazil, the high levels of inequality are attributed to the low intergenerational mobility of income and education (Lam, 1999), determined by spatial segregation, racial discrimination and the multiplicity of family arrangements (Behrman et al., 2001). In this context, reducing educational intergenerational persistence is crucial when seeking to promote intergenerational income mobility and equal opportunities (Lee & Lee, 2021). The lack of upward mobility is it in terms of income, education or occupation, among low-income individuals results in the waste or underdevelopment of potential talents (OECD, 2018).

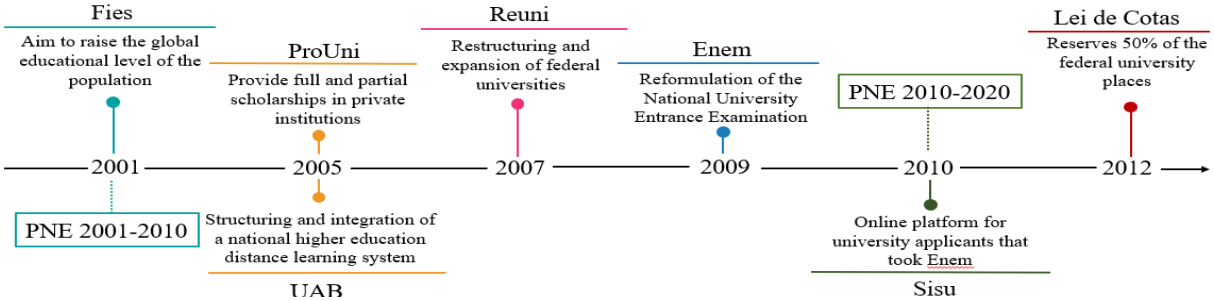
The influence of strong social inequalities on educational outcomes implies that not only individual capacity, but also social characteristics, such as income inequality, credit restrictions and government investments, affect children's educational performance (Lee & Lee, 2021; Pfeffer, 2007). Intergenerational mobility seeks to analyze the educational status between generations and how to overcome it. Even though it may not result in greater wage gains, a more educated society raises the general living conditions, creating a more developed environment and capable of providing more opportunities for future generations (Aydemir & Yazici, 2019). With this understanding, greater investments in education are made to improve social mobility and ensure a comprehensive educational system that replaces private parental investments in human capital (Herrington, 2015; Neidhöfer et al., 2018). In Brazil, having a university degree is directly correlated to increased productivity (Carvalho & Waltenberg, 2015), higher levels of income (Neidhöfer et al., 2018) and more valued social positions (Salata, 2018).

However, the persistence of social inequalities, both in relation to access and in relation to economic returns, demands a deeper analysis of the educational composition related to social origin and race at the highest

levels of education (Carvalhaes & Ribeiro, 2019; Marteleto et al., 2016). Given this, considering the importance of education in the economic and social development of a country, the transmission of inequalities between generations in developing economies is still a largely neglected topic of study (Emran & Shilpi, 2019). The empirical evidence on intergenerational mobility in Brazil (Ferreira & Veloso, 2003, 2006; Gonçalves et al., 2013; Longo & Vieira, 2017; Mahlmeister et al., 2019; Pero & Szerman, 2022; Ramalho & Junior, 2018) demonstrates that this topic is scarcely explored, mainly due to the restrictions imposed by the databases, which are composed, almost exclusively, from the National Household Sample Survey (PNAD)[1]. In the next section, public policies undertaken in the expansion process will be described, as well as more inclusive access to higher education in Brazil.

Institutional Background: Brazil has been undertaking changes in the structure and access to higher education since the late 1990s. Expanding the number of places, justified by Brazil's delay in ensuring the access of its young population to this educational level, has been the objective of several policies (Niquito et al., 2018). The National Education Plan (PNE) was the main measure established to increase the schooling of the population from early childhood education to higher education. Figure 1 shows a chronological summary of the main policies aimed at higher education from the PNE.

Figure 1: Chronology for the Implementation of Policies Designed to Expand Access to Brazilian Higher Education in the 2000s



Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Following the introduction of the PNE, the '*University for All Programs*' (ProUni) and the '*Student Financing Fund*' (Fies), both aimed at the private sector, were implemented. While the public sector saw the introduction of the '*Program to Support Federal University Restructuring and Expansion Plans*' (Reuni) and the expansion of distance learning through the 'Open University of Brazil' (UAB). The Fies program, introduced in 2001, sought to expand the financing of enrolled undergraduate students and aims to facilitate the access of low-income young people to higher education by offering a loan of up to 70% of the costs of the course, with low-interest rates and payment only after the course ends. ProUni, created in 2005, offers full and partial scholarships (50%) in private institutions of higher education and represents the main measure undertaken by the public administration in the democratization of higher education. ProUni and Fies, as tax waiver and direct financing policies, respectively, were fundamental in increasing enrolment in private institutions (Chaves et al., 2016).

According to data from (INEP, 2019), between 2001 and 2018, the number of enrolments in the private sector grew from 2.1 million to 6.4 million. Distance education, regulated through the UAB program, also from 2005, proposed the articulation and integration of a national system of higher distance education, which has become an "alternative" to face-to-face education in the democratization of public education in Brazil. Given the country's territorial extension and communication and information technologies, Distance education

[1] Created in 1967, the PNAD is an annual survey conducted by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (Ibge) among a sample of Brazilian households. Its purpose is to determine general characteristics of the population, including data on education, work, income and habitation, as well as other topics, depending on the period. More recently, it has been replaced by the 'PNAD Contínua' which collects similar information, but with greater frequency: at a national level on a monthly basis, and at subnational levels on a quarterly basis.

facilitates access to distant regions, compatibility of time, as well as permanent education (Garcia & Junior, 2015). This modality expanded 18 times between 2005 and 2018, from 114,642 to 2,056,511 enrolments and covering 24.3% of students enrolled in higher education (INEP, 2019). Continuing the goal of expanding and democratizing higher education, aimed at public institutions, Reuni appeared in 2007 to use the physical structure and human resources existing in the federal universities more efficiently.

During the program's existence, which ended in 2012, 60 public faculties and nineteen new federal universities began operations, increasing from 39 to 58 institutions, an expansion of approximately 50%. Reuni also sought to internalize higher education, to promote development in the regions where the new universities were installed (Vinhais, 2013). In short, the programs promoted an unprecedented expansion of the private and federal education network, expanding the number of places and institutions of higher education. The PNE reformulation in 2010 with the objectives of continuing and increasing the places offered in the federal higher education network through expansion and internalization, as well as favoring the participation of historically disadvantaged groups in higher education. The reformulation of the National High School Examination (Enem), the introduction of the Unified Selection System (Sisu) and the Quota Law comprise the main measures of the new PNE. The Enem was reformulated in 2009 to transform the examination from an evaluation instrument to a mechanism for unifying the selection processes of Brazilian federal universities. 2010 saw the implementation of the Sisu, an online platform designed to enroll students who took Enem in the places offered by public institutions of higher education.

Unifying the forms of selection, according to (Nogueira et al., 2017) is more efficient, while also lowering operational costs and providing greater reach for the institutions. In addition to promoting geographic mobility among students, Sisu, together with the Quota Law, can foster the inclusion of disadvantaged groups in higher education. In general, the law establishes that 50% of vacancies in federal institutes and universities are reserved for students from the public high school system. The places reserved for quota students are subdivided by income (higher and lower than 1.5 minimum wages *per capita*) and by the minimum percentage of the sum of black, brown and indigenous people in each unit of the federation. Articulating these accesses to higher education policies, especially in favor of socioeconomically disadvantaged groups, *a priori*, constitutes a favorable scenario for the reduction of inequalities. However, the effects of this expansion at the educational level have not yet been explored in relation to the capacity to promote intergenerational mobility in Brazil. Hence, the next section addresses the empirical strategy adopted to identify the chances of achieving a higher level of intergenerational education mobility in relation to parents' education.

3. Data and Variables

The empirical evidence upon which this study is based was generated from the Enade microdata[2], which consists of an annually applied test used to evaluate Brazilian higher education courses. Along with this test, students answer the "Student Questionnaire", which includes questions related to parental education, income, marital status and other socioeconomic issues relating to the individual. The Enade is completed by students entering into and graduating from higher education, however, given the objective of the study, only graduating students were included in the analyzed sample. According to Behrman et al. (2001), incoming students need to be excluded because they have not reached the highest level of education to make the comparison with the highest level of education achieved by their parents. The years 2004 and 2018, the first and the last year for which data are available were analyzed, enabling the analysis of the evolution and characteristics of cases of mobility over a period of fourteen years.

There was a significant expansion of higher education in Brazil. To define the level of educational intergenerational mobility, the level of education of the father and mother is used. The educational levels of

[2] The Enade was proposed in 2003 and formally instituted in 2004. The set of courses is divided into three blocks, and only one of these blocks is assessed each year. Based on the students' performance, the test, totalling 40 questions, is divided into two parts: the first on general knowledge (GK) and the second on a specific component (SC). In the GK component integral elements of the professional profile are considered, such as ethical attitude, social commitment, capacity for critical analysis. The SC assesses issues specific to the area of knowledge of the course.

the father and mother considered are no formal education or limited elementary education (early grades only); elementary school (complete); high school (complete) and higher education. If the father had little or no formal education (up to initial elementary grade), it is a case of high educational mobility, of the child in relation to the father. If the father completed elementary school, it is a case of medium mobility, if the father completed high school, it is considered low mobility. If the father has completed higher education or graduate studies, it is a case of educational immobility between the father and the child. The same classification is performed to identify the level of mobility between the child and the mother. The definition of the variables used in the study and their descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Definition of the Variables and Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Definition	Mean		Standard Deviation		Minimum		Maximum	
		2004	2018	2004	2018	2004	2018	2004	2018
Mobility in relation to the father	Categorical variable, with 0- Immobility; 1- Low Mobility; 2- Medium Mobility and 3- High Mobility	1.309	1.796	1.160	1.097	0	0	3	3
Mobility in relation to the mother	Categorical variable. with 0- Immobility; 1- Low Mobility; 2- Medium Mobility and 3- High Mobility	1.232	1.659	1.109	1.080	0	0	3	3
Sex	Dummy variable. with 1- Male and 0- Female	0.324	0.377	0.468	0.485	0	0	1	1
Age	Categorical variable. being 1- Up to 24 years old; 2- Between 24 and 30 years; 3- Over 30 years old	1.563	1.921	0.709	0.834	1	1	3	3
Skin color/Race	Categorical variable. being 1- White; 2- Black; 3- Brown; 4- Yellow and 5- Indigenous or of indigenous origin.	1.489	1.867	0.922	0.991	1	1	5	5
Income	Categorical variable. 1- From 1-3 minimum wages; 2- More than 3 to 10 minimum wages; 3- More than 10 to 30 minimum wages and 4- More than 30 minimum wages.	2.225	1.567	0.808	0.644	1	1	4	4
Family financial help	Categorical variable. 1- Receives financial assistance from the family; 2- Does not receive financial assistance from the family; 3- Helps the family financially	1.284	1.720	0.651	0.895	1	1	3	3
Brazilian regions	Categorical variable. 1- North; 2- Northeast; 3- Southeast; 4- South and 5- Midwest	3.172	3.097	0.867	0.981	1	1	5	5
Academic organization	Dummy variable. with 1- public institution and 0- a private institution	0.312	0.162	0.463	0.368	0	0	1	1
Scholarship or Financing	Categorical variable. for 2004: 1- Did not have a scholarship or financing or had another type (not identified) to cover the course expenses; 2- Obtained Fies; 3- Had a full or partial scholarship, offered by the institution or external entities. For 2018: 1- Did not receive any type of scholarship or financing; 2- Obtained ProUni (full or partial); 3- Obtained Fies; 4- Obtained Fies and partial ProUni; 5- Had a scholarship, offered by the state, district or municipal government, the institution itself or external entities.	1.461	2.263	0.784	1.05	1	1	3	6
Entry by quota policy	Dummy variable, 1- admission to the undergraduate course through Quotas and 0- otherwise		0.241		0.428		0		1
Teaching Modality	Dummy variable, with 1- taking a distance course and 0- face-to-face course		0.139		0.346		0		1

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The inclusion of the variables gender, age, skin color/race, income, family financial aid, Brazilian regions, administrative category of the educational institution, scholarships and financing, Quotas, and Distance Education were selected based on previous studies (ATHIAS & MATOS, 2013; Carvalho & Waltenberg, 2015; Chen et al., 2019; Junior et al., 2013; Longo & Vieira, 2017; Marteleto et al., 2016), which have shown,

empirically or theoretically, that such variables can increase or decrease the likelihood of intergenerational education mobility between parents and children. In Table 2, to show the panorama of cases of intergenerational mobility at each of the levels used, the percentages of mobility by level are presented.

Table 2: Percentage of Cases of Intergenerational Mobility According to the Levels of Mobility in Relation to the Father and Mother for those of 2004 and 2018

Mobility Levels	2004 Mobility in Relation to the Father	Mobility in Relation to the Mother	2018 Mobility in Relation to the Father	Mobility in Relation to the Mother
	Percentage	Percentage	Percentage	Percentage
Immobility	32.33	32.09	13.65	15.16
Low mobility	28.88	32.99	31.73	35.96
Medium mobility	14.48	14.37	16.18	16.94
High mobility	24.32	20.55	38.44	31.93

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Empirical Strategy – Model: In the present study, the dependent variable is a discrete ordinal variable that ranges from the absence of mobility, when the value of the dependent variable is zero, up to three when the child of illiterate parents who has completed the early elementary grades at most, reached higher education. Due to the nature of the dependent variable, the ordered probit model was considered the most appropriate to estimate the chances of mobility (Cheema et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Cyrenne & Grant, 2009). The model takes the form:

$Y_i^* = \beta^T X_i + \varepsilon_i \quad \varepsilon_i \sim N(0,1)$ (1)

$Y_i = 0, \ if \ Y^* > \propto_1$ (Student's mother/father has completed university) (1.1)

$Y_i = 1, \ if \ \propto_1 \geq Y^* > \propto_2$ (Mother/father has completed high school) (1.2)

$Y_i = 2, \ if \ \propto_2 \geq Y^* > \propto_3$ (Mother/father has completed elementary school) (1.3)

$Y_i = 3, \ if \ Y^* \leq \propto_3$ (Mother/father are illiterate or completed early grades of elementary school) (1.4)

In this article, Y_i is constructed based on the schooling of the students' mother and father; *Yi* is the four mobility levels, with zero representing immobility, that is, when the student's mother or father completed university and three the highest level of educational intergenerational mobility, when the child of illiterate parents or with only early elementary education graduates from university; *Xi* is a vector of explanatory variables that, in addition to controlling for personal characteristics, measures socioeconomic factors and opportunities as detailed in Table 1. The same model specification is used to separately estimate educational mobility in relation to the father and in relation to the mother for the years 2004 and 2018, respectively. In addition to the results of the Ordered Probit model, it is necessary to estimate the marginal effects, given that the coefficients of the Probit models only reveal the direction of the effect and not the magnitude of that effect. Formally, the marginal effects can be expressed as follows:

$E_t = \Phi(\beta_i X_i)$ (2)

$\frac{\partial E_i}{\partial X_i} = \beta_i \Phi(\beta_i X_i)$ (3)

The coefficients of the marginal effects indicate the extent to which a 1% change in the independent variable causes a change in the dependent variable. The results of the estimates are presented below.

4. Analysis of the Results

In general, the results show that men; over 24 years of age; blacks, browns or mulattos and indigenous people (compared to whites); who do not receive financial assistance from the family to support themselves or who financially help the family were more likely to have a higher level of mobility in relation to the father and mother. Likewise, those who were completing their studies at private institutions; located in the Southeast and South regions (compared to the North region); remained in higher education through a partial scholarship from ProUni with the remainder of the monthly amount financed by Fies (compared to those without a scholarship or loans); who accessed via the Quota policy and study in the distance modality, are the

groups that are most likely to represent a case of greater educational intergenerational mobility. The Probit Ordered model results allow the identification of the signs and significance of the coefficients.

But do not permit the extraction of the percentage of chances each variable has of increasing or decreasing the chances of intergenerational mobility. Thus, the main analyses will be performed based on the average marginal effects of each explanatory variable, presented in Tables 3 and 4, in relation to the years 2004 and 2018, respectively. Given a large number of results, they will be described according to the order of the explanatory variables used in the model. The emphasis of this explanation lies on the chances of high mobility in relation to the father and in relation to the mother, because high levels of mobility generate more concrete conditions for the cycle of poverty to be interrupted and, in the long run, lead to decreased inequality (Carvalhaes & Ribeiro, 2019; Salata, 2018). Regarding gender, it can be seen that in both years, men were less likely to represent higher-level mobility cases than women.

This result shows male higher education graduates were more likely to be children of fathers and mothers with higher or secondary education. Therefore, it can be affirmed that there is a greater educational persistence for these individuals, associated with the maintenance of socioeconomic status (Pero & Szerman, 2022). This result is in agreement with the literature that shows parents with university degrees tend to contribute more, encouraging their children to also complete this educational level. This incentive can stem from the awareness of the value of education or the willingness to invest more financial, social and cultural capital in the lives of their children so that they have at least the same level of education as themselves (Checchi, 2006; Mahlmeister et al., 2019). The results may also be providing evidence of the growth of a gender educational gap, with women of all classes studying more than men, while boys, especially those from the poorest classes, maybe drop out of school before completing high school. In fact, women between 18 and 29 years old have 11.6 years of study, while for men, this rate is 10.9 (below the Brazilian average) (INEP, 2019). According to the report developed by (OECD, 2018), women are 34% more likely to graduate from higher education, although they have greater difficulty in finding employment.

Women university graduates were more likely to be daughters of parents with less education. According to (Paschoal, 2005), women, especially from younger cohorts, tend to be more educated than men and older people. This occurs despite the fact women face a higher cost (financial and personal effort); because they have to reconcile studies with domestic chores, face family resistance, as well as there, are lower expectations of return in the labor market. Over the past few years, women have become the majority in higher education. In 2004, men, when compared to women, were 4.49% less likely to represent a case of high mobility in relation to the father and 3.79% less in relation to the mother. It appears that this difference, in relation to women, decreased in 2018, with the reduction being greater for mobility in relation to the father, showing that the graduating men, the sons of fathers without schooling or only with the early grades of elementary school are receiving greater incentives to enter higher education. Regarding age, it is interesting to note that in 2004 and 2018, graduates over 30 years old stood out in terms of mobility. In both years, the student population over 24 years of age showed a significantly higher chance of representing a case of high mobility.

But the students over the age of 30 years remain the highlight. In 2004, university graduates over 30 were 28.7% more likely to have a father with no schooling or early years of elementary school and 33.6% more to have a mother without schooling or early years of elementary school than the younger graduates. In 2018, the differences between the age groups in the chances of representing cases of high mobility decreased, however, those over 30 years of age were still 18.8% more likely to have a father, and 23.9 % more likely to have a mother with little or no formal education. Notably, the chances of high mobility were greater in relation to the mother than to the father in both analyzed years. However, the percentage of chances of representing cases of mobility between ages decreased over time. These results demonstrate that Brazil has not yet been able to meet the historical demand for higher education, nor ensure that people enter higher education at the recommended age. In addition, people with less educated parents still need to wait longer to receive the opportunity to enter a university. In this context, the expansion of places is allowing individuals whose parents have little education, of different age groups, to resume their studies even though they have to wait longer to enter and/or have to find a job to support themselves.

Table 3: Marginal Effects of Independent Variables on Mobility in Relation to Father and Mother for 2004

Base Category	Variables	Immobility		Low Mobility		Medium Mobility		High Mobility	
		Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Sex - Female	Sex - Male	0.0526***	0.0550***	0.00287***	1.74e-05	-0.0106***	-0.0139***	-0.0449***	-0.0412***
Age- Up to 24 years	Between 24 and 30 years	-0.0780***	-0.101***	-0.00335***	0.00125***	0.0179***	0.0293***	0.0635***	0.0704***
	Over 30 years	-0.245***	-0.289***	-0.0737***	-0.102***	0.0325***	0.0554***	0.287***	0.336***
Color/Race- White	Black	-0.0936***	-0.0986***	-0.0133***	-0.00979***	0.0168***	0.0236***	0.0901***	0.0848***
	Brown	-0.0576***	-0.0600***	-0.00554***	-0.00264***	0.0112***	0.0149***	0.0520***	0.0477***
	Yellow	0.0415***	-0.0138	-0.000497	0.000197***	-0.00912***	0.00353	-0.0319***	0.0101
	Indigenous	-0.0504***	-0.0470***	-0.00440*	-0.00126	0.00988***	0.0118***	0.0449***	0.0364***
Family Income- Up to 3 MW	From 3 to 10 MW	0.0691***	0.0667***	0.0220***	0.0139***	-0.0111***	-0.0162***	-0.0800***	-0.0645***
	Between 10 to 30 MW	0.251***	0.194***	0.0186***	0.00624***	-0.0548***	-0.0507***	-0.215***	-0.149***
	More than 30 MW	0.461***	0.332***	-0.0529***	-0.0358***	-0.108***	-0.0876***	-0.300***	-0.209***
Receives financial assistance from the family	Does not receive financial assistance from the family	-0.0992***	-0.106***	-0.0147***	-0.0120***	0.0185***	0.0263***	0.0954***	0.0917***
	Helps the family financially	-0.121***	-0.126***	-0.0215***	-0.0183***	0.0212***	0.0304***	0.121***	0.114***
North Region	Northeast Region	0.0487***	0.0503***	0.000811	-0.00543***	-0.0103***	-0.0131***	-0.0393***	-0.0318***
	Southeast Region	0.00308	-0.0381***	0.000200	0.000482	-0.000613	0.00967***	-0.00267	0.0280***
	South Region	-0.00443	-0.0378***	-0.000326	0.000494	0.000874	0.00958***	0.00389	0.0277***
	Midwest region	-0.00556	-0.0147	-0.000416	0.000587	0.00109	0.00377	0.00488	0.0103
Private Educational Institution	Public Educational Institution	0.0206***	0.0205***	0.00112***	6.50e-06	-0.00415***	-0.00516***	-0.0175***	-0.0153***
No scholarship or loan	Has a loan (Fies)	-0.0617***	-0.0323***	-0.00637***	-0.000743**	0.0118***	0.00809***	0.0563***	0.0250***
	Receives a scholarship	-0.0257***	-0.0225***	-0.00156***	-0.000241	0.00520***	0.00567***	0.0220***	0.0171***

Source: Elaborated by the authors.
Notes: The numbers in parentheses are standard errors. *, **, *** Significant at the levels of 10%, 5% and 1%, respectively.

Table 4: Marginal Effects of the Independent Variables on Mobility in Relation to Father and Mother for the Year 2018

Base Category	Variables	Immobility		Low Mobility		Medium Mobility		High Mobility	
		Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Sex - Female	Sex- Male	0.0229***	0.0246***	0.0191***	0.0175***	-0.00131***	-0.00427***	-0.0407***	-0.0379***
Age- Up to 24 years	Age- Between 24 and 30 years	-0.0386***	-0.0562***	-0.0268***	-0.0292***	0.00525***	0.0149***	0.0601***	0.0705***
	Age- over 30 years	-0.0969***	-0.137***	-0.0938***	-0.123***	0.00267***	0.0211***	0.188***	0.239***
Skin color/Race- White	Black	-0.0206***	-0.0206***	-0.0175***	-0.0152***	0.00118***	0.00349***	0.0369***	0.0323***
	Brown	-0.0232***	-0.0170***	-0.0200***	-0.0123***	0.00122***	0.00295***	0.0420***	0.0263***
	Yellow	0.00959***	0.00564**	0.00701***	0.00360**	-0.00097***	-0.00111**	-0.0156***	-0.00813**
	Indigenous	-0.00440	-0.0151**	-0.00345	-0.0108*	0.000363	0.00265**	0.00748	0.0232**

	From 3 to 10 MW	0.0918***	0.0968***	0.0904***	0.0794***	-0.00502***	-0.0179***	-0.177***	-0.158***
Family Income- Up to 3 MW	Between 10 and 30 MW	0.286***	0.276***	0.118***	0.0900***	-0.0543***	-0.0704***	-0.350***	-0.295***
	More than 30 SM	0.390***	0.408***	0.0901***	0.0447***	-0.0817***	-0.106***	-0.399***	-0.346***
Receives financial assistance from the family	Does not receive financial assistance from the family	-0.0263***	-0.0344***	-0.0221***	-0.0251***	0.00170***	0.00623***	0.0467***	0.0533***
	Helps the family financially	-0.0383***	-0.0449***	-0.0342***	-0.0347***	0.00164***	0.00752***	0.0709***	0.0721***
North Region	Northeast Region	-0.00345*	-0.0141***	-0.00263*	-0.00692***	0.000299*	0.00325***	0.00577*	0.0178***
	Southeast Region	-0.00497***	-0.0429***	-0.00382***	-0.0251***	0.000420**	0.00894***	0.00836***	0.0590***
	South Region	-0.0316***	-0.0694***	-0.0278***	-0.0476***	0.00131***	0.0125***	0.0581***	0.104***
	Midwest region	-0.0181***	-0.0331***	-0.0148***	-0.0182***	0.00118***	0.00716***	0.0317***	0.0441***
Private Educational Institution	Public Educational Institution	0.00988***	0.0192***	0.00827***	0.0137***	-0.00056***	-0.00334***	-0.0176***	-0.0296***
	Has a loan (Fies)	0.00912***	0.0123***	0.00747***	0.00855***	-0.00058***	-0.00219***	-0.0160***	-0.0187***
No scholarship or loan	Receives a scholarship (non-federal)	0.00581***	0.00484***	0.00483***	0.00350***	-0.00034***	-0.000824***	-0.0103***	-0.00751***
	Receives a ProUni scholarship	-0.00426***	0.00318**	-0.00372***	0.00232**	0.000182***	-0.000535**	0.00780***	-0.00496**
	Receives Partial ProUni and Fies	-0.0147***	-0.0118***	-0.0135***	-0.00931***	0.000347***	0.00177***	0.0278***	0.0193***
	Other financing	0.00324	-0.00234	0.00273	-0.00175	-0.000178	0.000379	-0.00579	0.00371
Did not enter higher education through Quotas	Entered higher education through quotas	-0.0169***	-0.0149***	-0.0142***	-0.0107***	0.000966***	0.00259***	0.0301***	0.0230***
On-campus Teaching Modality	Teaching Modality – online/distance Learning	-0.0349***	-0.0187***	-0.0293***	-0.0134***	0.00200***	0.00325***	0.0622***	0.0289***

Source: Elaborated by the authors.
Notes: The numbers in parentheses are standard errors. *, **, *** Significant at the levels of 10%, 5% and 1%, respectively.

The results referring to skin color/race show that, in relation to whites, graduates who declare themselves to be black or brown have significantly less chance of representing cases of immobility or low mobility and significantly greater chances of representing cases of medium and high mobility in the studied years. This reveals that the students from those groups who reach higher education, are children of parents with low levels of education and that these students are the first generation to have the opportunity to invest in human capital. Meanwhile, the graduates who declared themselves indigenous, in addition to being less represented in the population of university students, reduced the chances of being cases of high mobility between 2004 and 2018. These results are explained by the fact that the cohort of young Brazilians who started high school and higher education after 2002 was the first to be exposed to an institutionalized set of educational and social policies aimed at including minorities in education. The expansion of minority access to higher education may have led to a narrowing of the racial gap in Brazilian higher education (Marteleto et al., 2016). Regarding income, one can see that higher education is a persistent feature among the highest income brackets.

In 2004 and 2018, for the group earning between 3 and 30 minimum wages, mobility tends to be low. Thus, when graduates from families with incomes of more than 30 minimum wages are compared with those of families with income of up to 3 minimum wages, it is apparent that in 2004 those with higher income have a 30% less chance of representing a case of high mobility in relation to the father and 20.9% less chance in

relation to the mother. By 2018 these percentages are even higher, with 39.9% less chance of high mobility in relation to the father and 34.6% less in relation to the mother. Therefore, restricted income imposes barriers to accessing higher education, although children spend more time in school in relation to parents (Mahlmeister et al., 2019) and government policies, namely ProUni and Fies, have sought to reduce this disparity. The variable intended to control for the financial situation of the student in college, whether receiving assistance from the family or having to contribute financially towards maintaining family household expenses, shows that the latter are more likely to be cases of mobility than those who received parental financial support. Longo & Vieira (2017) found similar results for adolescents aged 16 to 19.

The possibility of completing elementary school, suggests that having a job may allow individuals to invest in their own education. This result may also be associated with the current set up of Brazilian higher education, which offers various forms of access and modes of study, as well as allowing people who did not have the opportunity to study at the recommended age to return to study by attending distance education or evening courses. This means that married adults with children can complete higher education, even if their parents had little or no formal education. As for the Brazilian regions, the expansion of access to higher education that occurred between the years 2004 and 2018 was found to have increased the chances of mobility in all the regions in relation to the North region, but particularly in the Northeast and Midwest regions. In 2004, only graduates from institutions located in the Northeast region were statistically more likely to represent cases of greater intergenerational mobility compared to the father, when compared to the North region. In 2018 there was a clear inversion in terms of the chances of mobility between regions. In general, we can say that mobility levels improved between 2004 and 2018 and that this mobility was ensured, including, through scholarships and student loan programs, among the university graduate of 2004.

Those who received funding from the federal government (Fies) had 5.63% more chances of representing a case of high mobility in relation to their father and 2.5% more in relation to their mother than those who had no scholarship or funding. Those who obtained (non-federal) scholarships**,** on the other hand, had the chances increased by 2.20% in relation to the father and 1.71% in relation to the mother when compared to the same group. By 2018, there were more funding options available for those who wanted to enter higher education, such as ProUni, which offers full or partial scholarships to individuals from low-income families to attend private education institutions. Moreover, students who only receive a partial scholarship can apply for a low-interest Fies loan to cover the rest of the costs. In this way, Fies and ProUni have become tools for greater social inclusion in higher education. Those students with partial ProUni scholarships plus Fies loans were found to have the greatest chance of representing a case of high mobility, when compared to those who have no funding or a non-federal scholarship, with 2.78% more chances of high mobility compared in relation to the father and 1.93% in relation to the mother. When analyzing the chances of high mobility among those paying for their courses with Fies loans alone, it was found that in 2018, they presented 1.6% fewer chances of high mobility in relation to the father and 1.87% fewer chances in relation to the mother.

This result is contrary to that found in 2004 – when those who obtained Fies loans were more likely to have high mobility than those who had neither a scholarship nor financing. This shows that in 2004, given the absence of other programs, such as ProUni, the children of parents without schooling had Fies as a gateway to higher education, which changed in 2018, due to the existence of full and partial scholarships via ProUni. Making Fies a more viable option for those who are able to afford the full course costs when they finish and can guarantee to offer financial institutions. Graduates who attended public institutions were less likely to have medium and high intergenerational mobility than those who attended private institutions in both the analyzed years. In 2004, those who studied at a public institution were 1.75% less likely than those who attended a private university to have high mobility in relation to the father and 1.53% less in relation to the mother. In 2018, the percentage of fewer chances of mobility in relation to the father of graduates in public institutions was similar to that of 2004 (1.76%). When considering the chances of high mobility in relation to the mother, this percentage increased, with those that studied in public institutions having 2.96% less chance of high mobility, compared to those attending private institutions.

This result reflects the '*elitization*' of Brazilian public higher education, which, according to (Salata, 2018), consists of a smaller number of high prestige public institutions, which are difficult to access due to the intense competition for places and a large majority of lower prestige private institutions, which offer

relatively low enrolment costs and less competition for places. In Brazil, many of the graduates from public institutions, especially those taking more competitive courses, have parents who completed higher education and have an income level capable of bearing the costs of a private university. However, they invest educationally in their children from infancy, which produces in the competitive entrance exams for places at public institutions (Salata, 2018). This situation ends up making private institutions more accessible, either through scholarships, loans or own resources. It was also found that those who entered higher education through the quota reserved places, being related to income, having studied in public or private schools with a high school scholarship, or skin color/race were more likely to present a higher level of mobility in relation to new students entering through universal means. Those who entered via the quota program in 2018 were 3.01%.

More likely to be highly mobile cases in relation to the father and 2.30% more likely in relation to the mother. This result shows that although access to university/college remains far from universal in Brazil, policies based on race and class have improved opportunities for higher education in the last fifteen years and the massive expansion of opportunities at this level of education has increased access for minorities to higher education institutions (Marteleto et al., 2016). It was also evident that the graduates who took distance learning courses, compared to those who attended in person, had 6.22% more chances of high mobility in relation to the father and 2.89% in relation to the mother. This can be explained by the fact that distance learning courses are more accessible than face-to-face courses, having a simplified selection process, while the flexible hours facilitate the combination of work and study. Finally, it is worth noting the variables that show the greatest differences in chances between groups of presenting cases of high mobility were in 2004: age (those over 30 years old, compared to those under 24 years old), family income (those with a family income of more than 30 minimum wages, compared to those with an income of up to 3 minimum wages) and the family's financial aid (those who helped the family financially, compared to those who helped by the family). In 2018, the same variables and groups appear are maintained, with the addition of the variable region (those concluding an institution in the South region, compared to those in the North region).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Brazilian higher education has undergone significant changes in recent decades, among them, one can mention the expansion of access, together with policies of affirmative action, financing and restructuring. Being considered essential in promoting a more egalitarian society, completion of this level of education is associated with higher income and social ascension. Therefore, this study analyzed the levels of intergenerational mobility of education among graduates of higher education in the years 2004 and 2018 by estimating an Ordered Probit model. It should be noted that the following conditions are (separately) linked to a greater chance of high intergenerational mobility in relation to parents: being a woman; being over 24 years old; being from a low-income family; being black, brown or indigenous; financially helping the family; studying in a private institution; have a partial ProUni scholarship and financing the rest of the fees through a Fies loan; having entered higher education through quotas and completed higher education via distance learning. An outstanding point was the difference in the level of mobility in relation to the father in 2004 and 2018, and in 2004, most graduates had parents who had completed higher education, while in 2018, most of the parents of graduates had little or no formal education.

Furthermore, notably, it was women, the daughters of parents with little or no formal education, more than men from the same parental group, who were able to take advantage of the expansion of places and affirmative policies available for higher education that occurred in this period. However, we cannot overlook the fact that access to higher education is still limited to a small part of the population. Thus, the increase in the percentage of cases of high mobility should be seen as the beginning of an objective to be pursued, one in which supposedly circumstantial variables, such as family income, skin color/race, region, parental education, do not represent the obstacles to accessing higher education and getting compatible jobs, with fair wages. Thus, the findings of the present study identify the characteristics associated with increased intergenerational mobility and can be used to decide to whom public policies should be directed when aiming to reduce the inequality of opportunities and access to higher education. Identifying these characteristics and groups makes it possible to design focused actions for individuals and families with similar characteristics, but who have not yet had access to mobility. Since the results showed higher chances of medium and high

mobility among non-white people, over 30 years old, studying in private institutions and beneficiaries of some government programs.

The following public policies are recommended: 1) Aiming to reach a large number of young people and adults living in large families in situations of vulnerability, we recommend the expansion of the current upper limit of two before taxes minimum wages per family as a condition to access to PROUNI; 2) Creation of more specific programs, design for example for people over 30 who did not have the opportunity to access higher education when young; 3) Adopt programs that start in childhood or adolescence, such as Head Start and the Quantum Opportunity Program implemented in the United States intending to promote the intellectual, social and physical development of preschool-age children in contexts of social vulnerability. And the Quantum Opportunity was also implemented in the United States but focused on 9th-grade students with low grades. These examples can serve as insight for Brazilian public policies to encourage high intergenerational mobility in education. Ultimately, it should be noted there is a need for further investigation into whether obtaining a university degree is enabling graduates, in cases of high mobility, to obtain jobs suited to that level of education. Another issue is the quality of the institutions and courses that individuals with high mobility are attending, as employability and wages are also linked to these issues.

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