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EFFECT OF PARTITIVE VARIATION TEACHING STRATEGY ON PUPIL'S MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE IN BASIC SCHOOL ALGEBRA IN BENUE STATE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of partitive variation teaching strategy on pupils' motivation and academic performance in basic five algebra in Benue state, Nigeria. The quasi experimental, pretest-posttest design was adopted for the research. Four schools were systematically selected in Zone B education zone of the state. There were 113 pupils (54 male, 59 female) in the experimental group and 141 pupils (77 male, 64 female) in the control group. Two research questions and two hypotheses guided the study. There were two instruments used for the study: the algebra performance test (APT) which was an objective test and the Algebra Motivation Questionnaire (AMQ). These were administered on the respondents before and after teaching using carefully prepared lesson plans for both groups of pupils. The experimental procedure took 6 weeks from training to completion. The data collected were analysed using SPSS for Windows analytical software. Means and standard deviations were used to answer the research questions. The multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to compare the means of motivation ratings, while analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Findings revealed that there was statistically significant difference $F(6,490) = 44.64; P = 0.00 < 0.05$ in the mean motivation ratings and mean performance $F(3,245) = 43.12; P = 0.00 < 0.05$ between the experimental and control groups. The study concluded that the partitive variation teaching strategy motivates pupils and improves algebra performance among Basic 5 pupils.

Keywords: partitive variation, motivation, performance, algebra, Basic school

INTRODUCTION

Mathematics education undoubtedly takes center stage in a world of unending scientific and technological advancements, as human kind continually seeks answers to questions about its needs and those of the society. Countries continue to place premium on the teaching and learning of school mathematics. Students need to acquire mathematical

knowledge and skills to compete and survive in life as well contribute their own quota to their immediate society and the world at large. These skills include logical reasoning, problem solving, and the ability to think in abstract ways. The challenge in education today however, is to effectively teach students of diverse ability and different pace of learning so they are able to learn mathematics by developing positive motivation and improved performances in mathematics learning.

Motivational theories seek to investigate what gets individuals to move towards what activities and to describe the characteristics of these activities (Pantziara & Philipou, 2015). Motivation is defined as an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior, but simply stated motivation is a reason of students' thinking in a given situation (Garut, 2011). Motivation may also be seen as a theoretical concept utilized to clarify human behaviour. It provides the motive for human beings to react and fulfill their needs (Gopalan, Bakar, Zulkifli, & Mat, 2017). The question of how to motivate students in the classroom has become a leading concern for teachers of all disciplines.

Addressing the issue of content, Iji and Omenka (2015) found that the responses of the subjects involved in their study showed poor agreement in the classifications of the mathematics concepts in algebra, number and numeration, geometry, trigonometry and statistics. The high rate of failure in public examination in Nigeria remains a huge problem to researchers, teachers and indeed all stakeholders in education. Studies have identified factors responsible for the high rates of failure to include among others, students' negative attitude to the subject, lack of qualified teachers, inadequacy of teachers, lack of necessary learning skills, specialized language of the subject and inadequate and unsuitable textbooks. Also, it has been established that there is a significant relationship between teachers' method of teaching, teachers' attitude and students' achievement in mathematics (Avong, 2013; Daso, 2013).

The variation teaching strategy which is based on the variation theory is one of those novel teaching strategies employed by mathematics teachers. Variation theory is a theory of learning and experience that



explains how a learner might come to see, understand, or experience a given phenomenon in a certain way and why two students sitting in the same class might come to understand a concept differently. It is a necessary component in teaching in order for students to notice what is to be learned (Bussey, Orgill&Crippen, 2012; Learning Project Team of HKU, 2011; Kullberg, Kempe&Marton, 2017).

Lai and Murray (2013) opine that procedural variation is derived from three forms of problem solving in algebra: Varying a problem; extending the original problem by varying the conditions, changing the results and generalization. Partitive Variation Teaching Strategy (PVTs) is when a part or parts of a particular problem are held constant, while other parts are changed. For example, given $y = 2$, evaluate:

- $5y$
- $5y - 3$
- $5y^2 - 3$
- $5y^2)^2 - 3$

It can be used to address individual differences in the classroom by allowing students to draw upon their personal experiences and apply them in their learning (Cheng, 2016). Random Variation Teaching Strategy (RVTS) on the other hand refers to the teaching of algebra, in which cases, entire set of problems come with a varied structures. For example, given that $y = 2$, evaluate:

- $x + 5$
- $4x - 9$
- $3x^2 + 7$
- $9(x - 2)$

The object of learning for both examples is to evaluate algebraic expressions by substituting letters for numbers. A mathematics pedagogy that is rooted in variation is one that purposefully provides

learners with the means to experience variation through strategically designed activities in order to create a mathematically rich learning environment that allows learners to discern the object of learning. It is defined by its critical features that must be discerned in order to constitute the meaning aimed for. So as a pedagogic approach, a pattern of variation is a useful tool for structuring teaching to make the learning of the object of learning possible (Mhlolo, 2013). This ultimately leads to improved performances as evidenced by a number of studies.

The study by Ifelunni, Ugwu, Aneke, Ibiām, Ngwoke, Ezema, Charles, Oraelosi, & Ede (2019) investigated motivation as a determinant of academic achievement of primary school pupils in Mathematics in South-East, Nigeria. A population of 357,115 primary 5 pupils in all the 5,378 public primary schools in South-East, Nigeria was used for the study. The sample for the study comprised 400 primary 5 pupils. The findings of the study revealed, among others that there is a significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and primary school pupil's academic achievement. Liu (2018) carried out a study on "Potential reciprocal relationship between motivation and achievement: A longitudinal study". It included students from 1,052 high schools across the United States. Motivation had a greater influence on follow-up mathematics achievement ($O.079$, $p < 0.001$). Jing, Tarmizi, Bakar and Aralas (2017) investigated the effect of utilizing Variation Theory Based Strategy on students' algebraic achievement and motivation in learning algebra. The study used quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group research design and involved 56 Form Two (Secondary Two) students in two classes (28 in experimental group, 28 in control group) in Malaysia. Result from analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) indicated that the experimental group students achieved significantly better test scores than the control group. In addition, result of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) also showed evidences of significant effect of VTBS on experimental students' overall motivation. These results suggested the utilization of VTBS would improve students' learning in algebra. Effect of integrated curriculum delivery strategy on



secondary school students' achievement and retention in Algebra in Benue state was experimented by Anyor and Iji (2010). The population comprised 1,368 Senior Secondary 1 students out of which 149 were purposively sampled. The study found among other things that Integrated Curriculum Delivery Strategy (ICDS) enhanced students' achievement and retention in algebra taught during the course of the study. The ICDS highlighted the importance of creativity which is akin to the partitive variation teaching strategy, in the teaching and learning of algebra in schools. These empirical studies provided gaps and conclusions which were further investigated in the present study.

The following research questions guided the study:

- i. What is the effect of the PVTs on the mean motivation ratings of Basic 5 pupils as compared to those taught using the RVTs?
- ii. What is the effect of the PVTs on the mean algebraic performance of Basic 5 pupils as compared to those taught using RVTs?

Two corresponding null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

- i. There is no significant effect of the PVTs on the mean motivation ratings of Basic 5 pupils as compared to those taught using the RVTs.
- ii. There is no significant effect of the PVTs on the mean algebraic performance of Basic 5 pupils as compared to those taught using RVTs.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The quasi experimental, pretest-posttest, control group design is adopted for the study. This design is seen as suitable due to the inability to manipulate and randomize the respondents who were primary school pupils studying in Basic Five. Denga (2017) posited that quasi-experimental studies are conducted under conditions that do not permit control, manipulation of variables or random selection. Random assignment can be achieved but the intact groups coupled with administrative constraints (random selection may lead to a disruption

of school organization and classes) do not allow randomization, control or manipulation. It is an investigation of the effectiveness of a teaching method where random selection of subjects is not possible being a good example, in this study, the Partitive Variation Teaching Strategy.

The area of study is Benue Education Zone B, also called Benue North West Senatorial Zone. The population comprised 20,895 pupils from 1,804 primary schools in Zone B education zone of Benue state (SUBEB, Makurdi, 2019). The sample for this study was 254 pupils. There was a total of 113 pupils (54 male and 59 female) in the experimental group, while the control group had 141 pupils (77 male and 64 female).

Procedure Methodology

The study made use of 2 instruments: Algebra Motivation Questionnaire (AMQ) and the Algebra Performance Test (APT). The AMQ was a 30-item motivation questionnaire containing both pleasant (positively skewed) and unpleasant (negatively skewed) items, designed by the researcher. The Algebra Performance Test (APT) was a 20-item test set by the researcher. There were 2 sets of lesson plans for the research in each sub-topic treated, one for the Partitive Variation Teaching Strategy (experimental group) and the other for the Random Variation Teaching Strategy (control group). Some lesson plans were for a period of 1 hour, while others were for 30 minutes.

Statistical Analysis

The means and standard deviations of the variables studied were used to answer the research questions. The Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the hypotheses relating to students' algebraic performance. Motivation on the other hand, was analysed using Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) with data obtained from the AMQ. Both hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

RESULT

The data is presented according to the objectives of the study. This is done by placing data for a research questions first and followed immediately by the corresponding hypothesis.



Research question one: What is the effect of PVTs on the mean ratings of Basic 5 pupils' motivation as compared to those taught using the RVTs?

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for mean motivation ratings in the experimental and control groups

| | Motivation | Experimental (N = 113) | | Control (N = 141) | |
|----------|--------------|------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Dev. | Mean | Std. Dev. |
| Posttest | Attention | 3.62 | 0.25 | 2.26 | 0.38 |
| | Relevance | 3.29 | 0.34 | 2.73 | 0.38 |
| | Confidence | 3.04 | 0.42 | 2.85 | 0.43 |
| | Satisfaction | 3.10 | 0.44 | 2.86 | 0.37 |
| | Interest | 3.22 | 0.35 | 2.71 | 0.41 |
| | Total | 3.26 | 0.42 | 2.68 | 0.45 |
| Pretest | Attention | 2.49 | 0.37 | 2.36 | 0.32 |
| | Relevance | 2.84 | 0.35 | 2.56 | 0.30 |
| | Confidence | 2.94 | 0.43 | 2.90 | 0.42 |
| | Satisfaction | 2.91 | 0.42 | 2.83 | 0.43 |
| | Interest | 2.94 | 0.41 | 2.67 | 0.37 |
| | Total | 2.83 | 0.43 | 2.66 | 0.42 |

Results in *Table 1* display the means and standard deviations of the responses with respect to motivation of pupils in the experimental and control groups. It reveals that in the experimental group, the pupils consistently improved individually and in the total means (2.83 to 3.26) while the standard deviation got smaller from 0.43 to 0.42 which shows an improvement in the data distribution across the sub-scales of attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction and interest. Results in the table also illustrate the means and standard deviations of the responses with respect to motivation of pupils in the control group. It reveals that the pupils appear to have responded in a similar fashion individually and in the total means (2.66 and 2.68). The standard deviations were 0.42 and 0.45 across the sub-scales of attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction and interest. The standard deviations in both groups showed elements of homogeneity in their responses.

Effect of Partitive Variation Teaching Strategy on Pupil's Motivation and Performance in Basic School Algebra in Benue State, Nigeria

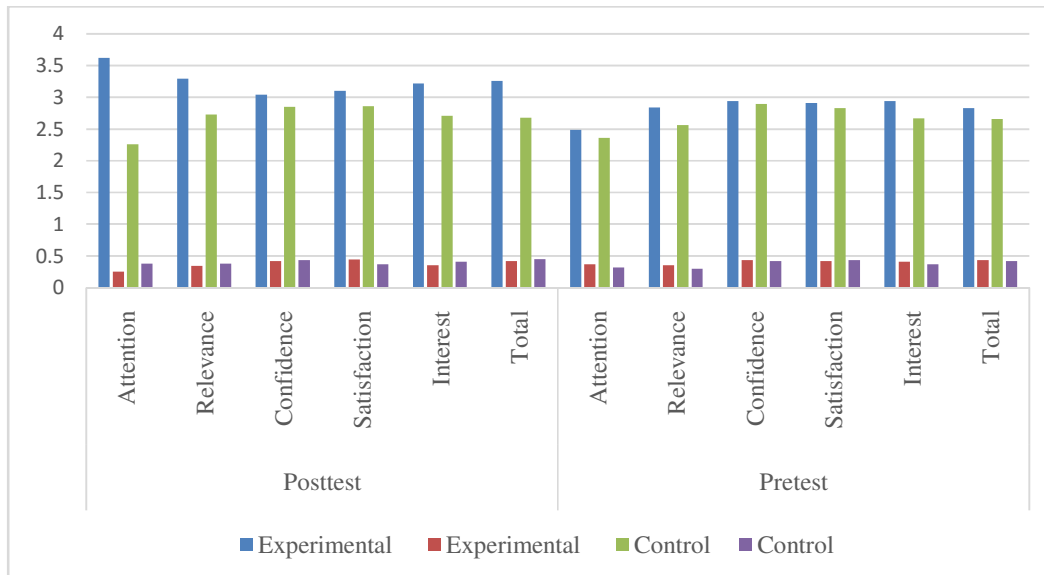


Figure 1: Bar chart for mean motivation ratings in the experimental and control groups

The figure is a pictorial representation of Table 1. It displays the means and standard deviations of the experimental group in blue and red respectively, while the means and standard deviations of the control group are displayed in green and purple respectively.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the motivation responses of pupils in the four sub-groups

| | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|----------|---------------|------|----------------|-----|
| Posttest | Experimental1 | 3.26 | 0.22 | 71 |
| | Experimental2 | 3.25 | 0.19 | 42 |
| | Control1 | 2.68 | 0.27 | 34 |
| | Control2 | 2.68 | 0.27 | 107 |
| Pretest | Experimental1 | 2.81 | 0.28 | 71 |
| | Experimental2 | 2.86 | 0.24 | 42 |
| | Control1 | 2.67 | 0.25 | 34 |
| | Control2 | 2.66 | 0.24 | 107 |

Results in Table 2 show that the mean responses of the pupils in Experimental Group One increased from 2.81 in the pretest to 3.26 in the posttest, with standard deviations of 0.28 and 0.22 respectively. In the Experimental Group Two, the pupils had a mean response on 2.86 in the pretest and increased to 3.25 in the posttest, with standard deviations of 0.24 and 0.19 respectively. In the Control Group One, the



pupils had mean response of 2.67 in the pretest and 2.68 in the posttest with standard deviations of 0.25 and 0.27 respectively. The mean response of the pupils in Control Group Two was 2.66 with a standard deviation of 0.24, in the pretest and mean of 2.68 and standard deviation of 0.27 in the posttest, this demonstrated an almost static response in the control group.

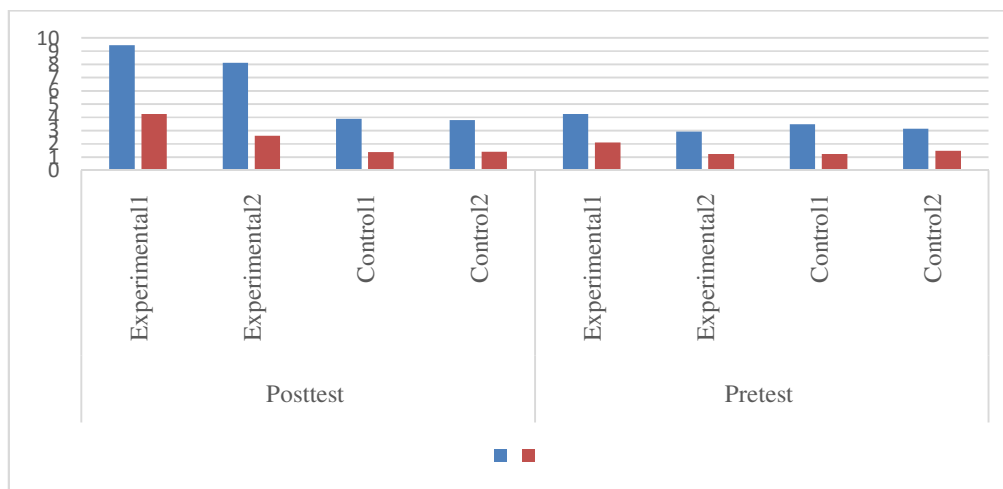


Figure 2: Bar chart for the motivation responses of pupils in the four sub-groups

The bar chart in *Figure 2* illustrates the mean and standard deviations of the mean motivation ratings of the pupils in the experimental and control groups as individual groups.

Table 3: Summary descriptive statistics for mean motivation ratings according to the experimental and control groups

| Group | N | Pretest | | Posttest | | Mean Gain |
|------------------------|-----|-------------|------|-------------|------|-------------|
| | | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | |
| Experimental | 113 | 2.83 | 0.43 | 3.26 | 0.42 | 0.43 |
| Control | 141 | 2.66 | 0.42 | 2.68 | 0.45 | 0.02 |
| Mean difference | | 0.17 | | 0.58 | | 0.41 |

The experimental and control groups had a mean motivation rating of 2.83 and 2.66 in the pretest respectively with a mean difference of 0.17 in favour of the experimental group. The data also showed that the pupils in the two groups had corresponding means of 3.26 and 2.68 in the posttest, this gave a mean difference of 0.58, also in favour of the

experimental group. There was a mean gain of 0.43 for the experimental group to the control group's mean gain of 0.02, which gave rise to a mean gain difference between the groups of 0.41. The standard deviation for the experimental group (0.42) was smaller than those of the control group (0.45) in the posttest; this indicates that the responses of the pupils in the experimental group were more homogenous than those in the control group. This depicts a positive effect of the PVTs motivation of pupils in learning algebra among the sample of pupils, to answer the research question.

Hypothesis one: There is no significant effect of the PVTs on the mean motivation ratings of Basic 5 pupils as compared to those taught using the RVTs

Table 4: Summary of multivariate tests for mean motivation ratings between the experimental and control groups

| Effect | Value | F | Hypothesis | | | |
|--------|----------------------|-------------|--------------|----------|------------|-------------|
| | | | df | Error df | Sig. | |
| Groups | Pillai's Trace | 0.59 | 33.94 | 6 | 492 | 0.00 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | 0.42 | 44.64 | 6 | 490 | 0.00 |
| | Hotelling's Trace | 1.38 | 56.26 | 6 | 488 | 0.00 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | 1.38 | 112.93 | 3 | 246 | 0.00 |

The data is interpreted using Wilks' Lambda, the recommended measure (Lund & Lund, 2020) for a multivariate statistic (MANCOVA) for the study. Data in *Table 4* shows that there is a statistically significant difference $F(6, 490) = 44.64$ and $p = 0.00 < 0.05$ in the mean motivation rating of the respondents. The research hypothesis one is therefore rejected, which implies that the mean motivation ratings of pupils taught using the PVTs differ significantly from those taught using the RVTs. This suggests that the pupils showed greater attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction and interest in the learning of algebra when taught using the intervention strategy.



Research question two: What is the effect of the PVTs on the mean score of Basic 5 pupils' algebraic performance as compared to those exposed to RVTs?

Table 5: Descriptive statistics showing the mean scores at APT in the experimental and control groups in terms of the four sub-groups

| | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|----------|---------------|-------|----------------|-----|
| Posttest | Experimental1 | 18.99 | 7.74 | 71 |
| | Experimental2 | 21.05 | 9.95 | 42 |
| | Control1 | 9.82 | 3.79 | 34 |
| | Control2 | 9.81 | 3.69 | 107 |
| Pretest | Experimental1 | 11.10 | 5.70 | 71 |
| | Experimental2 | 8.86 | 2.58 | 42 |
| | Control1 | 8.38 | 3.04 | 34 |
| | Control2 | 7.48 | 3.54 | 107 |

Results in Table 5 reveal the means and standard deviations of the 4 sub-groups in terms of the algebra performance test. The Experimental Group One had a mean of 11.10 in the pretest with a standard deviation of 5.70 and a mean of 18.99 and standard deviation of 7.74. The Experimental Group Two had a mean of 8.86 and 21.05 in the pretest and posttest respectively, with standard deviations of 2.58 and 9.45. The Control Group One had a mean of 8.38 in the pretest and 9.82 in the posttest, with standard deviations of 3.04 and 3.79 respectively. The Control Group Two had a mean of 7.48 in the pretest and 9.81 in the posttest, with corresponding standard deviations of 3.54 and 3.69 respectively. On the whole, the two groups demonstrated similar data characteristics going by their standard deviations. However, there appears to be a disproportionate data behaviour in Experimental Group Two, where the standard deviation in the posttest appears abnormal to the other results in relation to the mean and total number of respondents.

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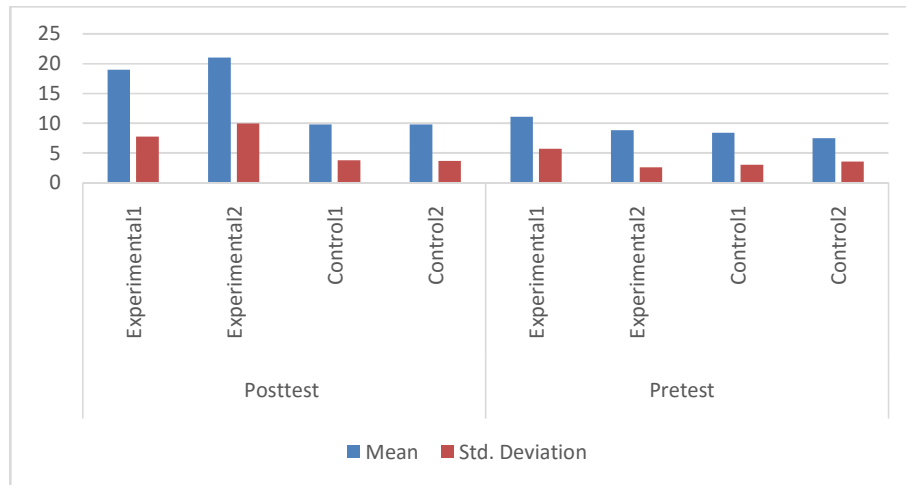


Figure 3: Bar chart showing the mean scores at APT in the experimental and control groups in terms of the four sub-groups

The means in blue and standard deviations in red illustrate the scores of pupils in the groups with respect to the pretest and posttest performance.

Table 6: Summary descriptive statistics showing the mean difference between the experimental and control group at APT

| Group | N | Pretest | | Posttest | | Mean Gain |
|------------------------|-----|-------------|------|--------------|------|-------------|
| | | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | |
| Experimental | 113 | 9.98 | 4.14 | 20.02 | 8.85 | 10.04 |
| Control | 141 | 7.93 | 3.29 | 9.82 | 3.74 | 1.89 |
| Mean difference | | 2.05 | | 10.20 | | 8.15 |

Results in *Table 6* shows that pupils in the experimental group had a mean of 9.98 and 20.02 and standard deviation of 4.14 and 8.85 in the pretest and posttest respectively; this gives a mean gain of 10.04 for the experimental group. The control group on the other hand had a mean performance score of 7.93 and 9.82 with standard deviations of 3.29 and 3.74 in the pretest and posttest respectively with a mean gain of 1.89. There was a mean difference of 2.05 and 10.20 in the pretest and posttest, and 8.15 in the mean gain. The standard deviations of the two groups are an indication that the data sets share similar traits, because they fall within the same side and partition of the normal curve. To answer the research question, the PVTs appears to have caused an increased algebraic performance in the APT by pupils in the



experimental group as compared to pupils that were taught using the RVTS.

Hypothesis two: The PVTs has no significant effect on Basic 5 pupils' algebra performance mean score as compared to those taught using the RVTS.

Table 7: Summary tests of between-subjects (experimental and control groups) effects with respect to the APT using posttest as the dependent variable

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| Corrected Model | 7433.87 | 8 | 929.23 | 25.18 | 0.00 |
| Intercept | 4701.44 | 1 | 4701.44 | 127.42 | 0.00 |
| APTpretest | 939.46 | 1 | 939.46 | 25.46 | 0.00 |
| Gender | 54.74 | 1 | 54.74 | 1.48 | 0.22 |
| APT | 4773.41 | 3 | 1591.14 | 43.12 | 0.00 |
| Gender * APT | 157.16 | 3 | 52.39 | 1.42 | 0.24 |
| Error | 9039.95 | 245 | 36.90 | | |
| Total | 67952.00 | 254 | | | |
| Corrected Total | 16473.83 | 253 | | | |

The analysis shown in *Table 7* reveal that there was a statistically significant effect, where $F(3, 245) = 43.12$ and $P = 0.00 < 0.05$ of the PVTs when compared to the RVTS in the mean performance scores of pupils. The null hypothesis is rejected which implies that the PVTs has a significant effect on Basic 5 pupils' algebra performance mean score as compared to those taught using the RVTS.

DISCUSSION

This study found a significant difference in the mean motivation ratings of pupils in the experimental group and the control group in favour of the experimental group which agrees with Jing, Tarmizi, Bakar and Arılas (2017). The findings also agree with Yakubu (2017) who found that pupils with mathematics learning challenge in the treatment group showed higher motivation than pupils in the control group. There were evidences of significant effect of the partitive variation theory-based strategy on experimental students' overall motivation. This indicated that the partitive variation teaching strategy may be capable of triggering both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of pupils in the

middle basic level of education in Benue state, Nigeria. This was made more consistent by the more improved mean motivation ratings in the 5 subscales of attention, relevance, comprehension, satisfaction and interest, which the pupils in the experimental group consistent had higher mean responses.

There was statistically significant difference in the performance of students between the experimental group and the control group, which agrees with Anyor and Iji (2010) as well as Jing, Tarmizi, Bakar and Aralas (2017). The positive interaction of organizational culture, education in this case, and human resource management (teaching) would result in self-esteem and self-actualization. Generally, it is agreed that dispositions such as motivation, curiosity and perseverance can be recognised when students persist at difficult tasks, take risks and exhibit open mindedness (Al-Shara, 2015). The findings of this study also agree with those of Liu (2018) as well as Ifelunni, Ugwu, Aneke, Ibiam, Ngwoke, Ezema, Charles, Oraelosi, and Ede (2019) that there is a significant influence of motivation or that there is a potential reciprocal relationship between motivation and academic performance of students. García, Rodríguez, Betts, Areces and González-Castro (2016) stated that Mathematics enjoyment or satisfaction positively predicted mathematics achievement as has been confirmed in this study. Higher motivation ratings which may be due to the partitive variation teaching strategy predicated better algebraic performances among Basic school learners.

CONCLUSION

This study concluded that pupils in the experimental group significantly showed higher motivation ratings and consistently outperformed those in the control group in the algebra performance test. The study further concluded that the partitive variation teaching strategy may be useful for the improvement of algebra teaching and learning in Middle Basic (Basic 5) level of education in Benue state, which may be replicated in other locations.

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ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN COMPLETING SQUARE WHEN SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS SOLVE QUADRATIC EQUATION BY NEWMAN ERROR ANALYSIS PROCEDURE IN NASARAWA STATE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to diagnose, using the Newman error analysis model. The error committed when students solve quadratic equation using completing square method. The target population was all SS3 students in Nasarawa State public schools. Three research questions and three hypotheses were answered and tested respectively. Survey design was used for the study. Data collected was analysed using student t-test. The result of the findings showed that all the students committed errors at various stages of Newman model and there is no significance difference in the means of errors committed by SS3 students that solved quadratic equation using completing square method.

INTRODUCTION

The importance given to mathematics in the curriculum from primary to the secondary level reflects the role played by mathematics in contemporary society. It is in understanding of this that many countries now resort to making comprehensive and well programmed efforts towards effective teaching and learning of science and mathematics at all levels of the educational system through the development and implementation of improved programmes and projects (Azuka, 2001). In most schools in Nigeria for example, the study of mathematics is made mandatory for all students. In order to secure admission for most courses at higher levels of education, a credit pass in mathematics is a pre-requisite. In spite of importance of mathematics in human existence, students still perform poorly in the subject. Musa (2014) stressed that West African Examination Council (WAEC) results in mathematics between 2004 and 2013 attest to the candidates' poor performance. In this period, the percentage credit pass and above in mathematics at the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (SSCE) level ranges about 40% pass. The West Africa Examination Council

(WAEC) Chief Examiners Report consistently reported lack of skill in answering almost all the questions asked in general mathematics. The most affected areas include, geometry of 3-dimensional problems, algebraic expression (quadratic equation) and words problems in equations, statistics and percentage errors to mention a few. In specific terms the examiners reported students' weaknesses in quadratic equation. Some areas of the syllabus that were also reported to be poorly attempted by candidates were the reading and drawing of quadratic graph among others. The weakness is also evident in the Chief Examiners' reports of WASSCE 2012, 2013, 2015, 2016 and 2018. In view of these general weak performances of students in mathematics, efforts are being made every now and then by mathematics educators at various quarter to bring mathematics teaching and learning meaningful. This is observed in the trends of workshops for teachers of mathematics and different research works in areas of teaching, student achievement in mathematics, attitude of students towards the subject and strategies to improve on the teaching and learning of mathematics. Learners are evaluated thereof on the way they conceive the concepts in mathematics and the quality of teaching. This will help to reveal learner errors and misconceptions (Riccomini, 2005). According to Riccomini, Mathematics teachers do not treat learner errors committed when solving mathematical problems seriously. He also said teachers do not have courage and patience to investigate learners' errors and problems experienced in solving mathematical problems.

Error can be defined here as a way of doing a thing wrongly. Reviewing the research method on errors, specifically, classifying students' errors based on the step of solving problems or the sources of difficulties in solving problems. Students correctly follow wrong algorithms, which is contrary to many teachers views that students wrongly follow an algorithm. This study focuses on where the error originated, which is linked between conceptual and procedural knowledge. One of the main methods used to analyze student's errors is to classify them into certain categorization based on analysis of students' mistakes. The errors are classified in terms of Language difficulties, difficulties in the processing



iconic and visual representation of mathematical knowledge, deficiency in the requisite skill, facts, and concepts; for example, student may forget or be unable to recall related information in solving problems, incorrect association rigidity; that is negative transfer caused by decoding and encoding information and application of irrelevant rules or strategies. Titus (2016) also used the classifying method but based his own on the model of problem solving (Polyer). He thought that Students errors may be due to deficiency in one or more of the above steps.

Analysis of error is the ability to establish the existence of errors in a computation. There are many factors that help students to turn up at a correct result while solving mathematical problems. The method is based on the fact that in the process of problem solving there are two major types of hurdles that hinder students from arriving at correct answers. They are; troubles in reading fluency and abstract understanding that helps reading and understanding meaning of problems. The other one is trouble of processing mathematical problems that consist of transformation, process skill, and encoding results. It is important to find where students commit such errors and continue to repeat them. Studies have been conducted over years to determine the predictor of mathematics achievement among various groups of individuals. Some of the predictions are, socio-economic status of students, teaching methods teachers use, gender and environmental factors of students among others (Owolabi and Adejoke, 2014; Adeyinka and Kaino, 2014). One variable that has over the years, received considerable attention in many studies on science achievement in general and mathematics achievement in particular is gender. According to Owolabi and Adejoke (2014) studies conducted among middle and high school students show a significant gender effect favoring males in overall sciences and mathematic achievement. They also said in another study that boys outperform girls in science but in reading and writing, girls had the advantage. Abubakar and Oguguo (2011) study show no significant difference in gender achievement in relation to Number and

Numeration, Algebraic process and statistics. However, in some studies, both male and female perform at par having applied certain strategies (Adeleke, 2007).

Another variable which is of interest in this study is school location. There are different school locations in Nasarawa state which include urban, semi-urban rural or remote villages. The results of some studies outside the shores of Nigeria have shown that location is a variable to consider on students' achievement, example is Indonesia, Jambi province. Effandi and Siti (2010) attest that students in rural schools perform poorly in mathematics at the point of comprehension, given that the effect of mother tongue or bilingual conflict is prominent. The urban schools more errors are committed at the process skill and transformation stage.

One other factor the researcher considered is the student academic orientation (Science/arts). The orientation of the students may or may not narrow their understanding of specific concepts and will not be able to engage them in problem solving. Students who do not have background knowledge in mathematics usually display numerous errors in solving mathematical problems and this therefore results in most students grappling with quadratic equations (Sello, 2014). If a research could characterize students learning difficulties, it would be possible to design effective instruments to enhance students learning. The research on student's errors is a way to provide such support for both teachers and students. Li (2006), pointed out one way of trying to find out what makes algebra difficult is to identify the kind of errors students commit. There was also need to classify the errors based on the steps of solving problems. He reported that Radatz first classified students' errors in terms of language difficulties, mathematics is like a foreign language for students who needs to know and understand mathematical concepts, symbol, and vocabulary. Misunderstanding the logic for mathematics language could cause students error at the beginning of problem solving, difficulties in processing the representation of mathematical knowledge, like of requisite skills, knowledge, and concepts, poor associations or rigidity; that is, wrong transfer caused by decoding and encoding information and application of irrelevant rules or strategies.



Anne Newman (1980) than used the classifying method but based her model on problem solving.

The model of the sequence of steps in problem solving: reading and comprehension, transformation, process skill, and encoding to identify students' possible errors. She thought that student's error may be due to deficiency in one or several of the above steps. This is what is today referred to as Newman error analysis procedure (Newman Model) which the researcher will adopt to diagnose errors students commit by senior secondary school three when solving quadratic equation by completing square method.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In SSCE mathematics examination, students have presented difficulties in solving equations. The Chief Examiner's Report of 2011 to 2017 all emphasized that students are weak in algebraic process; Quadratic equation is one topic that every year WASSCE features to test the concept among students and also to test their procedural understanding of quadratic equations. These mistakes lower students' achievement in SSCE Mathematics achievement it is therefore important to identify the types of errors students commit and where they commit them. The Newman Model; Newman Error Analysis Procedure has been found useful for analyzing students' errors when solving quadratic equations since it takes them through the steps needed to reach the solution. The focus of this study therefore was to analysis the errors committed when senior secondary school students solve quadratic equations by completing square method using Newman error analysis procedure.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study were using Newman Error Analysis procedure;

1. compare the means and standard deviations of errors committed by male and female senior secondary school (SS3) students' when solving quadratic equation by completing square method

2. established the means and standard deviations of errors committed by urban and rural senior secondary school (SS3) students committed when solving quadratic equation using method of completing square
3. compare the means and standard deviation of errors committed by Science and Art senior secondary school (SS3) students' when solving quadratic equations using the method of completing square.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions guided the study.

Using Newman error analysis Procedure;

1. what are the means and standard deviations of errors committed by male and female senior secondary school three (SS3) students' when solving quadratic equations by completing square method?
2. what are the mean and standard deviations of errors committed by senior secondary school three (SS3) students' in the urban and rural areas when solving quadratic equation using completing square?
3. what are the mean and standard deviations of errors committed by science and arts senior secondary school three (SS3) students' when solving quadratic equation by completing square method?

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Using Newman error analysis procedures;

- Ho₁:** There is no significant difference in the mean scores of errors committed by male and female senior secondary school students' when solving quadratic equations by completing square method
- Ho₂:** There is no significant difference in the mean scores of errors committed by urban and rural senior secondary school students' when solving quadratic equation using completing square method
- Ho₃:** There is no significant difference in the mean scores of errors committed by Science and Art senior secondary school students' when solving quadratic equations using completing square method



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research designs used for the study was survey research designs. This design involved the collection of data with a short span of time from randomly selected sample of the target population. The cross-sectional survey design also called parallel-sample design was used for the study.

Population

The population of the study comprised all senior secondary school three (SS3) students in public senior secondary schools in Nasarawa State.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

One senatorial district was randomly selected for the survey. Multi-stratified random sampling procedure was used to select the schools for the study in terms of gender, school location and background

Method of Data Collection; Instrumentation

Data were collected using, Quadratic Equation Diagnostic Test.

Quadratic Equation Diagnostic Test (QEDT):

The researcher selected the items of this test from past SSCE questions papers and work examples from text books that are recommended by WAEC in the syllabus. This was attempted by all the students in the sampled schools. Test was administered and scripts were returned and marked. The scores recorded with respect to the Newman error analysis procedure stages and was tested.

Techniques for Data Analysis

The research questions were answered using means and standard deviation of scores for errors committed by SS3 students while the Hypotheses were tested using student independent t-test at $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

Results and Data Analysis

Research Question 2; What are the means and standard deviations of error committed by male and female SS3 students that solve quadratic equations using completing square method?

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Error Committed by Male and Female Students that Solve Quadratic Equation Using Completing Square Method

| Variables | Means | Standard Deviation | t-test |
|-----------|-------|--------------------|--------|
| Male | 1.612 | 0.209 | 0.095 |
| Female | 1.780 | 0.227 | |

Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of male and female SS3 students that solve quadratic equation using completing square method. The mean scores for male students was 1.612 and standard deviation was 0.209. The mean scores for the female students was 1.780 and standard deviation was 0.227

Research Question 3; What are the means and standard deviations of error committed by urban and rural SS3 students that solve quadratic equations using completing square method?

Table2: Means and Standard Deviations of Error Committed by Urban and Rural Students that Solve Quadratic Equation Using Completing Square Method

| Variables | Means | Standard Deviation | t-test |
|-----------|-------|--------------------|--------|
| Urban | 1.600 | 1.191 | 0.020 |
| Rural | 1.704 | 0.174 | |

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of urban and rural SS3 students that solve quadratic equation using completing square method. The mean scores for urban students was 1.600 and standard deviation was 1.191. The mean scores for the rural students was 1.704 and standard deviation was 0.174.

Research Question 3; What are the means and standard deviations of error committed by science and art SS3 students that solve quadratic equations using completing square method?

Table3: Means and Standard Deviations of Error Committed by Science and Art Students that Solve Quadratic Equation Using Completing Square Method

| Variables | Means | Standard Deviation | t-test |
|-----------|-------|--------------------|--------|
|-----------|-------|--------------------|--------|



| | | | |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| Science | 1.640 | 0.244 | 0.898 |
| Art | 1.648 | 0.182 | |

Table 3: shows the means and standard deviations of science and art SS3 students that solve quadratic equation using completing square method. The mean scores for urban students was 1.640 and standard deviation was 0.244. The mean scores for the rural students was 1.648 and standard deviation was 0.482.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the means score of errors committed by male and female SS3 students that solved quadratic equations by completing square.

Table 1, presents the t-test analysis of errors committed by male and female SS3 students that solved quadratic equation by factorization methods. The t-test for difference of two means was 0.095. Therefore, as $P = 0.095$ is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$ ($P = 0.095 > \alpha = 0.05$). The difference was not significant at $\alpha < 0.05$ therefore we do not reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 There is no significant difference in the mean scores of errors committed by urban and rural SS3 students when solving quadratic equation by completing square.

Table 2 presents the t-test result of errors committed by urban and rural SS3 students that solve quadratic equation by completing square method. The t-test difference of two mean was 0.020. It is observed that $P = 0.020$ is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$ (since $P = 0.020 > \alpha = 0.05$). The difference between the means of error that urban and rural SS3 students committed when solving quadratic, equation by completing square is not significantly different at $\alpha < 0.05$ therefore we reject the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of errors committed by science and arts SS3 students when solving quadratic equation by completing square, Table 3 presents t-test analysis of errors committed by science and arts SS3 students that solve quadratic

equation by completing square method. The t-test for difference of two means was 0.898. It is observed that $P = 0.898$ is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$ ($P = 0.898 > \alpha 0.05$). The difference between the means error that science and arts SS3 students committed when solving quadratic equation by completing square is not significantly different $\alpha < 0.05$. we therefore accept the hypothesis so stated.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The discussion was made on the bases of the research questions and the corresponding hypotheses stated and tested. The types of errors committed by students when solving quadratic equation using completing square by Newman Model reflects all the error types enumerated in the model. The most error type that the SS3 students committed was in the translation stage followed by the process skill, decoding, encoding and the comprehension stages. The difference between the errors type committed are however closely related. The presentation is in agreement with the findings of Effidini&siti (2010), Teoh (2010), and Nande (2013) that shows significant errors appearing at the transformation stage and the process skill the most. The result in the case of male and female table 1 shows that there were errors committed by both male and female students this agrees with previous researches (Bosire, Mondon&Barmoa 2008), who reported that irrespective of the schools, male respondent perform better than female. In regards to table 2, the mean score of errors committed by urban students when solving quadratic equation using completing square method was less than that of the rural students. This means the urban students committed less error than the rural students. The t-test was 0.020 which is greater than $\alpha \leq 0.05$, since $P = 0.020 > 0.05$, the hypothesis was rejected for the method of completing square. The findings here supported the finding in (Teoh,2010 and Shio, 2012). Even though the errors were more in different locations that is the rural pupils' errors were found mostly at comprehension and transformation stages while the urban students' errors were more at the process skill. However, in all, the rural students committed more errors than the urban students. Table3 shows that the mean score of errors committed by science students when solving quadratic equation by completing



square was less than that of the Arts students. This shows that science students committed less errors when solving quadratic equation by completing square. The t-test was 0.898, this is greater than $\alpha \leq 0.05$. Therefore, since $P = 0.898, \geq \alpha = 0.05$, the hypothesis was not accepted, indicating that the mean are not significantly different in completing square method. This did not support Trance (2013), that science and engineering students achieve better in mathematics than other discipline

CONCLUSION

The results of the findings showed that all the SS3 students presented difficulties at all stages of the Newman Model of Decoding, Comprehension, Transformation, Process skill and Encoding. That there is no significant difference in the means of SS3 students that solved quadratic equation by completing square gender, location and background. However, the means of urban and rural SS3 students that solve quadratic equation by completing square method are significantly different.

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REGULATORY FRAMEWORK AND POLITICAL PARTY FINANCING IN NIGERIA; ANALYZING 2011-2019 APC AND PDP PARTICIPATION IN GENERAL ELECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the regulatory framework on political party financing in Nigeria. There is an ongoing debate on the theme that excessive illicit financing of political parties and massively corrupt financial support of individual candidates on electoral competitions constitute serious threat to the process, and negatively influences the development of politics and consolidation of democracy in developing countries. The study is restricted to political party financing and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria within the period of 2011 to 2019 in two major political parties in Nigeria- All Progressive Congress (APC) and Peoples Democratic Party (PDP). The primary sources of financing political parties in any democracy across the globe is through payment of membership dues, but none the less, Nigeria presents an exception because such dues are hardly paid, another source of funding for the political parties are government grants to political parties which is a universal practice. Party financing is the lifeline of political parties that further enables political parties to create awareness about party manifestoes as a means for mobilization and recruitment of more members, this is key to winning elections and execution of party programs through government policies.

INTRODUCTION

Democracy is a capital-intensive venture, and political parties cannot thrive effectively in the arena without sufficient funds. Cole (2016) notes that Nigeria practices one of the most expensive political systems in the world, Finance has been the major bane in the development of the country's political system, as there is no effective laws, or culture, or strong institutional regulatory framework about how to finance political parties or the limit of expenses on elections, and sources of such finances. There is an ongoing debate on the theme that excessive illicit financing of political parties and massively corrupt financial support of individual candidates on electoral competitions constitute serious threat to the process, and negatively influences the development of politics and consolidation of democracy in developing countries. Financial involvement in obtaining political nomination forms for elective public offices is astronomically higher and beyond the reach of average political aspirant. This high bid system of financing is a systemic instrument being used to ward-off financially weak-based politicians. Sourcing money for political party business beyond the approved limit has derailed politics and weakened the course of democracy (Stephen, 2003).

This paper, as a primary objective, intends to examine the regulatory framework on political party financing in Nigeria hence the need for a corresponding research question thus: Is there regulatory framework on political party financing in Nigeria? In an attempt to do justice to the foregoing objective and research question, this study is restricted to political party financing and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria within the period of 2011 to 2019 in two major political parties in Nigeria-

All Progressive Congress (APC) and Peoples Democratic Party (PDP). On the same basis, relevant literature will be reviewed to identify the knowledge gap with a view to filling in same.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This segment reviews relevant literature drawing its intellectual strength from the work of others with the aim of critically commenting on them in the light of conventional academic parameters.

Concept of Party Financing

The term "Political Finance" has been defined by Ojo (2000), Obiorah (2004), Pinto-Duschinsky (2001 and 2004), Emelonge (2004) and (Ayoade) as the use of money or the use of other material resources for political activities. It also embodies the sources or means through which political activities are sponsored in a given polity. The concept of political finance has two broad connotations viz money used for electioneering (campaign funds) and money used for political party expenses (party funds). Though there are other forms of political finance but these two will form the basis of our discussion because they constitute the foundation of every political activity. This broad definition of political finance while capturing the essence of the term does not acknowledge the multiplicity of forms and ways in which the monetization of politics may be used to influence political outcomes. The definition offered by Pinto – Duschinsky (2001) also fails to capture the centrality of "political". That is, it shies away from explicating the ambits of the term "political". According to Emelonge (2004:34), what the present author advocates here is not a semantic description but rather a clarification as to construction of the term when it comes to foreign contributions. For example, in issued, the definition of "political" is narrowed soon that foreign payments for technical assistance" and training are permitted. But such terms may be guises for more partisan contributions with political undertones or motives such as support for private governments' business forms and convert propaganda). Pinto-Duschinsky (2004) modified his earlier thesis by positing that political finance is "money for electioneering". Since political parties play a critical part in election campaigns in many parts of the globe, and since it is difficult to draw a distinct line between campaign costs of party organizations and their routine expenses, party funds may reasonably be considered "political finance", too. He goes on to argue that party funding includes not only campaign expenses but also the costs of maintaining permanent offices, carrying out policy research, and engaging in political education, voter's registration, and other regular functions of parties.

Therefore, a definition of political finance should include the under listed aspect which Pinto-Duschinsky (2004) subsequently identified in his contribution:

1. That political finance is a feature of non-democratic, as well as democratic regimes
2. The expenditure on elections and parties is only a part of a more far reaching issue. Political funding can be for activities ranging from lobbying, propaganda, support of interest groups to blatant bribery and
3. That the regulation of political finance is hindered by a plurality of avenues of obtaining and using money for political ends.



The Electoral Acts (2002, 2006 and 2010) contain numerous provisions in relation to political party and election finance. The Electoral Act (2002) defines election expenses in section 84 (1) as follows: “expenses incurred by a political party within the period from the date notice is given by the commission to conduct election up to and including the polling day in respect of the particular election. This definition is flawed totally because experience has shown that in Nigeria most election expenses are incurred by the candidates themselves and not the political parties. This definition is restrictive automatically excludes the election expenses incurred by candidates from whatever limitations on election expenses.

The Electoral Act (2006) has introduced ceilings on contributions by individuals to political parties and on the campaign expenses by political parties and candidates alike. Section 93 stipulates that election expenses by every candidate shall not exceed:

1. N500 million for presidential candidates
2. N 100 million for Governorship
3. N 20 million for Senate
4. N 10 million for House of representatives
5. N 5 million for State Assembly
6. N 5 million for Chairmanship of Local Government council and
7. N 500, 000 for Councillorship.

In addition, no individual shall donate more than N1 million to any candidate. Notation of this provision attracts fines ranging from N100,000 or one (1) month imprisonment or both for councillorship candidates, to N1 million or 12 months imprisonment or both for presidential candidates, while any individual who donates more than N1 million to any candidate is liable to a fine of N500, 000 or 9 months imprisonment or both. The electoral commission is left to fix the maximum donation any person can make to a political party (section 92) as opposed to a candidate who is stipulated in section 93. No party can accept or keep anonymous contributions of more than N100, 000 unless it can identify the source of the money and must keep records of all donations over N1 million.

The under listed puzzles come up for the Independent National Electoral Commission for consideration:

1. Has INEC undertaken an examination and audit of the accounts of the political parties?
2. Did the Commission place any limit on the amount of contribution which individuals or cooperate agencies made to political parties in the course of fund raising for the 2003, 2007 and 2011 elections?
3. Do all political parties have records of all contributions to their campaign funds?
4. Does INEC have a record, which shows the total expenses of all the political parties for the purposes of invoking the provisions of section 84, 92 and 93 sub sections (2), (3) and (6) of the 2004, 2006 and 2010 Electoral Acts?
5. What steps have been taken to sanction corporate bodies that contributed to the campaign funds of political parties in total disregard of the provisions of section 38 (2) of the company and

Allied matters Act (1990), which prohibits donations or gifts of any of its property or funds to a political party or association.

At present, only INEC can attempt the above questions. For the purpose of this paper the term ‘political finance’ refers to the deployment of financial and material resources by both political parties and politicians as prescribed by law of the polity to cover political expenses. The Draft Campaign Financing Bill, 2011 (“the Draft Bill”) of Kenya, which is currently undergoing a stakeholder review process by the Constitutional Implementation Committee of Kenya is a welcome initiative that will foster greater transparency and accountability in the financing of election and referendum campaigns. However, a number of shortcomings in the Draft Bill like those of Nigeria jeopardize these objectives, and a series of amendments are required before the Draft Bill complies with international standards on freedom of expression and information. The Campaign Financing Bill, 2011 sets out major reforms for funding of election campaigns, use of campaign funds in the nomination process, election campaign and elections. It will provide for the management, spending and accountability of funds during election and referendum campaign. It is important that the draft bill is clear on the concept of campaign financing to prevent any political and administrative frustration and even litigation in Court. CMD-Kenya believes that campaign financing refers to the manner in which political parties and individual candidates who seek to get elected to political office gather, utilize, and recover funds for electoral campaigns and in the case of political parties seek to maintain themselves as organizations. In this context the scope of the legislation should cover all aspects of campaign financing. We believe that the conceptual framework needs to be reflected in the interpretation to give the legislation effective statutory interpretation (CMD-Kenya, 2011).

In the analysis, ARTICLE 19 (2012) emphasizes that transparency in campaign financing is indispensable for embedding accountability and integral to the promotion of good governance and democracy. Only with full access to information can the media scrutinize the conduct of election candidates and inform public debate on the dynamics and distribution of political and economic power in Kenya. The engagement that transparency fosters between candidates for public office and the electorate also maximizes enjoyment of the right to political participation. The analysis finds that positive measures in the Draft Bill include the establishment of limits on political campaign expenditures, caps on the amount individuals can donate to candidates, and the imposition of a ban on anonymous donations. The establishment of a framework for the collection and reporting of data to a new Oversight Committee is a significant step towards furthering a culture of accountability in the financing of political campaigns.

However, ARTICLE 19 (2012) also finds that various elements of the Draft Bill fall short of international standards on freedom of expression and access to information. The Draft Bill designates as confidential all campaign financing information submitted to the oversight Committee, with only limited disclosure exceptions for information that is the subject of a complaint or investigation. This runs counter to the principles of proactive and maximum disclosure that are central to the right of access to information. The selection criteria for the Oversight Committee are also left ambiguous, and there are inadequate safeguards to ensure the accountability of this committee to the public. In



conclusion, ARTICLE 19 (2012) urges the Kenyan legislature to revise the Draft Bill and adopt it only after it is brought into compliance with international standards on freedom of expression and information. The need for greater transparency in all aspects of public life in Kenya further demonstrates the urgent need for a comprehensive access to information framework to be implemented in the country.

Political Party Financing and Consolidation of Democracy in Nigeria

Financing political party for its functions and sponsoring election campaigns is vital in a vibrant democracy. Ballington et.al (2014) note that regular elections organized between competing political parties is the dominant method of selecting democratic governments. For political parties and their nominees to reach out to the teeming electorates to sell the parties manifestoes, it becomes imperative to have access to enough money so as to off-set election expenses. Election expenses, according to Electoral Act (2010) means “expenses incurred by a political party within the period from the date notice is given by the Commission to conduct an election up to and including the polling day in respect of the particular election”. Magolowondo et al (2012) note that parties may win or lose elections well before they are held simply on account of their resource endowment or lack thereof. In other instances, how parties’ practice or fail to practice intra-party democracy has to some extent been influenced by the way they are financed and how these resources are allocated within the different parties. The concern for possible negative impact of money on politics and governance warranted the incorporation of the regulatory clause in the 1999 Constitution and the 2010 Electoral Act of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to curb the excesses and unregulated donations to political parties and individual candidates which breeds corruption. Money exercises undue influence on politics, and undermines the integrity of elections, credibility and legitimacy of government. In the first republic (1960-1966), there was indefinite electoral law on campaign finance.

Funding election activities and other political parties’ functions were the responsibility of the individual parties and their candidates. From knowledge of hindsight, there were political parties who were accused to have used the state funds and investments to sponsor party activities and campaigns, such as the National Council of Nigeria Citizens (NCNC) and Action Group (AG). The 1979 Constitution of the second republic (1979-1983) provided regulatory law on campaign finance which prohibited associations, other than political parties, from campaigning on behalf of a candidate or contributing funds to parties and election expenses of candidates. There was the budgetary provision for annual grants to political parties; and political parties were empowered to receive donations from individuals and corporate bodies, but it prohibited donations from external bodies. The unquantifiable party-donations from individuals and corporate bodies, and unprecedented expenses incurred on party activities and campaigns due to the fact that the limit of funds political parties and aspirants could raise from individuals and corporate bodies was not specified by law. The prevalent corrupt practices, electoral irregularities, and uncordial interparty relations in the second republic amongst the National Party of Nigeria, Nigerian Peoples Party, Unity party of Nigeria, Great Nigerian Peoples Party, People Redemption Party, etc. breached the provisions of subsisting Constitution and exacerbated party expenses. Political party antagonistic clashes, south-western zone post-election crisis, and increasing tension in the heated polity abruptly brought the republic to tragic end through military coup d’état.

Government in the fourth republic is not oblivious of the fact that politicians would abuse party financing if their activities are unregulated and unsupervised by electoral umpire. On the strength of the perceived dangerous threat to democracy, Section 221 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria provides that “no association, other than a political party, shall canvass for votes for any candidate at any election or contribute to the funds of any political party or to the election expenses of any candidate at any election”. Section 225(2) stipulates that “every political party shall submit to the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) a detailed annual statement and analysis of its sources of funds and other assets together with a similar statement of its expenditure in such form as the Commission may require”. 225(3) states that “no political party shall hold or possess any funds or other assets outside Nigeria; or be entitled to retain any funds or assets remitted or sent to it from outside Nigeria”. Similarly, Section 225(4) provides that “any funds or other assets remitted or sent to a political party from outside Nigeria shall be paid over or transferred to the Commission within twenty-one days of its receipt with such information as the Commission may require”; while 225(5) stipulates that “the Commission shall have power to give directions to political parties regarding the books or records of financial transactions which they shall keep and, to examine all such books and records” (FRN, 1999).

METHODOLOGY

The study utilizes both primary and secondary methods of data collection. The secondary were gathered through library research and the internet. The materials consisted of books, journals, articles, reports, periodicals, monographs, newspapers and magazines. Information gotten shall be used to evaluate how political party financing affects consolidation of democracy and what needs to be done to regulate political party financing. The primary method includes questionnaire which shall be administered purposively to respondents.

Analysis and presentation of data followed the path of statistical package for social science (SPSS) method of data analysis. This summarizes data, creates appropriate tables and examines relationships among variables. Thus, data for this investigation will be analyzed using simple percentile, descriptive statistical technique, and the results are further described using tables.

The simple percentage formula to be used is:

$$\frac{NR}{TNR} \times 100$$

Where NR= the number of responses to each questionnaire,

TNR= is the total number of responses. This tool of analysis enables the researcher assess weights of opinion to a questionnaire and the percentage allocated to that weight of opinion. Ethically, in order to conform to the standards of conduct involved in the research, a permission to carry out the study was granted in the department, starting with the approval of the topic. Written consent was obtained from the respondents and were assured of confidentiality. (See Appendix 1)

The Sources and Legal Frameworks for Funding of Political Parties in Nigeria.



The sources of funding political parties in Nigeria between the Second, Third and the Fourth Republics were:

1. Statutory allocation
2. Fees and subscription and
3. Lawful donations and public collection respectively.

A number of constitutional provisions and legislative enactments relate to political finance. The Constitution of Nigeria provides the basic framework for the implementation and enactment of other laws in the polity. The supremacy of the constitution is further emphasized in section 1 (3), which provides “if any other law is inconsistent with the provisions of this constitution, this constitution shall prevail, and that other law shall to the extent of the inconsistency be void” (The Constitution, 1999:1).

In other words, every other law in the country must be in line with the provisions of the constitution. It also follows that any inadequacy in the constitution will automatically taint the provisions of subsequent laws in the same subject matter. The 1999 constitution in section 221 prohibits any association other than political parties from making political donations. The constitution in section 225 provides as follows:

1. Every political party shall, at such times and in such manner as the Independent National Electoral Commission may require, submit to the Independent National Electoral Commission a statement of its assets and liabilities.
2. Every political party shall submit to the Independent National Electoral Commission a detailed annual statement and analysis of its sources of funds and other assets together with similar statements of its expenditure in such form as the Commission may require.
3. No political party shall – (a) hold or possess any funds or other assets outside Nigeria; or (b) be entitled to retain any funds or other assets outside Nigeria
4. Any funds or other assets remitted or sent to a political party from outside Nigeria shall be paid over or transferred to the Commission within twenty-one days of its receipt with such information as the Commission may require.
5. The Commission shall have power to give directions to political parties regarding the books or records of financial transactions which they shall keep and, to examine the all such books and records.

The Commission was also empowered in subsection 6 of the above section to audit the account of political parties through its staff or professional auditors. The commission is further empowered by section 226 of the constitution to prepare and submit a report on the financial account of the political parties to the National Assembly and are authorized to have unlimited access to the records of the political parties. The National Assembly is empowered in section 228 of the 1999 constitution to make laws for the punishment of any individual or party who fails to observe the above provisions and the disbursement of annual grants to political parties.

The Electoral Act 2002

The provision of this law covers virtually every process of electoral activities in the country. Section 76 provides for the oversight function of the Electoral Commission over the activities of the political parties and also provides for a fine of N500, 000 for non-conformity by any individual to lawful directions by the Commission in carrying out its supervisory functions. Section 77 makes provision for a fine of N500, 000 for the contravention of section 225 (3) (a) and (b) of the 1999 Constitution relating to ownership of foreign asset by any political party and any donation from outside the country. Section 78 provides for period of time, which the annual account of a political party should cover. It also empowered the Commission to audit the account of political parties periodically. Section 79 makes provision for a separate finance statement for election expenses as prescribed in section 100 of the act not later than 90 days after the election. Surprisingly section 100 of the Electoral Act has no provision whatsoever that relates to party finances it rather talks about qualification of a person who can contest elections. Any political party that fails to submit the audited return of election expenses is guilty of an offense punishable on conviction with a fine of N100, 000. Section 80 makes provision for the disbursement of grants to political parties that are contesting elections. It provides that 30% of the grant shall be distributed equally among the political parties before the election and the remaining 70% shall be shared among the political parties after the result of the election has been known, in proportion to the number of seats won by each party in the National Assembly. Section 81 provides that the National Assembly may make an annual grant to political parties and 30% of such grants should be shared among the political parties in proportion to number of seats won by each party in the National Assembly. Section 82 provides as follows: No political party shall be eligible to receive a grant under section 93 unless it wins a minimum of 10 percent of the total votes cast in the local government election in at least two-thirds of the states of the federation. Section 93 which is referred to in the above provision has no such provisions. Section 83 empowers the Commission to place the limitation on the amount of money or other assets, which an individual or corporate body can contribute to a political party. Also, it stipulates for a record of all contributions.

Electoral Act 2006

Under the 2006 Electoral Act which was used in the conduct of the 2007 elections while the recommendations of the Uwais Panel were being debated, the National Assembly was empowered to approve a grant to be disbursed to political parties. The 2006 law also stipulates how the grant should be divided, 10 percent going to be shared equally among the registered political parties and the remaining 90 percent disbursed in proportion to the number of National Assembly seats won by each party. The law also gives INEC the power to place a limit on the amount of money or other assets an individual or group can contribute to a political party. For a presidential candidate the sum is N500 million, governor N100 million, senator N20 million and a representative N10 million. A state assembly candidate, or chairman N5 million and a local councillorship, N500,000. It is an open question whether this aspect of the electoral law has ever been paid attention to not to talk of being enforced. Some of the then 50 parties have not in any way justified the money they receive from government. It has been discovered that some of the parties only exist on the pages of newspapers and



magazines. They only function when elections are coming or when funding is released by government. They collect the funds, share and go home to rest till another round of funding is available. A few of the parties are even run by close-knit family members. So what does a party exist for if it is only to share government funds?

As the nation moved towards 2011 elections, it became imperative to revisit the issue of political financing in Nigeria. The Uwais Panel report recommended the continued funding of parties by government through INEC, but suggests a ceiling for individual donations for each category of office. These figures run from a limit of N20 million for individual donations for a presidential candidate to N15 million for a governor, N10 million for a senator, N3 million for a local government chairmanship candidate. It makes eminent sense for party members to fund their own organization. The Uwais panel recommends that only parties that score 2.5 percent of the votes in the 2011 elections should be eligible to receive funds from public grants, but this like many other issues were expunged in the 2010 Electoral Act.

Electoral Act 2010

The 2011 General Elections are over with local and international acclamation to the electoral commission. The elections were not flawless; however, Nigerians and foreign witnesses are unanimous that the just concluded polls were held in substantial compliance with the nation's electoral laws. It is too early to pre-empt the political parties on the veracity of the election expenses they will submit to INEC in the next 6 months. But then, is six months not too long? I should think three months after the polls is okay, more so as candidates, who spend the bulk of the campaign money, are not yet under obligation to submit election expenses report.

This post-election period, two major things must happen. The first is for the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) to rise up to its constitutional duty to enforce political finance provisions as contained in the statutes viz. the 1999 Constitution (as amended), the Electoral Act 2010 (as amended) as well as the Political Party Finance Manual and Handbook. The second matter of urgent national importance is the amendment of these laws to make them more enforceable. The current legal framework requested three reports from the political parties. The first, according to section 89 of the Electoral Act 2010, is the annual statement of assets and liabilities, analysis of their sources or funds and other assets as well as their statements of expenditure. INEC is mandated to publish the report in three national newspapers. The other report which is of greater interest to campaign finance experts is stated in section 92 of the current electoral act. Sub-section 3 of the clause says "Election expenses of a political party shall be submitted to the Commission in a separate audited return within 6 months after an election and such return shall be signed by the party's auditors and counter signed by the chairman of the party and be supported by a sworn affidavit by the signatories as to the correctness of its contents". Sub-section 5 states that the return shall show the amount of money expended by or on behalf of the party on election expenses, the items of expenditure and the commercial value of goods and services received for election purpose. Sub section 6 mandated the political parties to publish this report in at least two national newspapers. The third

report is requested of political parties in section 93 (4) and it states that "A political party sponsoring the election of a candidate shall within 3 months after the announcement of the results of the election, file a report of the contributions made by individuals and entities to the Commission". Hitherto, these provisions have been violated with impunity. If the truth will be told, the last general election in Nigeria was the most expensive in the annals of our electoral democracy. Given the resources deployed by some of the wealthy candidates during the elections, there is no gainsaying the fact that the contestants showed scant regards for the provision of section 91 subsections 2 – 5 of the Electoral Act 2010 which placed a cap on the amount of money they are to spend on their campaigns. Predominant among the issues at stake is that of godfatherism which poses a great threat to democratic consolidation in Nigeria.

Limitations on Nigeria's Election Expenses

The fourth republic has witnessed enactment of Electoral Acts and subsequent amendments by the National Assembly to guide conduct of elections since the return of democracy in 1999. The Electoral Act of 2002 guided 2003 elections; 2006 Act (as amended) was used for 2007 elections; and 2010 Act (as amended) guided 2011, 2015 and 2019 general elections. The 2006 Act categorically provided funds limitations on campaign expenses to curtail the unhealthy influence of money on party activities and electioneering campaigns. Hereunder illustrates the stipulations. Section 90(1) of the 2010 Electoral Act provides that "the Commission shall have power to place limitation on the amount of money or other assets, which individual or group of persons can contribute to a political party". In the same manner, Section 91(2)-(7) states that: the maximum election expenses to be incurred by a candidate at a Presidential election shall be one billion naira (N1,000,000,000.00); the maximum election expenses to be incurred by a candidate at a Governorship election shall be two hundred million naira (N200,000,000.00); the maximum amount of election expenses to be incurred in respect of Senatorial seat by a candidate at an election to the National Assembly shall be forty million naira (N40,000,000.00), while the seat for House of Representatives shall be ten million naira (N10,000,000.00); in the case of State Assembly election, the maximum amount of election expenses to be incurred shall be ten million naira (N10,000,000.00); in the case of Chairmanship election to an Area Council, the maximum amount of election expenses to be incurred shall be ten million naira (N10,000,000.00); in the case of Councillorship election to an Area Council, the maximum amount of election expenses to be incurred shall be one million naira (N1,000,000.00) (Electoral Act, 2010). Subsection 91(9) provides that "no individual or other entity shall donate more than one million (N1,000,000.00)" to either a political party or to a candidate. Subsection 91(10) states that a candidate who knowingly acts in contravention of this section commits an offence and on conviction shall be liable, in case of presidential election, to a maximum fine of N1,000,000.00 or imprisonment of 12 months or both; in the case of a governorship election, to a fine of N300,000.00 or imprisonment for 9 months or both; in the case of senatorial seat election in the National Assembly to a fine of N600,000.00 or imprisonment for 6 months or both; in the case of House of Representatives election in the National Assembly to a fine of N500,000.00 or imprisonment for 6 months or both; in the case of a State House of Assembly election to a fine of N300,000.00 or 3 months imprisonment or both; in the case of Chairmanship election to a fine of N300,000.00 or 3 months imprisonment or both; in the



case of Councillorship election to a fine of N100,000.00 or 1 month imprisonment or both (Electoral Act, 2010). The 2010 Act also made a provision in Section 93(1) that “no political party shall accept or keep in its possession any anonymous monetary or other contributions, gifts, properties, etc from any source whatsoever. For the purpose of this research, political party financing represents the means through which the political party receive funding to execute their day to day activities before, during and after elections. In our view, financing, a major component in the development of political parties and by extension democracy itself this is largely due to the fact that democracy can only flourish where there are strong and vibrant political parties and therefore vibrant and strong political parties can only be possible when they are well funded to carry out their primary mandate of education, mobilization, information dissemination, and recruitment.

In the same vein it is pertinent to note that every political association must fulfill certain conditions before it can be registered and recognized as a political party, one of which is the source of funding. The primary sources of financing political parties in any democracy across the globe is through payment of membership dues, but none the less, Nigeria presents an exception because such dues are hardly paid, another source of funding for the political parties are government grants to political parties which is a universal practice. Party financing is the livewire of political parties that further enables political parties to create awareness about party manifestoes as a means for mobilization and recruitment of more members, this is key to winning elections and execution of party programs through government policies.

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THEORETICAL EVALUATION OF STEPS APPROACHING ZERO EMISSION ON A DOUBLE THICK BARRIER OF A GAMMA PARTICLE

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this work is to obtain tunneling probability of a gamma particle. The application of Schrödinger's equation in barrier penetration has been applied to gamma particle decay for light, medium and heavy nuclei. Gamma particle tunneling probability has been calculated analytically. Decay probability computed for each gamma particle emitting nucleus shows interesting variations. Log plot of calculated Decay constant plotted against atomic number (Z), mass number (A) and Energy for gamma particle emitting nucleus shows the variations interesting. Half-life which is a function of decay probability plotted against gamma particle energy or against atomic number of gamma particle emitting nucleus shows the variations of decay probabilities. Log plot of Calculated Half-life plotted against atomic number (Z), mass number (A) and Energy for gamma particle emitting nucleus shows interesting variations of decay probabilities. Calculated half-lives compared with experimental half-lives for each gamma particle emitting nucleus shows results which are in good agreement.

Key word: Schrödinger's equation, Emission, Half-life, Gamma and Decay constant.

INTRODUCTION

Gamma decay is a type of radioactive decay in which gamma rays are emitted.

Gamma decay occurs when a nuclide is produced in an excited state, gamma emission occurring by transition to a lower energy state. It can occur in association with alpha decay and beta decay (Raju et al., 2006). A gamma ray or gamma radiation (symbol γ), is a penetrating electromagnetic radiation arising from the radioactive decay of atomic nuclei. It consists of the shortest wavelength electromagnetic waves and so imparts the highest photon energy. Paul Villard, a French chemist and physicist, discovered gamma radiation in 1900 while studying radiation emitted by radium (Villard, 1900a). In 1903, Ernest Rutherford named this radiation gamma rays based on their relatively strong penetration of matter; he had previously discovered two less penetrating types of decay radiation, which he named alpha rays and beta rays in ascending order of penetrating power (Rutherford, 1903). Gamma rays from radioactive decay are in the energy range from a few kilo electron volts (keV) to approximately 8 Mega electron volts (~8 MeV), corresponding to the typical energy levels in nuclei with reasonably long lifetimes. The energy spectrum of gamma rays can be used to identify the decaying radionuclides using gamma spectroscopy. Very-high-energy gamma rays in the 100–1000 tera electron volt (TeV) range have been observed from sources such as the Cygnus X-3 micro quasar. Natural sources of gamma rays originating on Earth are mostly as a result of radioactive decay and secondary radiation from atmospheric interactions with cosmic ray particles (Villard, 1900b). However, there are other rare natural sources, such as terrestrial

gamma-ray flashes, which produce gamma rays from electron action upon the nucleus. Notable artificial sources of gamma rays include fission, such as that which occurs in nuclear reactors, and high energy physics experiments, such as neutral pion decay and nuclear fusion. Gamma rays and X-rays are both electromagnetic radiation, and since they overlap in the electromagnetic spectrum, the terminology varies between scientific disciplines. In some fields of physics, they are distinguished by their origin: Gamma rays are created by nuclear decay, while in the case of X-rays; the origin is outside the nucleus. In astrophysics, gamma rays are conventionally defined as having photon energies above 100 keV and are the subject of gamma ray astronomy, while radiation below 100 keV is classified as X-rays and is the subject of X-ray astronomy. This convention stems from the early man-made X-rays, which had energies only up to 100 keV, whereas many gamma rays could go to higher energies. A large fraction of astronomical gamma rays are screened by Earth's atmosphere.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Materials

The materials used are the Schrödinger's equation.

Method

We now consider the beam of a particle incident upon a square potential barrier of height V_0 presumed positive for now and width a . As mentioned above, this geometry is particularly important as it includes the simplest example of scattering phenomenon in which a beam of particles is 'deflected' by a local potential. Moreover, this one-dimensional geometry also provides a flat form to explore a phenomenon peculiar to quantum mechanics quantum tunneling (Dyson, 1951).

The potential energy variation in the case of a rectangular potential barrier shown in figure 1 is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(x) &= \left. \begin{array}{l} 0, \quad x < 0 \\ V_0, \quad 0 < x < L \end{array} \right\} \\
 V(x) &= \left. \begin{array}{l} 0, \quad x < 0 \\ V_0, \quad 0 < x < L \end{array} \right\} \\
 &(1)
 \end{aligned}$$

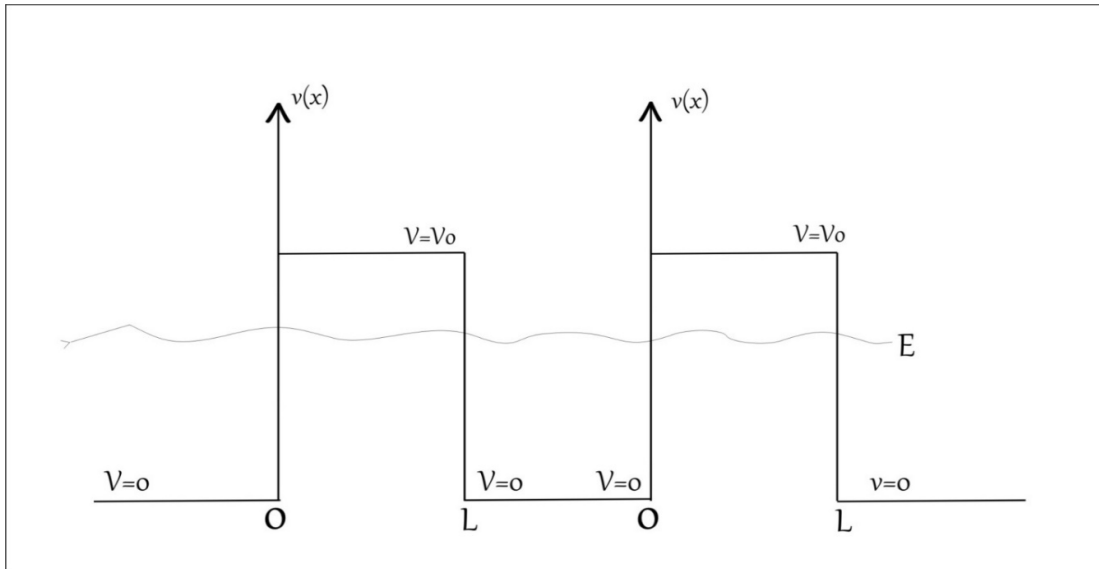


Fig.1: a rectangular double thick potential barrier of width L and height V_0 .

Let us consider two cases

- (i) $0 < E < V_0$ Classically a particle of energy E if incident from the left would be reflected at the double thick barriers as it cannot enter ($0 < x < L$) in which its K.E is negative. To describe the behavior of particle quantum mechanically, we will have to solve the Schrödinger equation,

$$\left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [E - V(x)] \varphi(x) \right) \left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [E - V(x)] \varphi(x) \right) = 0$$

Or

$$\left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + k^2 \varphi(x) \right) \left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + k^2 \varphi(x) \right) = 0, k^2 = \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}, x < 0 \text{ and } x > L \quad (2)$$

And

$$\left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + \gamma^2 \varphi(x) \right) \left(\frac{d^2 \varphi(x)}{dx^2} + \gamma^2 \varphi(x) \right) = 0, \gamma^2 = \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2}, 0 < x < L \quad (3)$$

The general solutions of these equations are given by

$$\varphi^2(x) = (A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx})(A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx}), x < 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\varphi^2(x) = (C e^{\alpha x} + D e^{-\alpha x})(C e^{\alpha x} + D e^{-\alpha x}), 0 < x < L \quad (5)$$

$$\varphi^2(x) = (F e^{ikx} + G e^{-ikx})(F e^{ikx} + G e^{-ikx}), x < L \quad (6)$$

Notice that we allow for waves traveling in both the directions for $x < 0$ representing the incident and reflected waves. We must also allow for $e^{\gamma x}$ and $e^{-\gamma x}$ term in the region $0 < x < L$ because x is finite and there is no danger of φ becoming infinite. We have only a wave traveling from left

to right of $x > L$ as there cannot be any wave travelling from right to left (reflected wave) since there is no discontinuity in the potential. Hence we must set $G=0$. The solution, therefore would be

$$\varphi^2(x) = (F e^{ikx})(F e^{ikx}), x > L \quad (7)$$

The continuity conditions (that is, φ and $d\varphi/dx$ be continuous) at $x = 0$ and at $x = L$ yield

$$\text{At } x = 0, A + B = C + D \text{ and } ik(A - B) = \alpha(C + D) \quad (8)$$

At $x > L$,

$$(Ce^{\gamma L} + De^{-\gamma L})(Ce^{\gamma L} + De^{-\gamma L}) = (F e^{ikL})^2 \text{ and } \gamma(Ce^{\gamma L} + De^{-\gamma L})\gamma(Ce^{\gamma L} + De^{-\gamma L}) = (ikF e^{ikL})^2 \quad (9)$$

There are number of ways of solving these equations. If solution leads to

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C^2 &= \left(\frac{[(\gamma+ik)A+(\gamma-ik)B]}{2\gamma} \right) \left(\frac{[(\gamma+ik)A+(\gamma-ik)B]}{2\gamma} \right) \\ D^2 &= \left(\frac{[(\gamma-ik)A+(\gamma+ik)B]}{2\gamma} \right) \left(\frac{[(\gamma-ik)A+(\gamma+ik)B]}{2\gamma} \right) \end{aligned} \right\} x = 0 \quad (10)$$

Similarly

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C^2 &= \left(\frac{[(\gamma+ik)Ae^{-(\gamma-ik)L}F]}{2\gamma} \right) \left(\frac{[(\gamma+ik)Ae^{-(\gamma-ik)L}F]}{2\gamma} \right) \\ D^2 &= \left(\frac{[(\gamma-ik)Ae^{(\gamma+ik)L}F]}{2\gamma} \right) \left(\frac{[(\gamma-ik)Ae^{(\gamma+ik)L}F]}{2\gamma} \right) \end{aligned} \right\} x = L \quad (11)$$

Equating the values of C^2 and D^2 to each other yield

$$((\gamma + ik)A + (\gamma - ik)B)^2 = ((\gamma + ik)Ae^{-(\gamma-ik)L}F)((\gamma + ik)Ae^{-(\gamma-ik)L}F) \quad (12)$$

And

$$((\gamma - ik)A + (\gamma + ik)B)^2 = ((\gamma - ik)Ae^{(\gamma+ik)L}F)((\gamma - ik)Ae^{(\gamma+ik)L}F) \quad (13)$$

And so

$$(B/A)^2 = \left(\frac{(\gamma-ik)}{(\gamma+ik)} [e^{(\gamma+ik)L} F/A - 1] \right) \left(\frac{(\gamma-ik)}{(\gamma+ik)} [e^{(\gamma+ik)L} F/A - 1] \right) \quad (14)$$

Putting the above value of $(B/A)^2$ in to (3.14) yields

$$\begin{aligned} &\left(\frac{(\gamma + ik) + (\gamma - ik)^2}{(\gamma + ik)} \left[e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} - 1 \right] \right)^2 \\ &= \left((\gamma + ik) e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} \right) \left((\gamma + ik) e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Or



$$\left(\frac{(\gamma + ik)^2 + (\gamma - ik)^2}{(\gamma + ik)} \left[e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} - 1 \right] \right)^2$$

$$= \left((\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} \right) \left((\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} \frac{F}{A} \right)$$

O_2

$$((\gamma + ik)^2 - (\gamma - ik)^2)^2$$

$$= \left(\frac{F}{A} [(\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L}] \right) \left(\frac{F}{A} [(\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L}] \right)$$

$$\left(\frac{F}{A} \right)^2$$

$$= \left(\frac{4iky}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L}]} \right) \left(\frac{4iky}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L} - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{(\gamma+ik)L}]}\right)$$

After multiplying the numerator and denominator $e^{(\gamma-ik)L}$

$$\left(\frac{F}{A} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{2\gamma L}]}\right) \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{2\gamma L}]}\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{2\gamma L}]}\right) \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma + ik)^2 - (\gamma - ik)^2 e^{2\gamma L}]}\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L}) + 2iky(1 + e^{2\gamma L})]}\right) \left(\frac{4iky e^{(\gamma-ik)L}}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L}) + 2iky(1 + e^{2\gamma L})]}\right) \quad (15)$$

Putting the value of $\left(\frac{F}{A}\right)^2$ from above into equation (5), we get

$$\left(\frac{F}{A} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)(e^{2\gamma L} - 1)}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L}) + 2iky(1 + e^{2\gamma L})]}\right) \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)(e^{2\gamma L} - 1)}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L}) + 2iky(1 + e^{2\gamma L})]}\right) \quad (16)$$

It may be mentioned here that in case one is interest in finding C/A and D/A , this can be achieved by substituting the value of $\left(\frac{F}{A}\right)^2$ from (15) into equations (11).

From (7), the reflection coefficient (or the probability of reflection) is given by

$$R = \frac{j_{ref}}{j_{inc}} = \left(\frac{\hbar k/m |B|^2}{\hbar k/m |A|^2} \right)^2 = (|B/A|^2)^2 = \left[\left(\frac{B}{A} \right) * \left(\frac{B}{A} \right) \right]^2$$

$$= \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 (e^{2\gamma L} - 1)^2}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L})^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2(1 + e^{2\gamma L})^2]} \right) \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 (e^{2\gamma L} - 1)^2}{[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L})^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2(1 + e^{2\gamma L})^2]} \right)$$

After dividing the numerator and denominator by $(1 - e^{2\gamma L})^2$ one gets

$$\begin{aligned}
 R^2 &= \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2 \left\{ \frac{(1+e^{2\gamma L})}{(1-e^{2\gamma L})} \right\}^2 \right]} \right) \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2 \left\{ \frac{(1+e^{2\gamma L})}{(1-e^{2\gamma L})} \right\}^2 \right]} \right) \\
 O_2 \\
 &= \frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2) + 4k^2\gamma^2 \left(\frac{1+e^{4\gamma L} + 2e^{2\gamma L}}{1+e^{4\gamma L} - 2e^{2\gamma L}} - 1 \right) + 4k^2\gamma^2} \\
 &= \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2) + 4k^2\gamma^2 \left\{ \frac{4}{(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2)} \right\}} \right) \left(\frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2) + 4k^2\gamma^2 \left\{ \frac{4}{(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2)} \right\}} \right) \\
 R^2 &= \frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2) + \frac{4k^2\gamma^2 \cdot 1}{\left(\frac{e^{\gamma L} - e^{-\gamma L}}{2} \right)^2}} \\
 &= \frac{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2) + \frac{4k^2\gamma^2\gamma^2}{\sin^2 \hbar\gamma L} \right]} \\
 &\quad (17)
 \end{aligned}$$

After substituting the values of γ^2 and k^2 , one gets

$$\begin{aligned}
 R^2 &= \left(\frac{V_0^2}{\left[V_0^2 + \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{\sin \hbar\alpha L} \right]} \right) \left(\frac{V_0^2}{\left[V_0^2 + \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{\sin \hbar\alpha L} \right]} \right) \\
 &= \left[1 + \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{V_0^2 \sin \hbar\alpha L} \right]^{-1} \times \left[1 + \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{V_0^2 \sin \hbar\alpha L} \right]^{-1} \quad (18)
 \end{aligned}$$

The probability of finding the particle in a region $X > 0$, is given the name transmission coefficient T and using equation (15) we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 T^2 &= \frac{j_{ref}}{j_{inc}} = \left(\frac{\hbar k/m |F|^2}{\hbar k/m |A|^2} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{|F|^2}{|A|^2} \right)^2 = \left[\left(\frac{F}{A} \right) * \left(\frac{F}{A} \right) \right]^2 \\
 &= \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2 e^{2\gamma L}}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L})^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2(1 + e^{2\gamma L})^2 \right]} \right) \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2 e^{2\gamma L}}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)(1 - e^{2\gamma L})^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2(1 + e^{2\gamma L})^2 \right]} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2) + 4k^2\gamma^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} + 2)} \right) \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2) + 4k^2\gamma^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} + 2)} \right) \\
 \text{Adding and subtracting } 4k^2\gamma^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2) \text{ from the denominator, one get} \\
 &= \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2) + 16k^2\gamma^2} \right) \left(\frac{16k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2(e^{2\gamma L} + e^{-2\gamma L} - 2) + 16k^2\gamma^2} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{4k^2\gamma^2}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 \left(\frac{e^{\gamma L} - e^{-\gamma L}}{2} \right)^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2 \right]} \right) \left(\frac{4k^2\gamma^2}{\left[(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 \left(\frac{e^{\gamma L} - e^{-\gamma L}}{2} \right)^2 + 4k^2\gamma^2 \right]} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$



$$= \left(\frac{4k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 \sin^2 \gamma L + 4k^2\gamma^2} \right) \left(\frac{4k^2\gamma^2}{(\gamma^2 - k^2)^2 \sin^2 \gamma L + 4k^2\gamma^2} \right) \quad (19)$$

Putting the value of γ^2 and k^2 one gets

$$T^2 = \left[1 + \frac{V_0^2 \sin^2 \alpha L}{4E(V_0 - E)} \right]^{-1} \times \left[1 + \frac{V_0^2 \sin^2 \alpha L}{4E(V_0 - E)} \right]^{-1} \quad (20)$$

One may, however check that $R + T = 1$. There are two interesting situations in which equations (17) to (20) become simpler considering the purely formal limit in which $\hbar \rightarrow 0$. The quantity \hbar is a physical constant, but we can consider as a mathematical variable in order to examine the classical limit of our formulas. As $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, k and γ approach infinity and hence $T \rightarrow 0$, $R \rightarrow 1$, which is of course, the proper behavior of a classical particle with $E < V_0$. The other interesting limit occurs for high and wide barrier, that is, when $\gamma \gg 1$. In that case $\sin^2 \gamma L \approx \frac{1}{2} e^{\gamma L}$, hence from (3.20) after neglecting 1 in comparison to the other which is very large, one gets

$$T^2 = \left(\frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{V_0^2 \left[\frac{1}{2} e^{-2\left\{ \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} L} \right]^2} \right) \left(\frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{V_0^2 \left[\frac{1}{2} e^{-2\left\{ \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} L} \right]^2} \right) \\ = \left(16 \frac{E}{V_0} \left(1 - \frac{E}{V_0} \right) e^{-2\left\{ \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} L} \right) \left(16 \frac{E}{V_0} \left(1 - \frac{E}{V_0} \right) e^{-2\left\{ \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} L} \right) \quad (21)$$

From equation (21) transmission coefficient would be given by

$$T^2 = \left(16 \frac{E}{V_0} \left[1 - \frac{E}{V_0} \right] e^{-2\gamma L} \right) \left(16 \frac{E}{V_0} \left[1 - \frac{E}{V_0} \right] e^{-2\gamma L} \right) \quad (22)$$

$\gamma L \gg 1$, the most important factor in the above equation is the exponential. The factor in front of the exponential which is of the order of 2 is not significant since its variation with V and E is negligible as compared to the variation in exponential itself (Chaddha, 1983). Hence we can write

$$\ln T^2 \simeq -4\gamma L \quad (23)$$

For a rectangular double thick potential barrier of thickness dx , we can write

$$\ln T^2 \simeq -4\gamma dx \quad (24)$$

Where

$$\gamma^4 = \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [V(x) - E] \right) \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [V(x) - E] \right) \\ = \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right] \right) \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right] \right) \quad (25)$$

making γ a function of x

Equation (25) expression for the transmission coefficient or tunneling probability of a rectangular barrier. The actual barrier encountered by gamma particle has an exponential tail. We can approximate it as consisting of many rectangular barrier of decreasing height and obtain the total probability by summing the tunneling probability of each barrier the region between r_0 and r_1 . In this entire region, of course $E < V$. Hence taking the summation over all the rectangular potential barriers, we gets

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \gamma(x) dx \right) \left(-2 \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \gamma(x) dx \right) \quad (26)$$

From equation (3.25) that γ can be while is a function of x

$$\gamma = \left(\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \left(\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \quad (27)$$

Substituting equation (27) in to equation (26)

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx \right) \left(-2 \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 x} \right) - E \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx \right) \quad (28)$$

Making use of equation (21), leads to

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \left(\frac{r_0}{x} - 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{r_0}^{r_1} \left(\frac{r_0}{x} - 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dx \right) \quad (29)$$

Putting $x = r_1 \cos^2 \theta$, $dx = r_1 2 \cos \theta (-\sin \theta d\theta)$ and also changing the limits to

θ (at $x = r_0$, $\theta_0 = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{r_0}{x} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and at $x = r_0$, $\theta_0 = 0$), one gets

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m E}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \left(\frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} - 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta \cos \theta dx \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m E}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \left(\frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} - 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \theta \cos \theta dx \right) \quad (30)$$

Since

$$\left(\left(\frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} - 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{(1 - \cos^2 \theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\cos \theta} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \right)^2$$

The double thick potential barrier is on the x coordinate

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m E}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \sin^2 \theta d\theta \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2m E}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \sin^2 \theta d\theta \right) \quad (31)$$

Using trigonometric rule and integrating



$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta \right) \quad (32)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\cos 2\theta}{2} \right) d\theta \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\cos 2\theta}{2} \right) d\theta \right) \quad (33)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \frac{1}{2} d\theta - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} \cos 2\theta d\theta \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \int_0^{\theta_0} \frac{1}{2} d\theta - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} \cos 2\theta d\theta \right) \quad (34)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} d\theta - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} \cos 2\theta d\theta \right) \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} d\theta - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\theta_0} \cos 2\theta d\theta \right) \right) \quad (35)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta)) \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta)) \right) \quad (36)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta - (1 - \cos^2 \theta))) \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta - (1 - \cos^2 \theta))) \right) \quad (37)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta - 1)) \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (\cos^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta - 1)) \right) \quad (38)$$

$$= \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (2 \cos^2 \theta - 1)) \right) \left(-2 \left(\frac{2mE}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1 (\theta_0 - (2 \cos^2 \theta - 1)) \right) \quad (39)$$

After putting the value of E

$$\ln T^2 =$$

$$\left(-2 \left[\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} \right]^{1/2} \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 - \frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right) \left(-2 \left[\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} \right]^{1/2} \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 - \frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right) \quad (40)$$

Because of the fact that the potential barrier is relatively wide, $r_1 \gg r_0$,

$$\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\text{As } \cos \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} = \sin \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\text{If } \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right) \ll 1$$

Also

$$\left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx 1$$

Hence from equation (39)

$$\ln T^2 = \left(-2 \left(\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\pi/2 - 2 \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right) \left(-2 \left(\left(\frac{2m}{\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\pi/2 - 2 \left(\frac{r_0}{r_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \right) \quad (41)$$

Replacing r_1 by $r_1 = \frac{2Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$ and simplifying

$$\ln T^2 = \left(4 \frac{e}{\hbar} \left(\frac{m}{\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} Z^{\frac{1}{2}} r_0^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{e^2}{\hbar\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{m}{2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} Z E^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \left(4 \frac{e}{\hbar} \left(\frac{m}{\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} Z^{\frac{1}{2}} r_0^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{e^2}{\hbar\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{m}{2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} Z E^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right) \quad (42)$$

$$\ln T^2 = 4^2 \left(\frac{e}{\hbar} \right)^2 \left(\frac{m}{\pi\epsilon_0} \right) Z^{\frac{1}{2}} r_0^{\frac{1}{4}} - \frac{e^4}{(\hbar\epsilon_0)^2} \left(\frac{m}{2} \right) Z^2 E^{-\frac{1}{4}} \quad (43)$$

Equation (43) gives the natural logarithm of the tunneling probability of the gamma particle.

Results

We assess the ability of gamma particle in tunneling through a barrier, its relationship with decay constant and half-life using equation (43)

$$\ln \underbrace{T^2}_{K_1} = 4^2 \underbrace{\frac{e^2}{\hbar^2} \left(\frac{m}{\pi\epsilon_0} \right) Z^{\frac{1}{2}} r_0^{\frac{1}{4}}}_{I_1} - \underbrace{\frac{e^4}{(\hbar\epsilon_0)^2} \left(\frac{m}{2} \right) Z^2 E^{-\frac{1}{4}}}_{I_2} \quad 43$$

The constant I_1 and I_2 are to be calculated while:

Z = atomic number of the daughter nucleus (the gamma emitting nucleus)

$$r_0 = 1.1 \left(A_d^{\frac{1}{2}} + A_\gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) \times 10^{-15} m \text{ (for each nucleus)} \quad 44$$

E = Potential energy of the emitted gamma particle

= or energy of decay for each nucleus

m = mass of gamma particle

1 atomic mass unit = $1.66 \times 10^{-27} kg$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} e &= 1.6 \times 10^{-19} C \\ \hbar &= 1.05477 \times 10^{-34} Js \\ \epsilon_0 &= 8.85 \times 10^{-12} Farad/m \end{aligned} \right\} \text{all are in S.I unit}$$

To keep equation (3.64) as simple as possible we calculate the constant I_1 and I_2

$$I_1 = 4^2 \frac{e^2}{\hbar^2} \left(\frac{m}{\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \quad 45$$

$$I_1 = 8.792420946 \times 10^{15}$$

46



$$I_2 = \frac{e^4}{(\hbar\epsilon_0)^2} \left(\frac{m}{2}\right) \quad 47$$

$$I_2 = 2.496984634 \times 10^{-12}$$

48

$$K_1 = T^2 \quad 49$$

Let T^2 be DT

$$K_1 = DT \quad 50$$

$$\ln DT = 8.792420946 \times 10^{15} Z^4 r_0^{\frac{1}{4}} - 2.496984634 \times 10^{-12} Z^2 E^{-\frac{1}{4}}$$

51

Equation (51) is used to get the result for tunneling for every γ emitting nucleus as show in Table 4.1

The decay probability per unit time or constant we write

$$\lambda = \Gamma T \quad 52$$

Where Γ = number of time per second gamma particle within a nucleus strikes the potential barrier

T = the probability of transmission through the barrier.

Assume only one gamma particle exists within a nucleus moving to and fro in the nuclear diameter

$$\Gamma = \frac{v}{2r_0}$$

53

Where $v = \gamma$ particle velocity when it finally leaves the nucleus

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{2r_0} DT \quad 54$$

$$v = 10^7 \text{ms}^{-1}, r_0 = 10^{-14} \text{m}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{10^7}{2 \times 10^{-14}} DT \approx 10^{-21} DT$$

55

Equation (55) can be used to get the result for decay probability per unit time.

The half life $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ is the time taken for half the original number of atom present to decay.

Mathematically half-life $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ can written as

$$t_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} \quad 56$$

Substitute equation (56) into (55) gives

Table 1: $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ gamma particle emitting nuclei and their decay probability

| S/ N | Nucleus (name) | Mass No. (A) | Z | Mass Excess A(KeV) | r_0 | E γ (J) | $\ln DT(E12)$ | DT | Decay constant (E-20) | Half-life (E23) $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ |
|---------|-------------------|--------------------|----|--------------------------|-------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|---|
| 1 | Kr | 75 | 36 | 132.4 | 9.526279442 | 1.081469678E-14 | 6.728293536 | 29.53734267 | 2.953734267 | 2.046937849 |
| 2 | Rb | 76 | 37 | 257.1 | 9.589577676 | 3.97566408E-13 | 6.785920598 | 29.54587108 | 2.954587108 | 2.047528866 |
| 3 | Sr | 80 | 38 | 589.0 | 9.838699101 | 2.146917582E-14 | 6.82001297 | 29.55088249 | 2.956088249 | 2.047846157 |
| 4 | Y | 80 | 39 | 385.9 | 9.838699101 | 4.524548695E-14 | 6.920046991 | 29.56544368 | 2.956544368 | 2.048885247 |

Theoretical Evaluation of StepApproaching Zero Emission on a Double ThickBarrier of a Gamma Particle

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|-----|----|--------|--------------|-----------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 5 | Y | 81 | 39 | 124.2 | 9.90 | 1.357044773E-14 | 6.930800892 | 29.56699649 | 2.956699649 | 2.046937874 |
| 6 | Y | 87 | 39 | 484.5 | 10.26011696 | 5.34005694E-14 | 6.992986692 | 29.5792886 | 2.9592886 | 2.04961187 |
| 7 | Z _s | 80 | 40 | 311.0 | 9.838699101 | 5.12696736E-15 | 6.963896005 | 29.57177313 | 2.957177313 | 2.049323878 |
| 8 | Z _s | 85 | 40 | 416.5 | 10.1414989 | 2.552670702E-14 | 7.016960099 | 29.57935121 | 2.957935121 | 2.049849036 |
| 9 | Z _s | 89 | 40 | 909.1 | 10.37737925 | 6.802844816E-14 | 7.056410711 | 29.58509935 | 2.958509935 | 2.050247385 |
| 10 | Z _s | 90 | 40 | 2186.2 | 10.43551628 | 5.609222727E-14 | 7.06727447 | 29.58649601 | 2.958649601 | 2.050344773 |
| 11 | Nb | 84 | 41 | 540.0 | 10.08166653 | 6.584948703E-14 | 6.995280444 | 29.57625182 | 2.957265682 | 2.049634598 |
| 12 | Nb | 86 | 41 | 751.7 | 10.20098035 | 1.02411773E-13 | 7.070740754 | 29.58698636 | 2.988698636 | 2.050378155 |
| 13 | Nb | 88 | 41 | 1057.1 | 10.31891467 | 1.026354778E-13 | 7.09112895 | 29.58986568 | 2.958986568 | 2.050577692 |
| 14 | Nb | 89 | 41 | 1627.7 | 10.37737952 | 2.285505918E-13 | 7.101111936 | 29.5912725 | 2.95912725 | 2.050695184 |
| 15 | Mo | 106 | 42 | 465.7 | 11.32519316 | 4.381954416E-14 | 7.30182856 | 29.51915492 | 2.961915492 | 2.052606812 |
| 16 | Mo | 107 | 42 | 400.3 | 11.37848848 | 6.897856006E-14 | 7.310413426 | 29.62032094 | 2.962032094 | 2.052688241 |
| 17 | Tc | 88 | 43 | 741.0 | 10.31891467 | 1.10742495E-13 | 7.176027451 | 29.60716707 | 2.960716707 | 2.051402458 |
| 18 | Tc | 90 | 43 | 948.1 | 10.43551628 | 1.24525198E-13 | 7.19621402 | 29.6045747 | 2.96045767 | 2.05159687 |
| 19 | Tc | 91 | 43 | 653.0 | 10.94488181 | 8.558831137E-14 | 7.282460819 | 29.61648995 | 2.961468995 | 2.052422754 |
| 20 | Ru | 91 | 44 | 393.7 | 10.49333122 | 4.401181043E-14 | 7.24616298 | 29.61770478 | 2.961770478 | 2.052091141 |
| 21 | Ru | 97 | 44 | 215.7 | 10.83374358 | 1.858525668E-15 | 7.30574774 | 29.61968622 | 2.961968622 | 2.052644255 |
| 22 | Ru | 105 | 44 | 724.3 | 11.27164584 | 6.05462807E-14 | 7.378506638 | 29.62959239 | 2.962959239 | 2.05330753 |
| 23 | Rh | 92 | 45 | 893.0 | 10.55082935 | 1.183047718E-13 | 7.298493917 | 29.61868913 | 2.961868913 | 2.052575157 |
| 24 | Rh | 94 | 45 | 756.2 | 10.66489569 | 8.690209675E-14 | 7.318140675 | 29.62137741 | 2.962137741 | 2.052761454 |
| 25 | Rh | 96 | 45 | 832.6 | 10.7775487 | 7.459737509E-14 | 7.337425015 | 29.62400908 | 2.962400908 | 2.052943829 |
| 26 | Rh | 99 | 45 | 341.0 | 10.94488181 | 2.007528157E-14 | 7.365702458 | 29.62785554 | 2.962785554 | 2.053210389 |
| 27 | Pd | 115 | 46 | 749.0 | 11.79618582 | 6.410311377E-14 | 7.54267371 | 29.6207549 | 2.96207549 | 2.054888832 |
| 28 | Pd | 117 | 46 | 247.3 | 11.898831921 | 1.912999696E-14 | 7.56256872 | 29.65423203 | 2.965423203 | 2.055038279 |
| 29 | Ag | 95 | 47 | 1261.2 | 10.72147378 | 1.636634412E-13 | 7.407924692 | 29.63357145 | 2.963357145 | 2.053606501 |
| 30 | Ag | 99 | 47 | 342.6 | 10.94488181 | 1.238483053E-14 | 7.446213897 | 29.63872682 | 2.96372682 | 2.053963768 |
| 31 | Cd | 100 | 48 | 936.6 | 11.0 | 1.77600316E-14 | 7.494919158 | 29.64524646 | 2.964524646 | 2.054415558 |
| 32 | Cd | 105 | 48 | 961.8 | 11.27164584 | 1.350795682E-13 | 7.540786622 | 29.65134513 | 2.965134523 | 2.054838224 |
| 33 | In | 104 | 49 | 658.0 | 11.27164584 | 2.834251644E-14 | 7.570678971 | 29.65530387 | 2.965530387 | 2.055112558 |
| 34 | In | 106 | 49 | 632.6 | 11.32519316 | 8.797555554E-14 | 7.588726425 | 29.6576849 | 2.96576849 | 2.055277564 |
| 35 | Sn | 105 | 50 | 1281.7 | 11.27164584 | 1.752541531E-13 | 7.618119947 | 29.66155073 | 2.966155073 | 2.055545466 |
| 36 | Sn | 107 | 50 | 678.6 | 11.37848848 | 8.765512008E-14 | 7.63610396 | 29.66390929 | 2.966390929 | 2.055703914 |
| 37 | Sb | 108 | 51 | 1205.8 | 11.43153533 | 1.312663862E-13 | 7.682934965 | 29.67002275 | 2.967002275 | 2.056132577 |
| 38 | Sb | 112 | 51 | 1257.1 | 11.64130577 | 1.56548744E-13 | 7.719440754 | 29.6745687 | 2.96745687 | 2.056447611 |
| 39 | Te | 113 | 52 | 814.0 | 11.69316039 | 1.056956365E-13 | 7.72651097 | 29.67567851 | 2.967567851 | 2.056524521 |
| 40 | Te | 115 | 52 | 770.4 | 11.79618582 | 4.364330965E-14 | 7.781166519 | 29.68272734 | 2.968272734 | 2.057013005 |
| 41 | I | 112 | 53 | 689.0 | 11.64130577 | 9.308650113E-14 | 7.79251889 | 29.68419527 | 2.968419527 | 2.057114039 |
| 42 | I | 114 | 53 | 708.8 | 11.74478608 | 5.380111373E-14 | 7.809778513 | 29.68639772 | 2.968639772 | 2.057267262 |
| 43 | Xe | 135 | 54 | 786.9 | 12.78084504 | 2.235037334E-14 | 8.013953247 | 29.71220529 | 2.971220529 | 2.059055827 |
| 44 | Xe | 140 | 54 | 805.6 | 13.01537552 | 3.471918209E-14 | 8.050467255 | 29.71675125 | 2.971675125 | 2.059370862 |
| 45 | Cs | 116 | 55 | 393.5 | 11.84736258 | 1.361850705E-14 | 7.8995902 | 29.697832 | 2.9697832 | 2.058059134 |
| 46 | Cs | 125 | 55 | 525.0 | 12.29837388 | 6.025788825E-14 | 7.973712585 | 29.70717245 | 2.970717245 | 2.05870705 |
| 47 | Ba | 126 | 56 | 233.6 | 12.34746938 | 3.52479006E-15 | 8.01770307 | 29.7126731 | 2.97126731 | 2.059088246 |
| 48 | Ba | 143 | 56 | 211.5 | 13.15405652 | 2.611548999E-14 | 8.145554522 | 29.72849344 | 2.972849344 | 2.060184595 |
| 49 | La | 126 | 57 | 256.0 | 12.34746938 | 1.385883365E-14 | 8.053259166 | 29.71709799 | 2.971709799 | 2.059394591 |
| 50 | La | 130 | 57 | 357.4 | 12.54192968 | 1.345828932E-14 | 7.533071049 | 29.65032392 | 2.965032392 | 2.054767448 |
| 51 | Ce | 127 | 58 | 120.4 | 12.39637044 | 8.395409052E-15 | 7.305774775 | 29.61928622 | 2.961928622 | 2.052644255 |
| 52 | Ce | 133 | 58 | 477.2 | 12.68581885 | 5.913636414E-14 | 7.378506684 | 29.62959239 | 2.962959239 | 2.053330752 |
| 53 | Pz | 129 | 59 | 203.8 | 12.49359836 | 1.336215868E-14 | 7.2984939176 | 29.61868913 | 2.961868913 | 2.052575157 |
| 54 | Pz | 137 | 59 | 836.9 | 12.8751699 | 9.989575466E-14 | 7.318140675 | 29.62137741 | 2.962137741 | 2.052761455 |
| 55 | Nd | 133 | 60 | 402.8 | 12.68581885 | 4.24256541E-14 | 7.337425015 | 29.62400708 | 2.962400708 | 2.05293829 |
| 56 | Nd | 152 | 60 | 278.6 | 13.56710871 | 2.377661113E-14 | 7.365702458 | 29.62785564 | 2.962785564 | 2.053210389 |
| 57 | Pm | 136 | 61 | 373.7 | 12.8280947 | 3.37578751E-14 | 7.546278371 | 29.65207549 | 2.965207549 | 2.048888832 |
| 58 | Sm | 137 | 62 | 380.5 | 12.8751699 | 2.911156154E-14 | 7.56256872 | 29.65423205 | 2.965423203 | 2.055638279 |
| 59 | Eu | 139 | 63 | 719.0 | 12.96880873 | 5.423370161E-14 | 7.407924692 | 29.63357145 | 2.963357145 | 2.053606501 |
| 60 | Gd | 159 | 64 | 363.0 | 13.87047223 | 4.792112304E-14 | 7.446213799 | 29.63872782 | 2.96372782 | 2.053963758 |
| 61 | Tb | 144 | 65 | 284.0 | 13.20 | 1.683888342E-14 | 8.462471713 | 29.76662342 | 2.976662342 | 2.062827003 |



| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----|-----|----|--------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 62 | Dy | 145 | 66 | 578.2 | 13.24575404 | 8.542809364E-14 | 8.501853707 | 29.77130541 | 2.977130534 | 2.06315146 |
| 63 | Ho | 146 | 67 | 682.7 | 13.29135057 | 7.786581678E-14 | 8.541211008 | 29.77592392 | 2.977592392 | 2.063471528 |
| 64 | Er | 151 | 68 | 1140.2 | 13.5770263 | 1.691899229E-14 | 8.609065064 | 29.78383684 | 2.978383684 | 2.064019893 |
| 65 | Tm | 152 | 69 | 808.2 | 13.56711081 | 5.322432991E-14 | 8.647675105 | 29.78831163 | 2.978831163 | 2.064329996 |
| 66 | Yb | 157 | 70 | 231.1 | 1379296049 | 2.291113539E-14 | 8.714021135 | 29.79595447 | 2.979595447 | 2.064859645 |

$$t_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{10^{-21}DT} \tag{57}$$

This equation gives the result for half-life of gamma emitting nucleus substitute equation (57) into (51)

$$t_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{10^{-21}} e^{-\left[4^2 \frac{e^2}{\hbar^2} \left(\frac{m}{\pi \epsilon_0}\right) Z^{\frac{1}{4}} r_0^{\frac{1}{4}} - \frac{e^4}{(\hbar \epsilon_0)^2} \left(\frac{m}{2}\right) Z^2 E^{-\frac{1}{4}}\right]} \tag{58}$$

$$t_{\frac{1}{2}} = 6.93 \times 10^{21} \times e^{-\left[8.792420946 \times 10^{15} Z^{\frac{1}{4}} r_0^{\frac{1}{4}} - 2.496984634 \times 10^{-12} Z^2 E^{-\frac{1}{4}}\right]} \tag{59}$$

Table 2: $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ gamma particle emitting nuclei and their calculated and experimental half lives

| S/N | Nucleus (name) | Mass No. (A) | Z | E γ (J) | ln DT (E12) | DT | Log Decay constant | Log Half-life $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ | Log Half-life $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ (from chart) |
|-----|----------------|--------------|----|-----------------|-------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| 1 | Kr | 75 | 36 | 1.081469678E-14 | 6.728293536 | 29.53734267 | -19.52962858 | 23.31110466 | 2.411619406 |
| 2 | Rb | 76 | 37 | 3.97566408E-13 | 6.785920598 | 29.54587108 | -19.529032 | 23.31123003 | 1.568201724 |
| 3 | Sr | 80 | 38 | 2.146977582E-14 | 6.82001297 | 29.55088249 | -19.52942955 | 23.31130369 | 3.804275767 |
| 4 | Y | 80 | 39 | 4.524548695E-14 | 6.920046991 | 29.56544368 | -19.5292156 | 23.31151764 | 0.6812412374 |
| 5 | Y | 81 | 39 | 1.357044773E-14 | 6.930800892 | 29.56699649 | -19.5219279 | 23.31110466 | 1.908875019 |
| 6 | Y | 87 | 39 | 5.34005694E-14 | 6.992986692 | 29.5792886 | -19.52901228 | 23.31167163 | 3.683407279 |
| 7 | Zr | 80 | 40 | 5.12696736E-15 | 6.963896005 | 29.57177313 | -19.52912263 | 23.3116106 | 0.6989700043 |
| 8 | Zr | 85 | 40 | 2.552670702E-14 | 7.016960099 | 29.57935121 | -19.52901136 | 23.31172188 | 1.037426498 |
| 9 | Zr | 89 | 40 | 6.802844816E-14 | 7.056410711 | 29.58509935 | -19.52892697 | 23.31180627 | 3.672910245 |
| 10 | Zr | 90 | 40 | 5.609222727E-14 | 7.06727447 | 29.58649601 | -19.58728819 | 23.31182677 | 2.907945522 |
| 11 | Nb | 84 | 41 | 6.584948703E-14 | 6.995280444 | 29.57625182 | -19.52905679 | 23.31167644 | 1.09181246 |
| 12 | Nb | 86 | 41 | 1.0241173E-13 | 7.070740754 | 29.58698636 | -19.52889927 | 23.31183397 | 1.942504106 |
| 13 | Nb | 88 | 41 | 1.026354778E-13 | 7.09112895 | 29.58986568 | -19.52885701 | 23.31187623 | 2.66464976 |
| 14 | Nb | 89 | 41 | 2.285505918E-13 | 7.101111936 | 29.5912725 | -19.52883836 | 23.31189688 | 3.857332496 |
| 15 | Mo | 106 | 42 | 4.381954916E-14 | 7.30182856 | 29.51915492 | -19.52842747 | 23.31230571 | 0.9395192526 |
| 16 | Mo | 107 | 42 | 4.897856006E-14 | 7.310413426 | 29.62032094 | -19.52841020 | 23.31232299 | 0.5440680444 |
| 17 | Tc | 88 | 43 | 1.10742495E-13 | 7.176027451 | 29.60776707 | -19.52868286 | 23.31205087 | 0.806179974 |
| 18 | Tc | 90 | 43 | 1.24525198E-13 | 7.19621402 | 29.6045747 | -19.52864115 | 23.31209202 | 1.691965103 |
| 19 | Tc | 91 | 43 | 8.558831137E-14 | 7.282460819 | 29.61648995 | -19.528466 | 23.31226682 | 2.29666519 |
| 20 | Ru | 91 | 44 | 4.401181043E-14 | 7.247696298 | 29.61770478 | -19.52853659 | 23.31219665 | 2.346352974 |
| 21 | Ru | 97 | 44 | 1.858525668E-15 | 7.305774774 | 29.61968622 | -19.52841955 | 23.31231369 | 3.619260335 |
| 22 | Ru | 105 | 44 | 6.054628077E-14 | 7.378506638 | 29.62959239 | -19.52827432 | 23.31245891 | 4.203685471 |
| 23 | Rh | 92 | 45 | 1.183047718E-13 | 7.29849397 | 29.61868913 | -19.5284347 | 23.31229907 | 0.6989700043 |
| 24 | Rh | 94 | 45 | 8.690209675E-14 | 7.318140675 | 29.62137741 | -19.52839475 | 23.31233848 | 1.411619706 |
| 25 | Rh | 96 | 45 | 7.459737509E-14 | 7.337425015 | 29.62400908 | -19.5283567 | 23.31237707 | 195128198 |
| 26 | Rh | 99 | 45 | 2.007528157E-14 | 7.365702458 | 29.62785554 | -19.52829978 | 23.31243345 | 4.228400359 |
| 27 | Pd | 115 | 46 | 6.410311377E-14 | 7.542677371 | 29.6207549 | -19.5279449 | 23.31278833 | 1.698970004 |
| 28 | Pd | 117 | 46 | 1.912999696E-14 | 7.56256872 | 29.65423203 | -19.5279132 | 23.31281992 | 0.6434526765 |
| 29 | Ag | 95 | 47 | 1.636634412E-13 | 7.407924692 | 29.63357145 | -19.528216 | 23.3125723 | 0.27875601 |
| 30 | Ag | 99 | 47 | 1.238483053E-14 | 7.446213897 | 29.63872682 | -19.52841047 | 23.31259278 | 1.041392685 |
| 31 | Cd | 100 | 48 | 1.177600316E-14 | 7.494919158 | 29.64524646 | -19.52804493 | 23.3126883 | 1691081492 |
| 32 | Cd | 105 | 48 | 1.350795682E-13 | 7.540768622 | 29.65134513 | -19.5279556 | 23.3127764 | 3.522444234 |

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| | | | | | | | | | |
|----|-------|-----|----|-----------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| 33 | I_n | 104 | 49 | 2.834251644E-14 | 7.570678971 | 29.65530387 | -19.52789762 | 23.31283561 | 2.035829825 |
| 34 | I_n | 106 | 49 | 8.797555554E-14 | 7.588726425 | 29.6576849 | -19.52786275 | 23.31287048 | 2.502427212 |
| 35 | S_n | 105 | 50 | 1.752461531E-13 | 7.618119947 | 29.66155073 | -19.52780615 | 23.31292709 | 1.531478197 |
| 36 | S_n | 107 | 50 | 8.765512008E-14 | 7.63610896 | 29.66390929 | -19.52777162 | 23.31296162 | 2.243534107 |
| 37 | S_b | 108 | 51 | 1.312663862E-13 | 7.682934965 | 29.67002275 | -19.5276212 | 23.31305111 | 0.8692377197 |
| 38 | B | 112 | 51 | 1.56548744E-13 | 7.717940754 | 29.6745687 | -19.52761558 | 23.31317765 | 1.7170963119 |
| 39 | T_c | 113 | 52 | 1.056956365E-13 | 7.72651097 | 29.67567851 | -19.52759934 | 23.31313389 | 2.008600772 |
| 40 | T_c | 115 | 52 | 4.364330965E-14 | 7.781166519 | 29.68272734 | -19.5274962 | 23.31232704 | 2.604226053 |
| 41 | I | 112 | 53 | 9.308650113E-14 | 7.79251889 | 29.68418527 | -19.52747487 | 23.31235837 | 0.531478917 |
| 42 | I | 114 | 53 | 5.380111373E-14 | 7.809778513 | 29.68639772 | -19.5274425 | 23.31297074 | 0.7923916895 |
| 43 | X_c | 135 | 54 | 2.235037334E-14 | 8.013953247 | 29.71220529 | -19.52706511 | 23.31366812 | 2.962842681 |
| 44 | X_c | 140 | 54 | 3.471918209E-14 | 8.050467255 | 29.71675125 | -19.52699867 | 23.31345785 | 1.133538908 |
| 45 | C_s | 116 | 55 | 1.361850705E-14 | 7.8995902 | 29.697832 | -19.52727559 | 23.31345785 | 0.84509804 |
| 46 | C_s | 125 | 55 | 6.025788825E-14 | 7.973721585 | 29.70717245 | -19.52713868 | 23.31354455 | 3.431363764 |
| 47 | B_n | 126 | 56 | 3.52479006E-15 | 8.01770307 | 29.7126731 | -19.52705828 | 23.31367496 | 3.773786445 |
| 48 | B_n | 143 | 56 | 2.611548999E-14 | 8.145554522 | 29.72849344 | -19.5268271 | 23.31390614 | 1.155336037 |
| 49 | L_n | 126 | 57 | 1.385883365E-14 | 8.053259166 | 29.71709799 | -19.5269936 | 23.31373963 | 1.698770004 |
| 50 | L_n | 130 | 57 | 1.345828932E-14 | 7.533071049 | 29.65032392 | -19.52797056 | 23.31276268 | 2.777670503 |
| 51 | C_c | 127 | 58 | 8.395409052E-15 | 7.305774775 | 29.61928622 | -19.52849955 | 23.31231369 | 1.531478917 |
| 52 | C_c | 133 | 58 | 5.913636414E-14 | 7.378506684 | 29.62959239 | -19.52827432 | 23.31245891 | 2.51054501 |
| 53 | P_n | 129 | 59 | 1.336215868E-14 | 7.298493976 | 29.61868913 | -19.52843471 | 23.31229907 | 1.477121255 |
| 54 | P_n | 137 | 59 | 9.989575466E-14 | 7.318140675 | 29.62137741 | -19.52839475 | 23.31233843 | 1.88536122 |
| 55 | N_d | 133 | 60 | 4.24256549E-14 | 7.337425015 | 29.62400708 | -19.52835617 | 23.31237589 | 1.84509804 |
| 56 | N_d | 152 | 60 | 2.377661113E-14 | 7.365702458 | 29.62785564 | -19.52829978 | 23.31243345 | 2.835056102 |
| 57 | P_m | 136 | 61 | 3.37578751E-14 | 7.546278571 | 29.65207549 | -19.5279449 | 23.31278833 | 1.67207858 |
| 58 | S_m | 137 | 62 | 2.911156154E-14 | 7.56256872 | 29.65423205 | -19.52791332 | 23.3129467 | 1.653212514 |
| 59 | E_n | 139 | 63 | 5.423370161E-14 | 7.40792492 | 29.63357445 | -19.528216 | 23.31257723 | 1.255272505 |
| 60 | G_d | 159 | 64 | 4.792112304E-14 | 7.446213799 | 29.63872782 | -19.52814044 | 23.31251275 | 3.045322979 |
| 61 | T_b | 144 | 65 | 1.683888342E-14 | 8.462147113 | 29.76662342 | -19.52627043 | 23.31446281 | 0.6232492904 |
| 62 | d_y | 145 | 66 | 8.542809364E-14 | 8.501853707 | 29.77130541 | -19.52620212 | 23.31453111 | 1.146128036 |
| 63 | H_o | 146 | 67 | 7.786581678E-14 | 8.541211008 | 29.77592392 | -19.526123475 | 23.31489848 | 0.5785139399 |
| 64 | E_n | 151 | 68 | 1.691899229E-14 | 8.609065064 | 29.78383684 | -19.526019366 | 23.31471388 | 0.7781512504 |
| 65 | T_m | 152 | 69 | 5.322432991E-14 | 8.647675105 | 29.78831163 | -19.52595411 | 23.31477912 | 0.6987700043 |
| 66 | Y_b | 157 | 70 | 2.291113539E-14 | 8.714021135 | 29.79595447 | -19.5258427 | 23.31489054 | 1.5910064607 |

Discussion

The results of tunneling probabilities of gamma particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ nuclei are shown in Tables 1 and 2. Table 1 and 2 have atomic number $Z = 36$ to 70 for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ gamma nuclei. The tables that indicate the medium gamma particle has an appropriate result obtained which shows that gamma decay is possible. The calculated tunnel probability in equation (4.8) indicate input data in Table 2. The isotopes of gamma particle emitter with $Z = 36$ to 70 that is $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr} - ^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ for medium gamma particle and $Z = 71$ to 101 that is $^{158}_{71}\text{Lu} - ^{256}_{101}\text{Md}$ for heavy gamma particle are shown. The half-life varies from one nucleus to another which indicates that from Table 2 observes that the values of calculated half-lives are so small but also match with the experimental half-lives. In general, the gamma particle half-life $t_{1/2}$ presented in the Table 2 are in agreement with the experimental result (see chart of Nuclides Edwards et al., 2002).

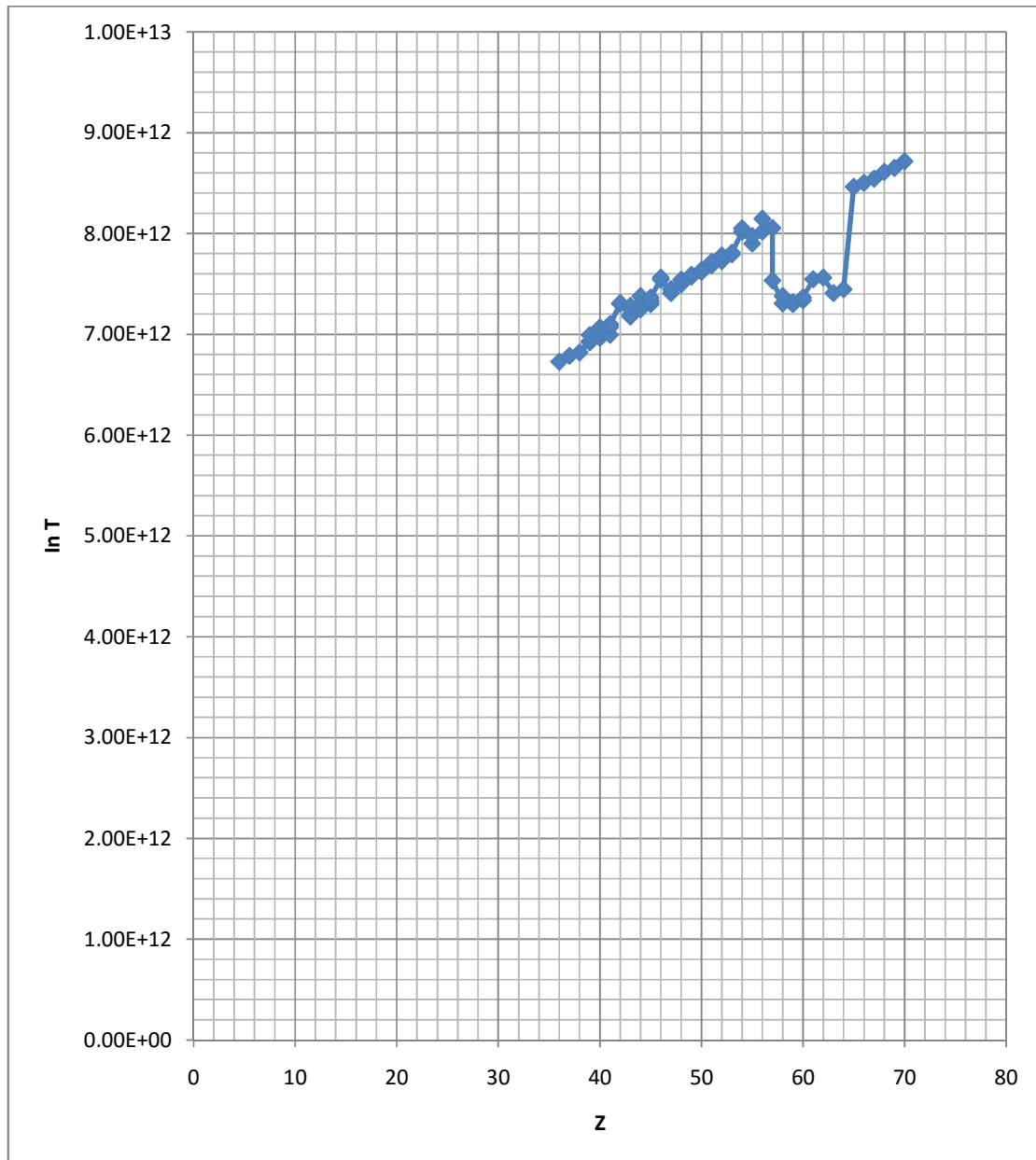


Figure 1: Natural logarithm of Tunneling probability versus Atomic number for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ Gamma Particle emitting nuclei.

Figure 1 represents the natural logarithm of tunneling probability versus atomic number Z for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ mass gamma particle emitters respectively. Figure 1, the anomaly lies with high atomic number Z values for the medium gamma particle nuclei. From atomic number $Z=42, 44, 46, 48, 52, 54$ and 56 are slightly high than the orders also from atomic number $Z=57$ to 65 makes a shape of "w" and from the atomic number $Z=65$ diminishes with increasing value of natural logarithm of tunneling probability. The reason that anomaly lies at low atomic number Z

is as result of different energy of gamma particle emitters with atomic number Z . The shape "w" is as a result from one nucleus to another, that the nuclei have either very small tunneling probability or the nuclei are stable and are depicted by points lying at the bottom for each isotope which even-even is with even-odd (even neutron and odd proton or even proton and odd neutron) the figure shows that the probability of gamma emission is higher than even-even nuclei. The atomic number $Z=42, 44, 46, 52, 54$ and 56 it shows that even-even nuclei have the slightly high probability of gamma emission.

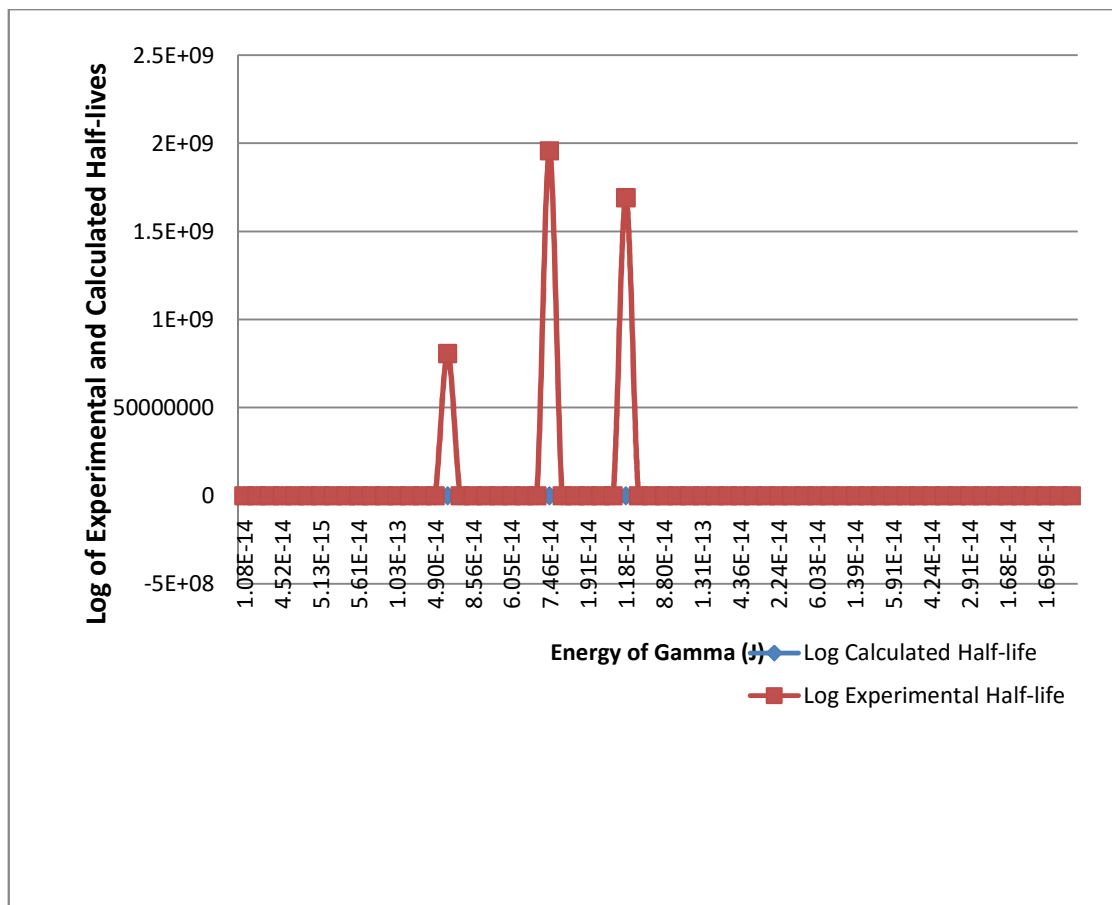


Figure 2: Logarithmic plot of Experimental and Calculated Half-lives versus Energy of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 2 shows the logarithm of experimental and calculated half-lives versus energy of gamma particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei. Figure 2, shows the anomaly lies with high energy of gamma particle values of experimental and calculated half-lives except for the three anomalies nuclei of the experimental half-lives that are high energy of gamma particle emitter prove that they have high half-lives experimentally as in the anomalies of the energy of gamma particle are 4.90 E-14 J , 7.46 E-14 J and 1.18 E-14 J .

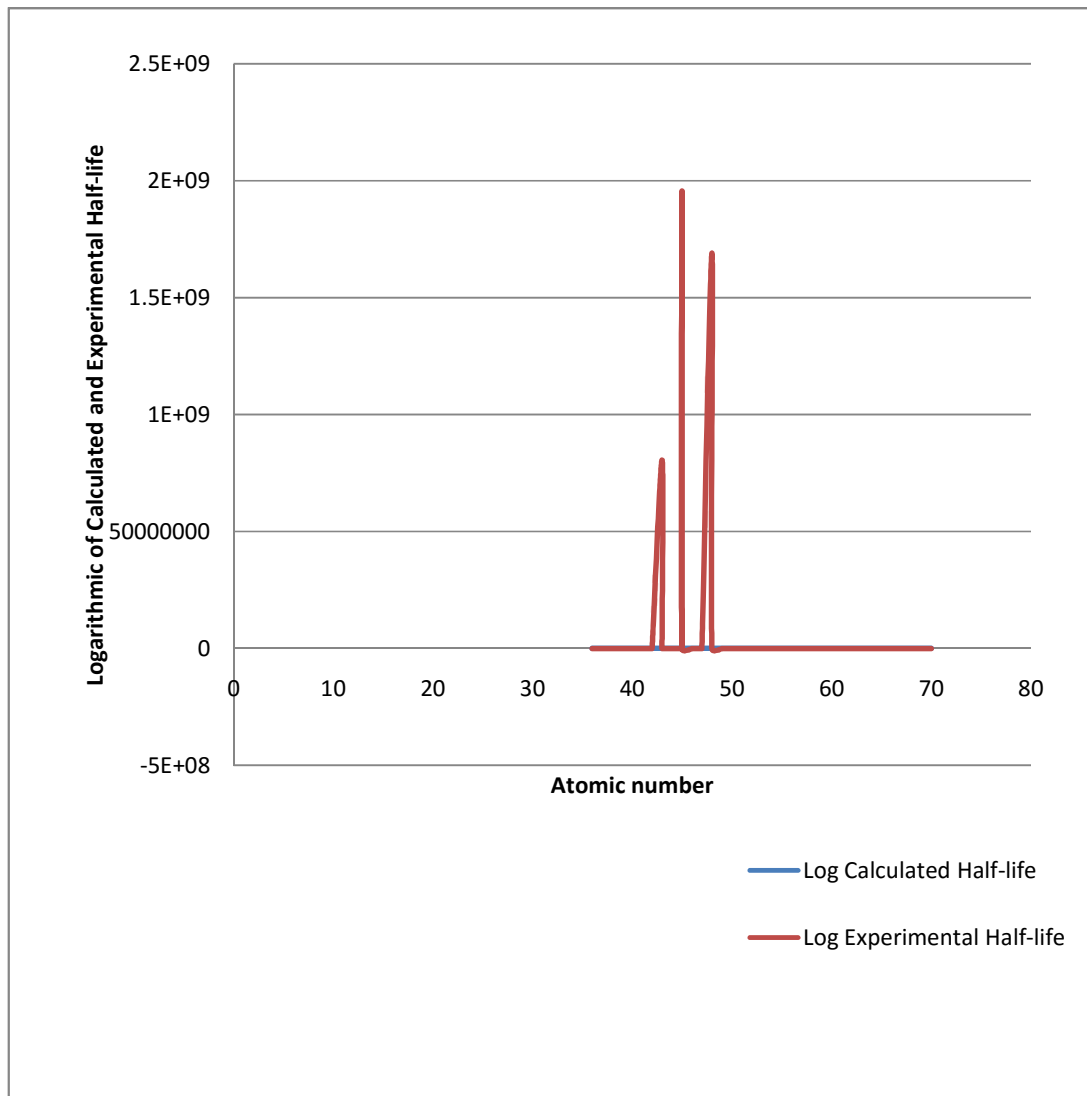


Figure 3: Logarithmic plot of Calculated and Experimental Half-lives versus Atomic Number for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 3 shows the logarithmic calculated and experimental half-lives versus Mass number A for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei respectively.

Figure 3 shows the anomaly lays with high mass number A values for the medium mass number A nuclei sustain a straight line of the value of calculated and experimental half-lives except for the three anomaly of the experimental half-lives that are high that is for the isotopes of the nuclei with mass number A = 94 to 99. These reveal that those low mass number A have a low rate of calculated and experimental half-lives while the three mass number A indicates that they have high experimental half-lives.

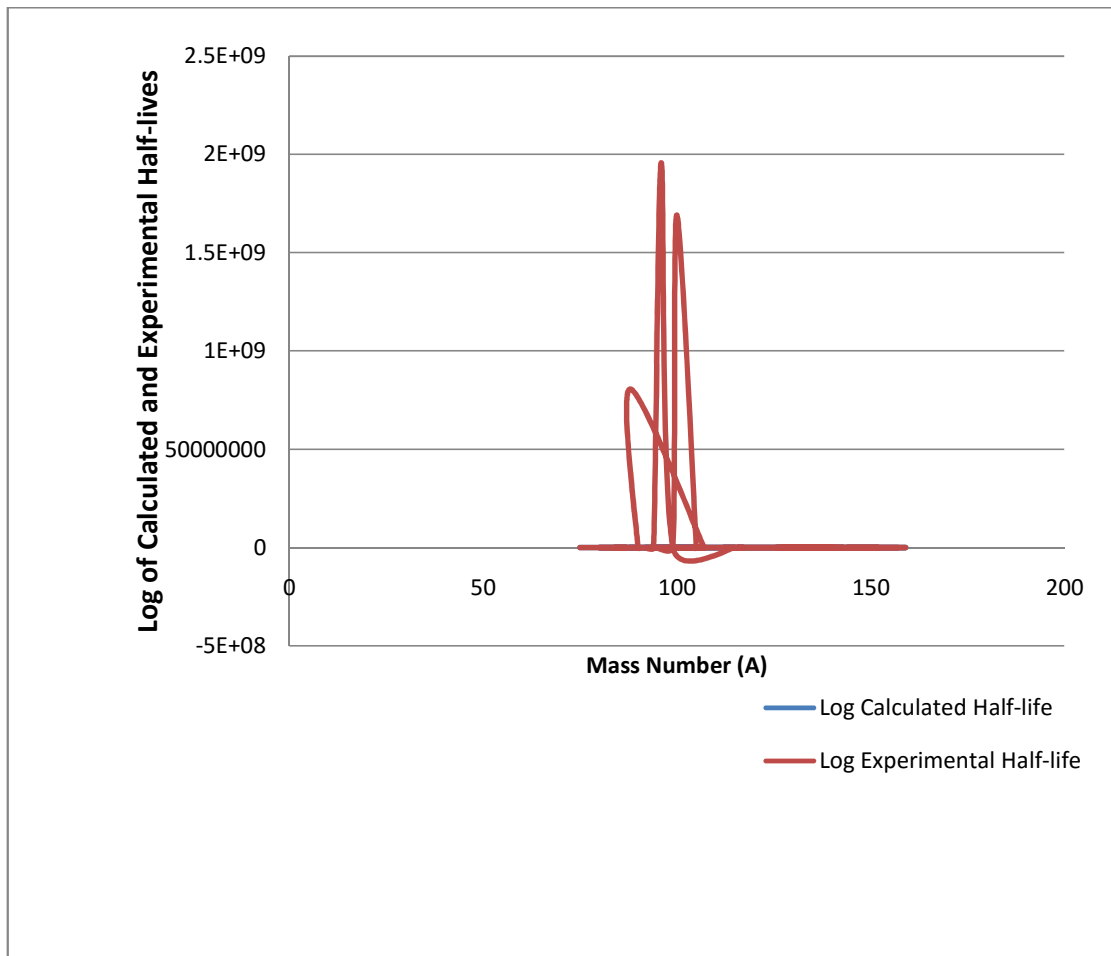


Figure 4: Logarithmic plot of Calculated and Experimental Half-lives versus Mass Number (A) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ Mass Nuclei.

Figure 4 shows the logarithm of experimental and calculated half-lives versus mass number of gamma particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei. Figure 4, indicates the anomaly lies with low mass number of gamma particle values of experimental and calculated half-lives except for the three anomalies nuclei of the experimental half-lives that are high mass number of gamma particle either prove that they have high half-lives experimental as in the anomalies of the mass number of gamma particle are 90, 99 and 101.

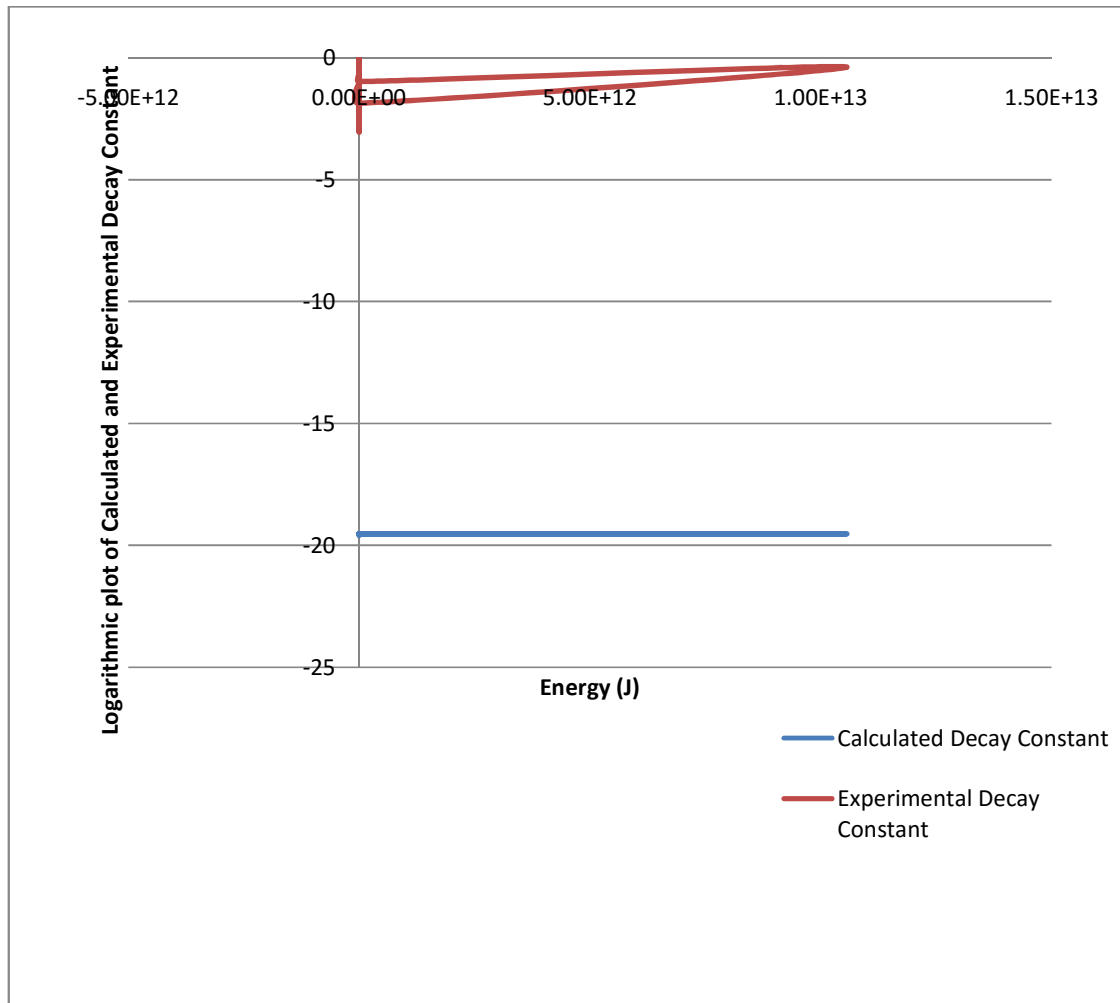


Figure 5: Logarithmic plot of Calculated and Experimental Decay constant versus Energy (J) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ Mass Nuclei.

Figure 5 represents the logarithm calculated decay constant versus Energy (J) for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass gamma particle emitters respectively. Figure 5, the anomaly lays with low Energy (J) values for the medium gamma particles emitting nuclei. for the Energy (J) value of 0.00 is having a vertical line on the logarithm calculated decay constant from 0.00 to around -3.5 which also the figure it has a shape if cone on the position of neutral equilibrium. The cone neutral equilibrium position lies on the low Energy (J) than the order vertical line. The figure also shows a horizontal line on the Energy (J) from 0.00E+00 to 1.00E+13

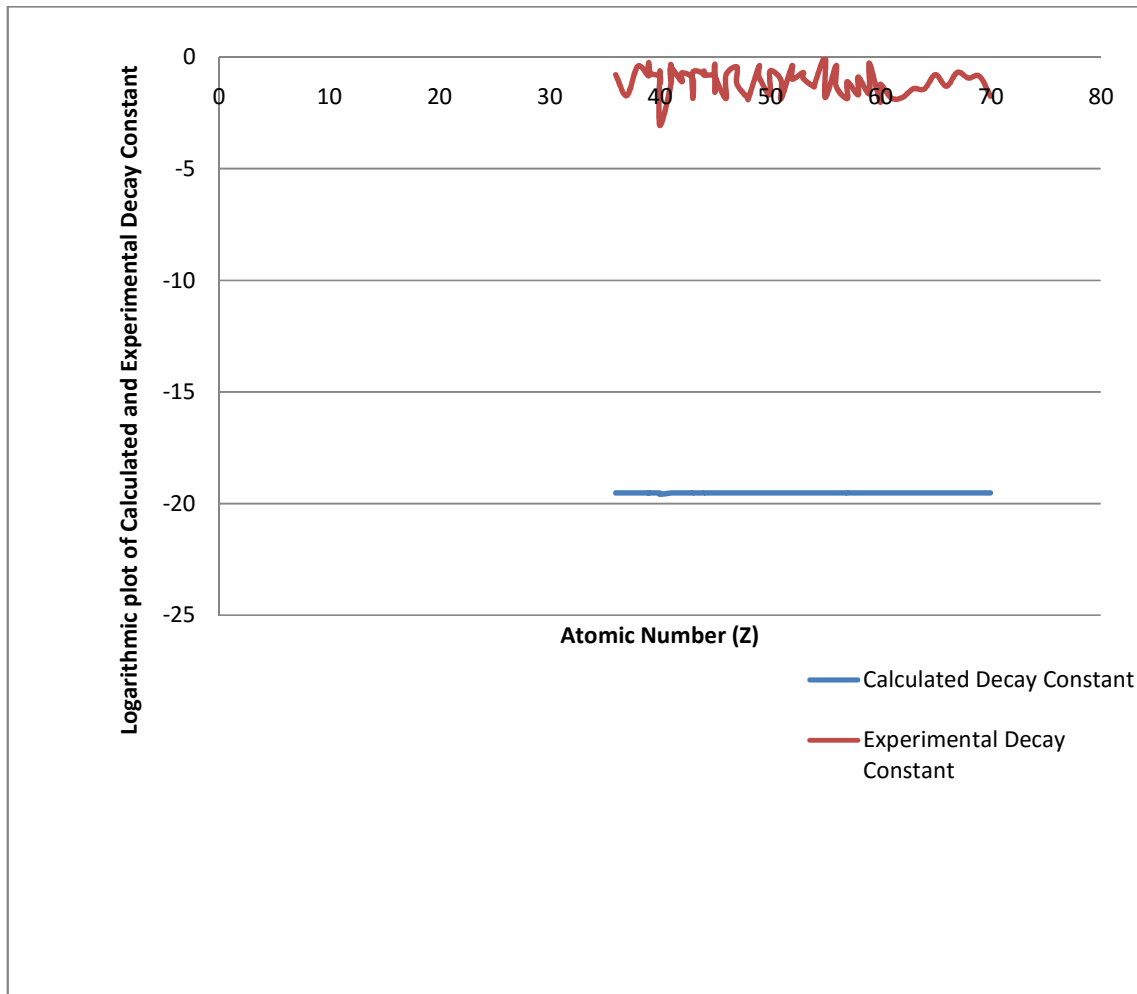


Figure 6: Logarithmic plot of Calculated and Experimental Decay constant versus Atomic Number (Z) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ Mass Nuclei.

Figure 6 shows the logarithm of calculated and experimental decay constant versus atomic number (z) of gamma particles for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 6, shows the anomaly lies with low atomic number (Z) Of gamma particle values of calculated and experimental decay constant for the medium gamma particle nuclei. The figure shows a zigzag and horizontal line. For the zigzag value on atomic number (Z) = 40 has the lowest value on the zigzag while from the atomic number (Z) = 60 to 70 it diminishes.

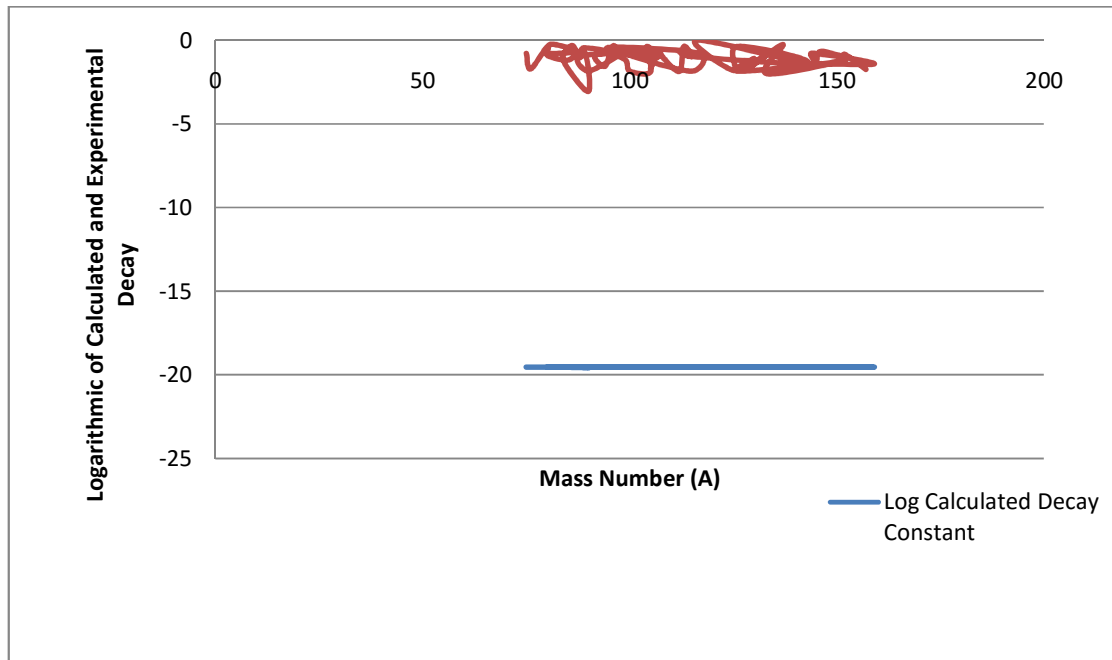


Figure 7: Logarithmic plot of Calculated and Experimental Decay constant versus Mass Number (A) of Gamma Particle for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ Mass Nuclei.

Figure 7 shows the logarithm of calculated and experimental decay constant versus mass number (A) of gamma particle for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 7, shows the anomaly lies with low mass number (A) values for the medium gamma particle nuclei. It shows the shapes of cones and a horizontal line. The shapes of cones are like in the position of neutral and also unstable equilibrium. The shapes lie in between mass number (A) = 71-160.

Theoretical Evaluation of Steps Approaching Zero Emission on a Double Thick Barrier of a Gamma Particle

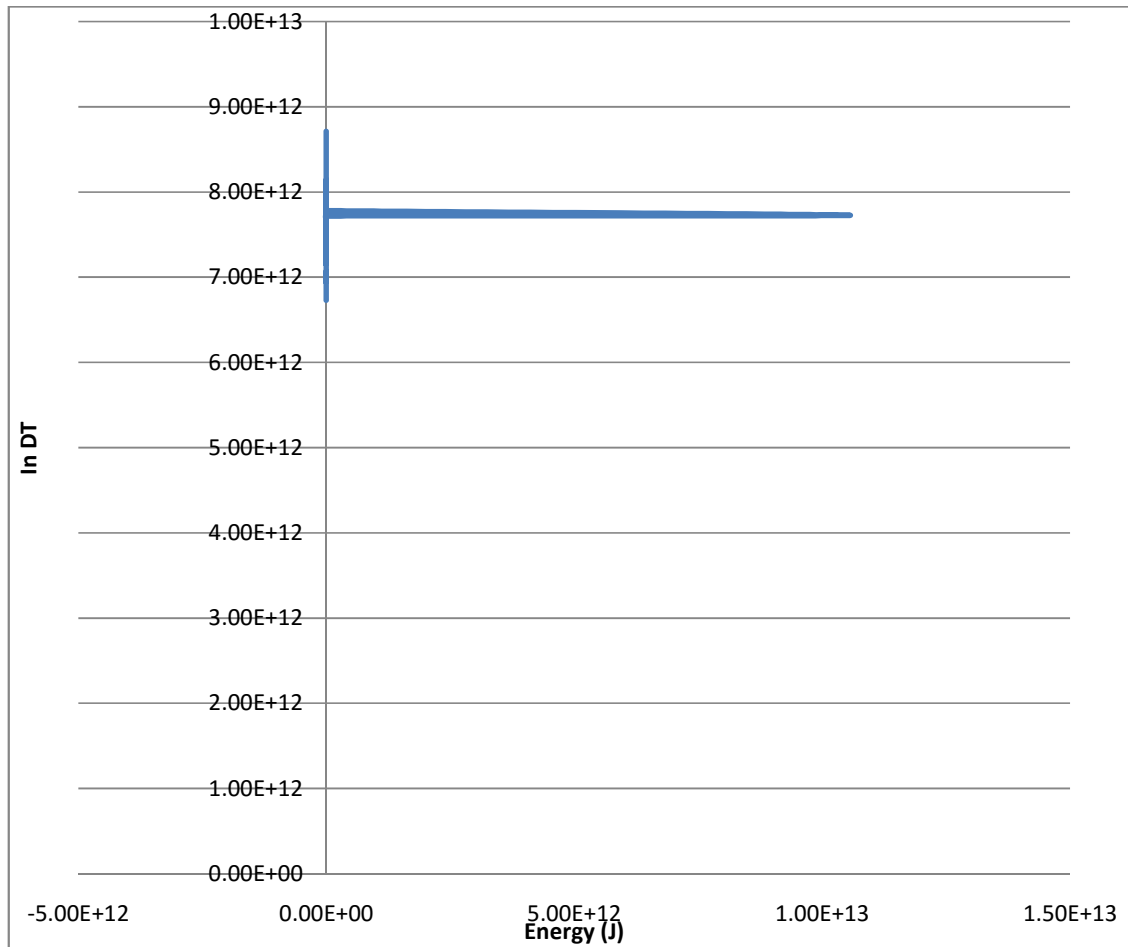


Figure 8: Natural logarithm of Tunneling probability versus Energy (J) for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ Gamma Particle emitting nuclei.

Figure 8 represent the natural logarithm of tunneling probability versus Energy (J) for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively.

Figure 8, the anomaly lie with high Energy (J) values for the medium Gamma particle emitting nuclei. From natural logarithms of tunneling probability axis that lies 0.00 E+00 on Energy (J) axis while from two different points that meet at a point that make a narrow space between the two point from the at a distance less than 5.00 E+12 Energy (J) it continuous up to a distance above 1.00 E+13. These means that the nuclides that Energy (J) to tunnel through the Double thick barrier, the Energy of the nuclides that have 0.00 E+00 lies in between a distance close to 7.00 E+12 to distance close to 9.00 E+12 and the two points are close 8.00 E+12 of the natural logarithm of the tunneling probability.

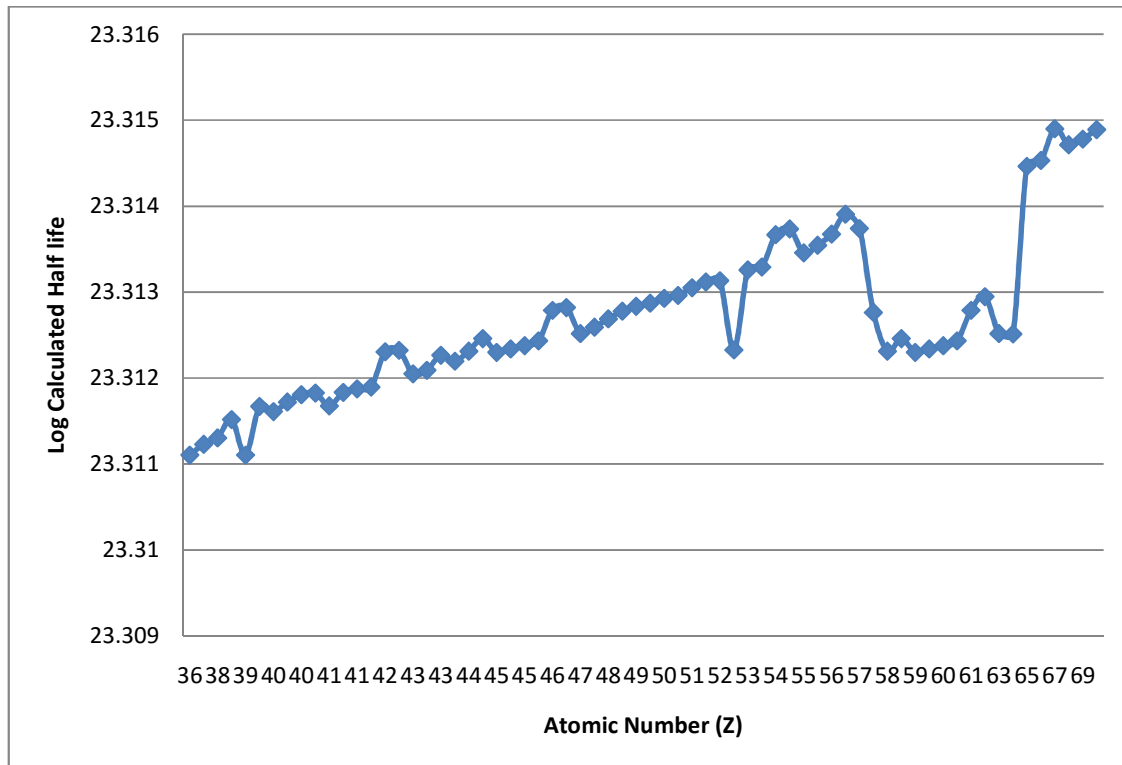


Figure 9: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Half-lives versus Atomic Number (Z) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 9 represents the logarithms of calculated half-life versus Atomic number Z for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle respectively. Figure 9, the anomaly lies with high atomic number Z value for the medium gamma particle emitting nuclei. From atomic number Z = 42, 44, 46, 48, 52, 54 and 56 are slightly high than the orders also from atomic number Z = 57 to 65 makes a shape of w and from the atomic Z = 65 diminishes with increasing value of natural logarithm of tunneling probability. The reason that anomaly lies at low atomic number Z is as a result of different logarithms of calculated half-life. The shape w is as a result of a different time of tunneling to the other, that the nuclei have either very small time tunneling probability or the nuclei are stable are depicted by points lying at the bottom for each isotopes which even-even is with even-even (even number and odd proton or even proton and odd neutron) the figure shows that the time taken for the probability of gamma emission is high than even-even nuclei. The atomic number Z = 42, 44, 46, 48, 52, 54 and 56 it shows that even-even nuclei have the slit high logarithms of calculated half-life of gamma emission.

Theoretical Evaluation of Steps Approaching Zero Emission on a Double Thick Barrier of a Gamma Particle

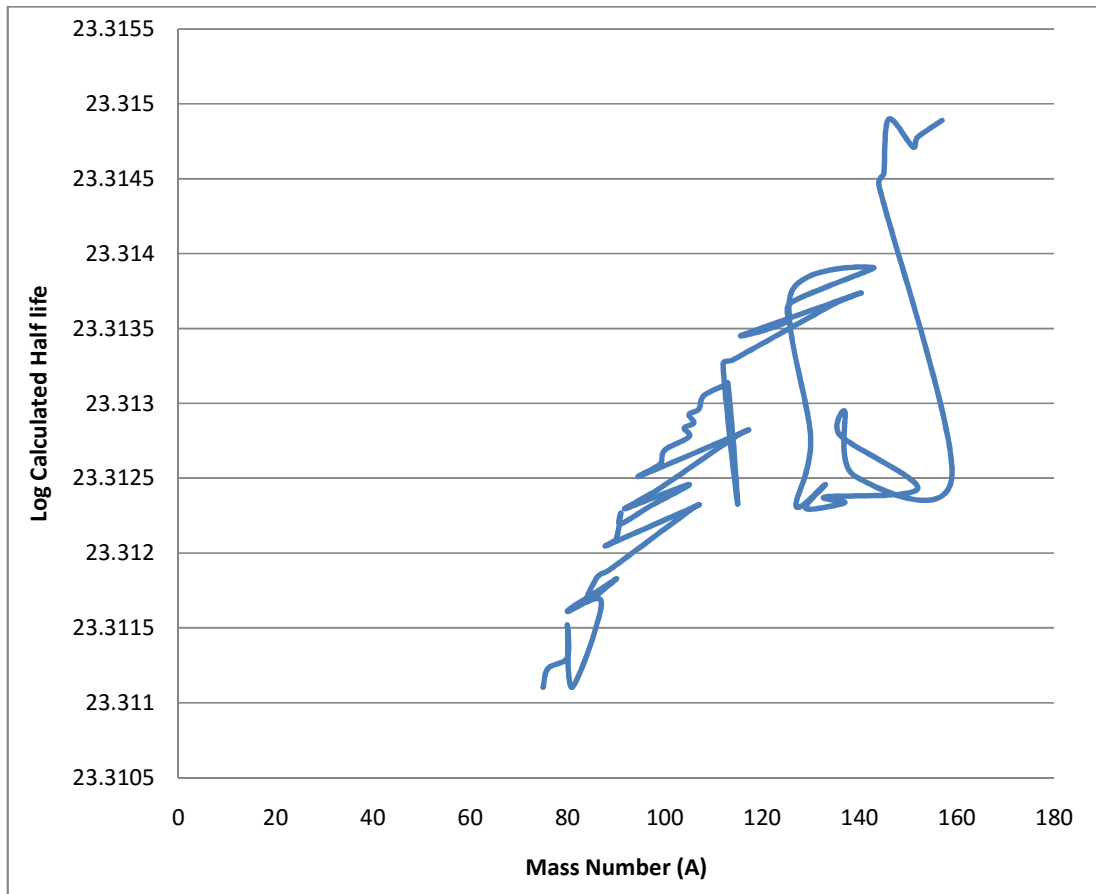


Figure 10: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Half-life versus Mass Number (A) for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 10 represents the logarithms of calculated half-life versus mass number (A) for ${}_{36}^{75}\text{Kr}$ to ${}_{70}^{157}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively.

Figure 10, the anomaly lies with high mass number (A) values for the medium gamma particle emitting nuclei. The figure shows the shape of v, zigzag shape in the ascending order and also a shape of w. The reason for the shape of v is as a result of low in logarithms of calculated half-life taken for tunneling probability, zigzag shape is as a result of different value of logarithm of calculated half-life which is not at a close distance and also shape w is as a result from one nucleus to another of the logarithm half-life for the tunneling probability.

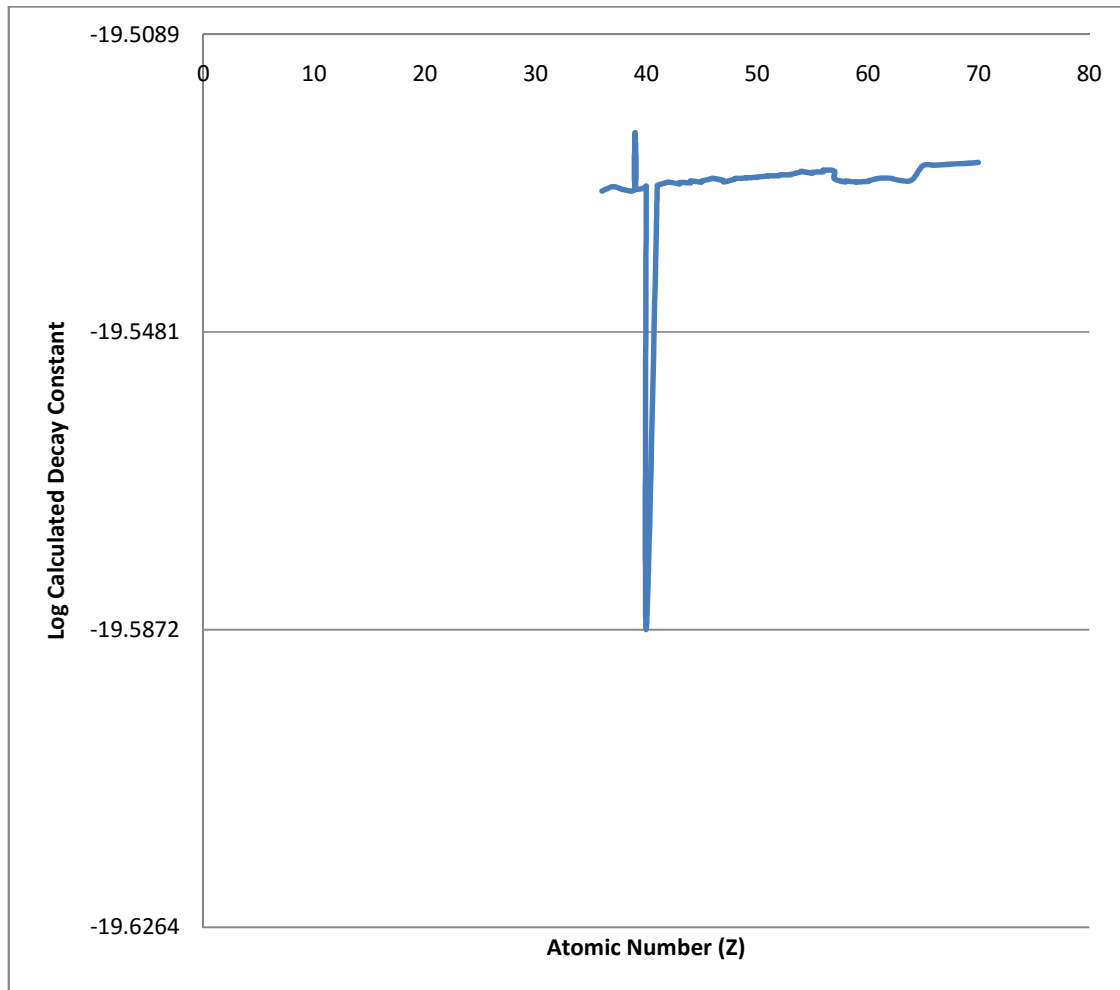


Figure 11: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Decay Constant versus Atomic Number (Z) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 11 represents the logarithms calculated Decay constant versus atomic number Z for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively.

Figure 11, the anomaly lies with low atomic number Z values for the medium gamma particle emitting nuclei. For the atomic number Z = 39 slightly high than the orders, also for atomic number Z = 40 is lower than the orders from atomic number Z = 51 to 65 makes a shape of w and also from atomic number Z = 65 diminishes with increasing value of logarithms of calculated decay constant. This shows that atomic number Z = 39 having a high logarithms calculated decay constant than order after the tunneling probability.

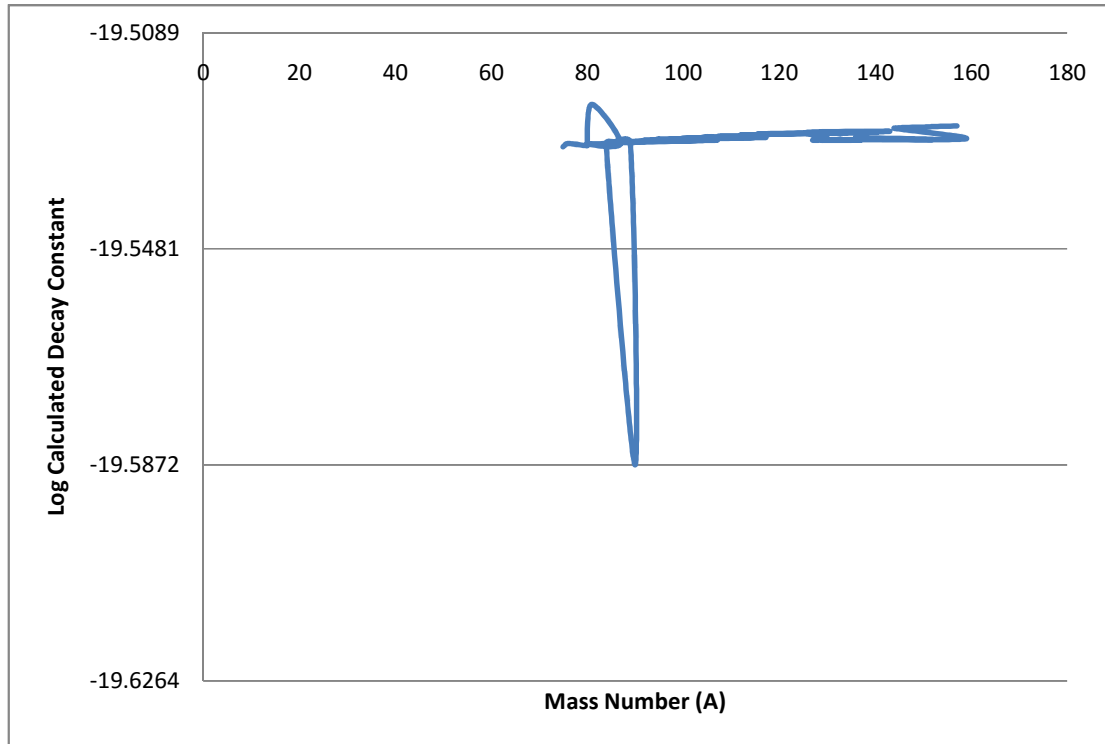


Figure 12: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Decay Constant versus Mass Number (A) of Gamma Particle for ${}^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to ${}^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 12 represents the logarithm decay constant versus mass number (A) for ${}^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to ${}^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively.

Figure 12, the anomaly lies with low mass number (A) values for the medium gamma particle nuclei. The figure shows a shape of a cone, shape of an upside down cone, closed distance zigzag and also a shape of letter S. The reason for the shape of a cone is one of the mass number (A) have lower logarithm decay constant value than the orders, for the upside down cone is as the result of the middle value of mass number (A) is having a high value of logarithm decay constant than orders, closed distance zigzag shape is as a result of fluctuation of values of logarithm decay constant at a closed distance and also for the shape of letter "S" is as a result of fluctuation of values of logarithm decay constant at a distance after the tunneling probability.

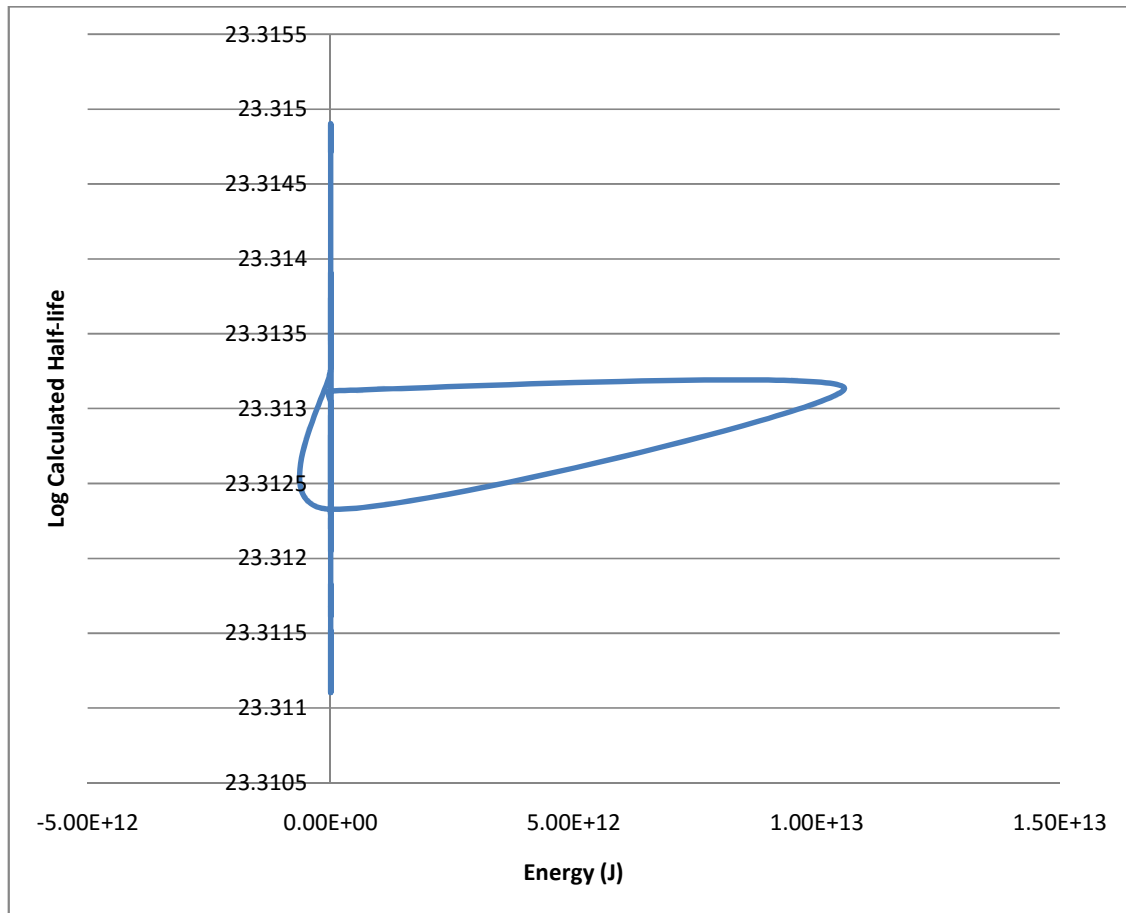


Figure 13: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Half-life versus Energy (J) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 13 represents the logarithm calculated Half-life versus Energy (J) for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively. Figure 13, the anomaly lies with high Energy (J) values for the medium gamma particle emitting nuclei. For the Energy (J) value 0.00 E+00 is having a vertical line on the logarithm calculated half-life from above 23.311 seconds to close to 23.315 seconds and also a shape of cone on the position of neutral equilibrium. The cone neutral equilibrium position lies on the higher Energy (J) than the order vertical line. The cone lies in between close to 23.3125 seconds to above 23.313 seconds of logarithm calculated half-life that is taken to tunneling probability.

Theoretical Evaluation of Steps Approaching Zero Emission on a Double Thick Barrier of a Gamma Particle

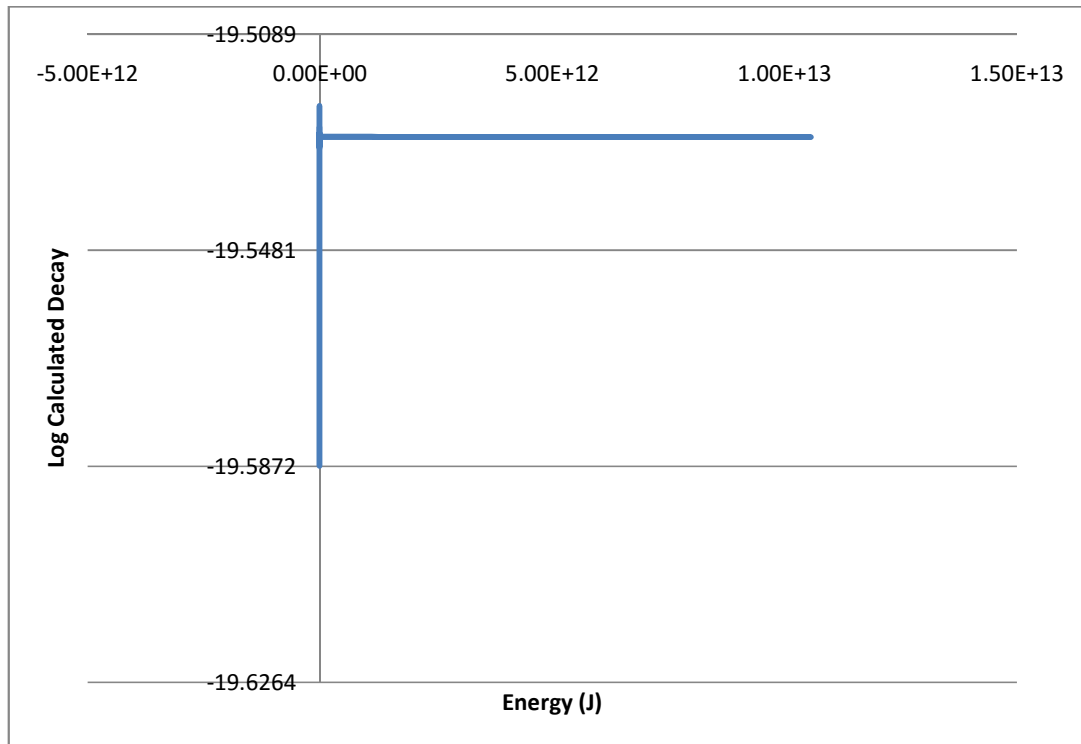


Figure 14: Logarithmic plot of Calculated Decay Constant versus Energy (J) of Gamma Particle for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass nuclei.

Figure 14 represents the logarithm calculated decay versus Energy (J) for $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ mass Gamma particle emitters respectively. Figure 14, the anomaly lies with low Energy (J) values for the medium gamma particle emitting nuclei. The figure shows the vertical and horizontal lines. The values of Energy (J) at 0.00 E+00 is having vertical line on the logarithm of calculated decay which lies below -19.52 to above -19.58, the horizontal lines is as a result of the Energy (J) that have 1.00 E+13 that is after the tunneling probability.

CONCLUSION

It has been calculated analytically the quantum mechanical emission probability of barrier penetration $^{75}_{36}\text{Kr}$ to $^{157}_{70}\text{Yb}$ of the gamma particle decay of atomic nuclei. The Schrödinger's time-independent equation has been applied to a potential barrier whose height is greater than the gamma particle's energy. However, on application of barrier emission theory, the probability of the gamma particle crossing the barrier is in non-zero and this probability has been calculated.

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THE DYNAMICS OF COST OF CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The persistent escalation of cost of both building and infrastructural projects in Nigeria is alarming. In order to improve upon the existing scenario, this study investigated and evaluated determinants of construction cost in Nigeria. The objectives of the study include: Comparative cost analysis of construction projects in Nigeria with that of some African countries, evaluation of construction cost matrix and suggestion to improve on existing scenario. Data obtained through stratified probabilistic sampling technique from 50 Nigerian Quantity Surveyors through structured questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively and the findings of the study revealed that high cost of construction materials, inflation, monopolistic market for construction materials, deliberate inflation of contract sum and kick back syndrome are major determinants of cost of construction in Nigeria. The study concluded that to curb this menace, measures outlined in the study must be implemented.

Keyword: Construction Cost, Dynamics of Cost, Nigeria, Issues, Quantity Surveyors, Ways forward.

INTRODUCTION

Successful project performance depends on some factors which include; Cost, quality and time among others. Samuel, Olatunji, Oke, Aghimien and Sakiru (2016) opined that among these three factors, cost of construction is perhaps the most significant. According to compendium report on road infrastructure & related development in Nigeria (2019) unless effectively managed cost of construction can escalate. It is a common arguable perception that cost of construction in Nigeria is far more than that of the contemporary African Countries and even beyond. Ajanlekoko (2017) however opined that it is preferable to refer to cost of construction in Nigeria as one of the highest in comparison with other countries. The notion that cost of construction in Nigeria is high compare to other countries in the world is subjective. According to Ajanlekoko (2017), there is no known empirical data base that established this assertion. But, asserts that it is safe and true to conclude that cost of construction in Nigeria is high. Even though Nigeria as a nation, has similarity in procurement methods, tendering approaches, contract types with other nations (Ogediran, Dada & Zannou, ND) asserted that it is still a prevailing perception that construction cost in Nigeria ranked among the highest in the world. Against this background, it is imperative to explore the existing scenario in Nigeria and possibly recommend implementable solutions to overcoming perceived causative factors contributing to relatively high construction cost of construction projects in Nigeria. This study investigated and evaluated determinants of construction cost in Nigeria in order to impact positively on the economy. It appears from the foregoing that, there is need to explore further on this area of concern since most submissions are based on supposition than in-depth research. Beyond the cost of construction in Nigeria, there is need to evaluate construction cost determinants in order to establish their contributions and suggest ways to ameliorate on the existing scenario. This is the focus of the study. This study covered government sponsored building and infrastructural projects in Nigeria.

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

World Bank (2017) posited that construction is often refers to as driver of economy. Nigerian as a developing country has construction sector as key economy sector second to oil and gas sector. In the event that a nation construction industry is in a perilous state, then such a nation experience difficulty in steady growth. Findings of previous studies disclosed that the cost of construction of roads in Nigeria is alarming in comparison with other nations. Abuja Centre of Social Justice, ACSJ (2018) based on previous study conducted by World Bank (2000) reported that, constructing a kilometer of road in Nigeria cost between 400 million and over N 1 billion naira. This submission was based on specific comparison between the roads with same grade constructed in Nigeria and some African countries. The report referred to the award of 127-kilometer Lagos-Ibadan expressway at 167 billion by Federal Government of Nigeria in 2013 and similar contract of 1,028 kilometer awarded in same year between 167 billion and 240 billion by Economic Community of West African Countries (ECOWAS) as link roads between Lagos, Nigeria; Cotonou, Benin Republic; Togo; Accra, Ghana and Abidjan, Cote D'Ivoire. In essence, the number of kilometers that was covered by ECOWAS project was eight times higher than that of Lagos-Ibadan expressway and the cost per kilometer far lower than that of Nigeria. Mathematically, the maximum cost of ECOWAS road was 234 million naira, whereas that of Nigeria awarded by Federal Government was 1.3 billion naira per kilometer. What this could connote is that for every kilometer of road constructed in Nigeria at the time of this report, cost of eight kilometer could have been lost. If this trend continues, Nigeria may continue in the cycle of developing nation for many years to come instead of attaining the status of a developed country. From pre to post independence, many capital-intensive projects have been constructed and many more going and still very many yet to be constructed. These projects have been tagged to be too high in term of cost and the most popular opinion is that cost of construction in Nigeria is perceived to be the highest among its contemporary in Africa and beyond (Samuel, et al, 2016). This study therefore, tends to investigate this assertion, evaluate contributing factors and recommend ways to overcome this challenge.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In response to the statement of the research problem, the study postulated and answer pertinent questions which include:

- i. Is construction cost in Nigeria higher than that of the contemporary African countries?
- ii. What are the key indicators of construction cost in Nigeria?
- iii. Are there possible workable synergies to address challenges pertaining to construction cost in Nigeria?

Aim and Objectives

This study investigated and evaluated determinants of construction cost in Nigeria. The following objectives addressed the aim of the study:

- i. Comparative cost analysis of construction projects in Nigeria with that of some selected African countries;



- ii. Evaluation of construction cost matrix and
- iii. Recommend workable synergies to ameliorate high cost construction projects in Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Construction Cost Matrix – Nigeria Scenario

According to Danso and Obeng-Ahenkora (2018) rise in price of building materials is peculiar to available in everywhere world over. Ogbuagu (2008) refers to building material as tangible items that are incorporated into construction of building or other aspects of construction and classified these as natural and artificial. Classified as natural sand, stones, wood and the artificial include tiles and paints. Predominant factor that determine construction cost is building materials (Abiola, 2000, p. 37). This account between 40–80% of construction cost (Atolagbe, 2009). Due to decline in quality of few indigenous building materials, many clients and other key players in the Nigeria construction industry prefer the imported materials which they, in most cases procured with a cost higher than that of materials manufactured locally (Adogbo & Kolo, 2009). According to Atolagbe (2009) this over dependent on foreign or imported building materials as eroded the trust many clients have for locally made materials. Emmanuel (2017) posited that building materials have significant impact on construction projects and asserted that only 10% of the reinforcement bars utilized by Nigerian construction industry annually are produced locally. Nigeria the giant of Africa as popularly refers as limited or very few manufacturers of significant building materials like cement, reinforcement bars, tiles hence the reasons for turning to importation. In identifying other factors that influence cost of construction, Ajanlekoko (2017) attributed causes of high cost of construction to funding issues. According to Samuel et al (2016) professionals' failure to carry out their statutory obligations in a diligent and responsible manners leads to unwarranted adjustments in drawings during construction, leading to high cost upshot. Inadequate cum ineffective project management skills leads to poor monitoring leading to project cost overrun as a result of rework, wasting of resources (Daniel & Anny, 2016). The perception all over the world is that the client has the money to pay for construction project and the contractor executive the project. In Nigeria, the situation is slightly different. Daniel and Anny (2016) submitted that even the prominent client, the government, is more culpable in this regard. Excessive delays and outright non payments of works executed by Nigeria government is no longer news leaving contractors no choice than to go bankrupt and, in most cases, go out of business since they often not interested in seeking a redress in court to sustain relationship. Daniel et al (2016) further observed that shoddy practices, kickback syndrome and professional negligence are also predominant causes construction cost escalation. Previous report by ACSJ (2018) disclosed that deliberate inflating Government financed projects as become hallmark in the Nigeria procurement system. Idoro (2013) posited that due to observe irregularities and cost escalation of cost of construction in Nigeria concluded Nigeria has the highest construction cost in the world. This submission appears to differ from the opinion of Ajanlekoko (2017). This study tends to feel this gap by establishing a reliable research position on the actual scenario of cost of construction in Nigeria. Aside from contributing to body of knowledge, the output of this research work would be a reference point on the true nature of construction cost in Nigeria and suggestive ways of ameliorating the existing situation.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The study investigated and evaluated determinants of construction cost in Nigeria. Research design adopted for the study was triangulation method. Both stratified and random probabilistic sampling technique were adopted. Nigerian Quantity Surveyors were divided into stratum according to their professional qualifications namely; Fellow, Member and Probationer. Each had an equal chance in filling the questionnaire which formed the primary data. According to Nigerian Institutes of Quantity Surveyors, NIQS (2019) directory of members, this cost experts are popularly known in Nigeria as Quantity Surveyors. The research is limited to this category of professionals because they are the custodian of construction cost (NIQS, 2020). Relevant extant literature formed the sources of secondary data. Well-structured questionnaire that address the objectives of the study was randomly distributed to 100 registered Fellows, Members and Probationers of the NIQS but was only able to retrieved 64 copies. The first objective, comparative cost analysis of construction projects in Nigeria with that of some selected African countries was achieved through cost per square meter (cost/m²) analysis of various projects across 12 countries considering their capital cities. This information was sourced from African Property and Construction Cost Guide, AECOM (2018). The study puts into consideration the peculiarity of each country considered in term currency and official exchange rate using dollar as uniform basis for comparison. Due to lack of adequate published information on comparison of cost of construction across countries, a further step was taking to validate the analysis provided by AECOM, respondents were asked through structure questionnaire to evaluate the cost of construction in Nigeria in terms of Likert's scale of (1-5) using: 5- Very high, 4- High, 3-Uncertain 2-Low, 1- Extremely low and the results were further subjected to analysis using relative importance index (RII) and results were ranked and a comparison of the assertion obtained from AECOM and other related extant literature were compared with analyzed data gathered from respondents and conclusion was drawn. To further authenticate the conclusion drawn, respondents where further asked to indicate the basis for their position. This was necessary in other to authenticate the data obtained. The second objective, evaluation of construction cost matrix was accomplished through reviewed of extant literature and analysis of data obtained from respondents through questionnaire. Beyond the construction cost indicators obtained from extant literature, respondents were asked to indicate additional factors that influence construction cost in Nigeria and evaluated them in term of level of agreement. Likert's scale of (1-5) using: (1-5) using: 5- Strongly Agree, 4- Agree, 3-Uncertain 2- Disagree, 1- Strongly Disagree was adopted and the results obtained were further subjected to analysis using relative importance index (RII) and ranking. The findings were compared with the extant literature and conclusion drawn as well. For objectives three, recommendation of workable synergies to ameliorate high cost construction projects in Nigeria. Like in objective two, some remedies to improve on construction cost in Nigeria where identified and many other remedies sourced from the respondents through questionnaire where assessed using Likert's scale of (1-5) using: (1-5) using: 5- Strongly Agree, 4- Agree, 3-Uncertain 2- Disagree, 1- Strongly Disagree. The formula for RII as submitted by Ojo (2017) is as follow:

$$\text{Relative Importance Index (RII)} = \frac{\text{Sum of weights } (w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4 + w_5)}{(A \times N)}$$



Where w is the weighting given to each variable by the respondents, ranging from 1 to 5. A is the highest weight (i.e 5) in the study; and N is the total number of samples

DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Data Collection

Table 1.0: Questionnaire Administration

| Distributed | Expected | Retrieved | Properly filled | Used for analysis |
|-------------|----------|-----------|-----------------|-------------------|
| 100 | 80 | 54 | 50 | 50 |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Background of the Respondents

Table 1.1: Demography of the Respondents

| Academic Qualification | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| PhD | 9 | 18 |
| Master | 19 | 38 |
| Bsc/BTech | 12 | 24 |
| HND | 10 | 20 |
| Professional Qualification | | |
| | Frequency | Percentage |
| Fellow | 6 | 12 |
| Member | 34 | 68 |
| Probationer | 10 | 20 |
| Years of Experience | | |
| | Frequency | Percentage |
| Less than 5years | 8 | 16 |
| 5 – 10years | 18 | 36 |
| 11 – 15years | 11 | 22 |
| 16 – 20years | 5 | 10 |
| Above 20years | 8 | 16 |
| Total | 50 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The combination of academic, professional qualifications and years of experience of the categories of the sample reinforces the reliability of the data collected and analyzed. Among the Quantity Surveyors, 28 of them which is more than 50% of the entire sample had more than 1st degree as they constituted the majority with practical experience above 10years. Fellow and members of the Nigerian Institute of Quantity Surveyors (NIQS) combined, formed 80% of the respondents. Against this background, the results of this research are factual and reliable in conjunction with reliable extant literature.

Cost of Construction Projects in Nigeria and Some Selected African Countries

Table 1.2: Cost of Construction in Nigeria – The Nigerian Quantity Surveyors' Perception

| Quantity Surveyors' Responses | Categories of Respondents | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------|
| | (Fellows) | (Members) | (Probationers) | R NR |
| High | 3 | 18 | 4 | 1 st 26 |

The Dynamics of Cost of Construction Projects in Nigeria

| | | | | | |
|---------------|---|----|---|-----------------|-----------------|
| Very High | 3 | 12 | 4 | 2 nd | 19 |
| Moderate | 0 | 2 | 2 | 3 rd | 4 |
| Low | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 th |
| Extremely low | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 th | 0 |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Key: RI=Relative Importance Index, R=Ranking, NR=Number of Respondents

Table 1.3: Nigerian Quantity Surveyors Basis for Submission of Cost of Construction in Nigeria

| Quantity Surveyors' Responses | (NR) | (Percentage) | Ranking |
|-------------------------------|------|--------------|-----------------|
| Practice | 41 | 82 | 1 st |
| Published Research article | 4 | 8 | 2 nd |
| Newspaper article | 3 | 6 | 3 rd |
| Personal opinion | 2 | 4 | 4 th |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Key: NR=Number of Respondents



Table 1.4: Cost of Construction Projects in Nigeria and other African Countries Compared

| African Countries Average) | Overall Average Cost of Construction/Square Meter in US Dollars (Ranking) | (Total |
|-----------------------------|---|------------------|
| Nigeria (Lagos) | 2,629 | 1 st |
| Angola (Luanda) | 2,626 | 2 nd |
| Senegal (Dakar) | 1,772 | 3 rd |
| Ghana (Accra) | 1,660 | 4 th |
| Rwanda (Kigali) | 1,600 | 5 th |
| Botswana (Gaborone) | 1,372 | 6 th |
| Mozambique (Maputo) | 1,319 | 7 th |
| Uganda (Kampala) | 1,190 | 8 th |
| Zambia (Lusaka) | 1,183 | 9 th |
| Kenya (Nairobi) | 1,053 | 10 th |
| Tanzania (Dar es Salaam) | 997 | 11 th |
| South Africa (Johannesburg) | 971 | 12 th |

Source: African Property & Construction Cost Guide (2018)

Tables 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4 show the view of Nigerian Quantity Surveyors on the cost of construction projects in Nigeria and the basis for their various submissions and the scenario in some selected African countries. The projects considered basically were government financed projects which include buildings and infrastructural facilities which was not limited to roads construction. The basis for limiting the research to corporate project is the ease of tracking of the cost record in comparison with the private sector. Conclusion drawn from the tables was that, most of the Quantity Surveyors that responded to the questionnaire practice as consultants which afforded them the opportunity to track the cost of projects from inception to practical completion. Most of them also extend their practice beyond Nigeria border which gave them additional opportunity to have compared cost of construction in Nigeria with other African countries. From their submission, most opined that cost of construction projects in is high compared to other African countries that the study covered. An investigation was also carried out to validate the position of Nigerian Quantity Surveyors by computing the cost per square meter of different projects across some selected African countries as deduced from African Property & Construction Cost Guide, APCCG, (2018) as indicated in Table 1.3. Though the basis of comparison was same, it also has its limitations as there could be inter border factors that could influence cost of construction in various countries such as warfare and so on (Rebosio & Wam, 2011). To further strengthen the reliability of published data from APCCG, the report from World Bank (2018) on comparison of cost construction across nations even beyond Africa countries further reinforced the research findings.

Evaluation of Construction Cost Matrix in Nigeria

Table 1.5: Construction Cost Matrix Nigeria Scenario

| Significant Construction Cost Indicator(s) | SA | A | U | D | SD | RII | R | NR |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|---|----|
| | (6) | (5) | (4) | (3) | (2) | (1) | | |
| | | | | | | | | |

The Dynamics of Cost of Construction Projects in Nigeria

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|---|------|------------------|---------------------|
| High cost of construction materials | 34 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0.94 | 1 st | 50 |
| Inflation | | 19 | 21 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 0.89 | 2 nd 50 |
| Monopolistic market for construction materials | 22 | 22 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 0.86 | 3 rd | 50 |
| Deliberate inflation of contract sum | | 12 | 25 | 9 | 4 | 0 | 0.86 | 4 th 50 |
| Kick back syndrome | | 21 | 16 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0.83 | 5 th 50 |
| Shoddy practice | | 21 | 18 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 0.83 | 5 th 50 |
| Difficulty in accessing loan by contractor | 19 | 21 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 0.83 | 5 th | 50 |
| Delay in execution of construction projects | 16 | 26 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 0.82 | 8 th | 50 |
| Over dependent of imported materials | | 27 | 19 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0.82 | 8 th 50 |
| Professional Negligence | | 21 | 21 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.78 | 10 th 50 |
| Unwarranted upward review of contract sum | 17 | 25 | 9 | 1 | 0 | 0.78 | 10 th | 50 |
| Construction method | | 13 | 15 | 16 | 6 | 0 | 0.74 | 12 th 50 |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Key: SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, U=Uncertain,
D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree,

RII=Relative Importance Index, R=Ranking, NR=Number of Respondents

It appears from table 1.5 that besides high cost of construction materials and inflation that were ranked 1st and 2nd respectively that are economically influenced other factors that influence construction costs in Nigeria are humanly or systemically motivated. Government policy and unfriendly or non-conducive business environment for investors to explore and establish industry or companies has resulted to monopolistic market condition which translates to periodic high cost of construction materials even when inflation rates reduces. Putting construction cost in Nigeria under check is a possibility that is attainable as indicated in factors 4 – 6 on table 1.5.

Probable Synergies to Address Issues Pertaining to Construction Cost in Nigeria.

Table 1.6: Probable Construction Cost Escalator Arresters in Nigeria

| Construction Cost Escalator Arresters | SA | A | U | D | SD | RII | R | NR | | |
|--|----|----|----|---|----|------|-----------------|-----------------|-----|-----|
| | | | | | | (5) | (4) | (3) | (2) | (1) |
| Engage only certified and qualified cost experts | 33 | 14 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.92 | 1 st | 50 | | |
| Elimination of monopolistic market | | 29 | 17 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0.90 | 2 nd | 50 | |
| Government should form omnibus entity | | 29 | 16 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0.90 | 2 nd | 50 | |
| Government should formulate working policies | 28 | 19 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0.90 | 2 nd | 50 | | |



| | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|---|---|---|------|-----------------|----|
| Eliminate delays in execution of projects | 27 | 21 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0.90 | 2 nd | 50 |
| Loan should be easy to access | 27 | 17 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0.88 | 6 th | 50 |
| Government should establish factories | 28 | 15 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 0.86 | 7 th | 50 |

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Key: SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, U=Uncertain D=Disagree,
 SD=Strongly Disagree,

RII=Relative Importance Index, R=Ranking, NR=Number of Respondents

Engaging only certified and qualified cost experts was identified by the Quantity Surveyors as the most important of all remedies to curb skyrocketing cost of construction projects in Nigeria. It is fundamental to note that erroneous estimation is a product of quackery misleading the clients. It is a common established perception that correct and reliable estimate at pre, construction and post construction stages is a tool for accurate cost forecasting. Elimination of monopolistic market was rated 2nd with government should form omnibus entity, Government should formulate working policies and eliminate delays in execution of projects.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Cost of Construction Projects in Nigeria

The findings of the research indicate that the common position of the Nigerian cost experts is that cost of construction project in Nigeria is high as indicated in table 1.3. This inference is in consonant with previous submissions of Ajanlekoko (2017) and Oyediran et al (ND) both asserted that cost of construction in Nigeria are relatively high, though acknowledged that there is inadequate research works to substantiate this popular perception. The findings of this work differ from the submission of Idoro (2013) that opined that cost of construction in Nigeria is the highest in the world. The results of this study add to knowledge in this area of concern and could provide remedies to curb escalating cost of construction in Nigeria. The findings of this study provided the intuition for the researcher to compare the construction cost/m² in Nigeria with that of some African countries, the factors that significantly influence cost of construction in Nigeria and how the situation can be put under check through some control measures.

Comparative Cost Analysis of Construction Projects in Nigeria with that of other African Countries.

An x – ray of the research carried out on cost per square meter (cost/m²) of various building types by African Property and Construction Cost Guide, AECOM (2018) covering the mega/capital cities in 12 African countries as indicated in table 1.4 revealed that Nigeria has the highest cost of construction per square meter. The cost/m² of different types of constructions projects were covered by AECOM through their offices in each considered African countries through well trained and experienced construction cost experts. The approach was that, cost/m² was obtained from these countries using their currency and the results were converted to US Dollar to form a uniform basic for cost comparison. The construction projects covered included; residential, commercial, hotel and industrial and the overall average obtained and ranked. Because of the perceived limitations of this approach, to validate or

investigate this submission, Nigerian construction experts of different categories (fellows, members and probationers) were asked to indicate their views of construction cost of projects in Nigeria in the scale of extremely high (5), high (5), uncertain (3), low (2) and extremely low (1) as indicated in table 1.2. Their submission is in agreement with that of AECOM. However, World Bank report as submitted by Rebosio et al (2011) and Turner and Townsend (2018) highlighted the set back of the approach adopted by AECOM and submitted that, any change in the exchange rate makes a huge difference; if a particular currency is strong compared to the base currency, the cost of construction appears to be expensive. It was recommended that a more reliable approach of comparing the cost of construction across countries is using the purchasing power parity (PPP). The supposed advantage of this method is that it leaves exchange rate out of the equation with a caveat that a global firm looking to build overseas, it can be more convenient to look at cost in its home currency.

Evaluation of Construction Cost Matrix

Predominant among factors significantly influencing cost of construction projects in Nigeria are high cost of construction materials (Ranked 1st, RII = 0.94) followed by Inflation (ranked 2nd, RII = 0.89), monopolistic market for construction materials (ranked 3rd, 0.86) and deliberate inflation of contract sum (ranked 4th, 0.85) followed by other factors in the order of importance as indicated in table 1.3. Similar study conducted by Danso and Obeng-Ahenkora (2018) in Ghana, identified cost of construction materials and followed by excessive reliance on imported materials for construction as significant factors that contributes to escalation of cost of construction. Even with different respondents and countries, cost of construction materials tends to be the most significant factor that propelled high cost of construction. This finding mirrors the submission of Emmanuel (2017) that posited that among all factors that contribute to cost of construction, the cost of building materials appears to be the most significant of all.

Synergies to Address Issues Pertaining to Construction Cost in Nigeria.

The findings of this research disclosed that engaging only certified and qualified cost experts , elimination of monopolistic market, formation of omnibus entity whose mandate is to investigate and prosecute construction contract players misdeed by government, formulation of working policies by government, elimination of delays in execution of projects, easy access to loan for contractors and establishment of factories that manufacture construction materials both by government and private investors could address high cost of construction in Nigeria. The findings of this study agree with the submission of Ajanlekoko (2017).

CONCLUSION

The study therefore concludes that the construction cost of projects in Nigeria is high in comparison with contemporary African countries. Significant factors responsible for this are: High cost of construction materials, Inflation, Monopolistic market for construction materials, deliberate inflation of contract sum, Kick back syndrome, Shoddy practice, Difficulty in accessing loan by contractor, delay in



execution of construction projects, Over dependent of imported materials, Professional Negligence, unwarranted upward review of contract sum and construction method. To curb this menace, the study submits that only certified and qualified cost experts, elimination of monopolistic market, formation of omnibus entity, formulation of working policies and elimination of delays in execution of projects by government by removal of bottle neck in process in payments of contractors.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends that:

- i. Cost of construction can be minimized in Nigeria by eliminating monopoly in the manufacturing industry thereby encouraging many investors to invest and promote healthy competition like telecommunication industry
- ii. Formation of Omnibus government entity to regulate the activities of construction activities is long overdue. The existing Bureau of public procurement seems not to be enough to address high cost of construction in Nigeria and
- iii. All stakeholders in the Nigerian construction industry should learn and adopt the ways of other nations whose cost of construction are relatively low.

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THE ROLES OF HIGH AND LOW ALTITUDES TRAINING ON SPORT PERFORMANCE AMONG TRAINED ATHLETES: A CONCISE REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

The effects of altitude (high and low land) on sport performance cannot be overemphasized. This paper reviewed some physiological parameters resulting from altitude training as it affects sport performance among athletes. The paper highlighted that when athletes are exposed to high altitude training there will be an early failure of the respiratory system in response to hypoxia which was perfected by responses in the blood and the cardiovascular system signifying physiological effect of acclimatization. The paper also found that in the ventilation and gas exchange, respiration of both external and internal leads to delivery of oxygen to tissue from atmosphere. It was also highlighted in the paper that there is water loss and decrease in plasma volume which is associated with dry environment and hyperventilation, and the movement of fluid from the intravascular space into the interstitial and intracellular spaces. The review also explained that at high altitude, there is an increase in the metabolic stress and the cellular disturbance in the skeletal muscle. The vital adaptive response to altitude training is a switch from oxidative phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis in the energy metabolism and lastly the altitude challenge are some possible consequences or sicknesses an individual or athlete may encounter at high-altitude such as acute mountain sickness (AMS), high-altitude pulmonary edema (HAPE) or high-altitude cerebral edema (HACE). The researcher suggested that, when traveling to high altitude there are preventative measures that can be taken in order to avoid the development of any high altitude sicknesses such as; a slow ascent, pre-acclimatization, avoid moderate exercise within the first two days at altitude, drinking plenty of water, eating an adequate amount, and obtain sufficient sleep.

INTRODUCTION

Mountains are defined as landforms higher than 600 meters as a consequence of the increased altitude, the barometric pressure falls and the environmental partial pressure of inspired oxygen decreases, with consequent ambient hypoxia. This, in combination of low temperature, low humidity, increased solar radiations and presence of wind in association with strong physical activities, imposes the human body important physiological adaptations affecting primarily the cardiovascular and respiratory systems. Physical modifications begin to be significant over 2500 meters. In normal subjects, the variability of this response may be very high and generally it is well tolerated. On the contrary, these adjustments may induce major problems in patients with preexisting cardiovascular diseases in which the functional reserves are already limited (Naeije, 2010).

A high altitude atmosphere produces functional stress in humans. The changes can occur at moderate altitude, between 2,000 and 3,000 m; and high altitude, above 3,000m (Bärtsch, Saltin & Dvorak 2008; Frisancho, 1993). The main factors to this stress are: hypoxia, high solar radiation, low temperature, low humidity, high winds, limited nutritional base and rough terrain (Frisancho 1993). But the most significant is hypoxia, since the others could be existing in different environmental

zones. Hypoxia is defined as a decrease in the oxygen supply to a level insufficient to maintain cellular function (Zauner, Daugherty, Bullock & Warner 2002).

In the life of aerobic organisms, oxygen is a vital element. The fundamental role of oxygen is due to the fact that it is the final acceptor of electrons in the mitochondrial respiratory chain. This allows the ultimate process of oxidative phosphorylation and the generation of cellular energy, in the form of adenosine triphosphate (ATP). ATP is used in most reactions that are necessary to maintain cellular viability. Under normoxia a cell continuously maintains a high and constant ratio of cellular ATP/ADP ratio in order to survive.

The dependence of cells on a high constant ATP/ADP ratio means a dependence on oxygen. Therefore, a reduction of the normal oxygen supply (hypoxia) will have consequences on the cell viability (Lopez-Barneo, Pardal & Ortega-Saenz 2001; Hardie, 2003). Additionally, hypoxia response can be divided in different time scales, including an acute, an intermediate and a chronic response, and in different levels of oxygen concentration, including a moderate (5-8% O₂) and an anoxic level (<1 O₂) (normoxia 21% O₂) (Brahimi-Horn & Pouyssegu 2007; Toescu 2004; Lee, Roth & LaFres 2007). The brain is regarded as the most hypoxia-sensitive organ because of its high oxygen supply, whereas the skeletal system is the most hypoxia-tolerant (Boutillier 2001).

An increase in altitude leads to a proportional fall in the barometric pressure (atmospheric pressure, the pressure on sea level that is caused by the weight of air above sea level), and to a decrease in the pressure of atmospheric oxygen. This produces hypobaric hypoxia (a situation in which the body is deprived of adequate O₂ supply from the air to the body tissue whether in quantity or molecule concentration) that affects, in different degrees, all body organs, systems and functions (Frisancho 1993; West 2005). At high altitude, the body has to develop some adaptations and changes that allows the oxygen transport system to compensate for the hypoxia in order to maintain an adequate tissue oxygen level to support metabolism (Hurtado 1971). The high altitude inhabitant has adapted to the hypoxic environment to improve oxygen delivery and oxygen utilization, by modifying the respiratory, cardiovascular and metabolic systems (Frisancho 1993; Hurtado 1971). It can be scientifically proven whether this level of functional adaptations is inherited, or acquired during growth and development. There is little doubt that being born and raised at altitude leads to a series of metabolic, musculoskeletal and cardio-respiratory adaptations to environmental hypoxia that influence oxygen transport and its utilization. Nevertheless, there is no consensus as to how these changes affect exercise capacity and physical activity of people who live and train at moderate or high altitude, it has been reasoned that exercising in hypoxia could increase the training stimulus (Bailey & Davies, 1997). So, after exposure to altitude, performance at sea level (SL) might be improved owed to the physiological adaptations (Vogt & Hoppeler, 2010).

Many researches have examined how training or living at high altitudes plays a vital role on the performance in athletes. Training methods, such as living high-training high (LH-TH) and living high-training low (LH-TL), among others, have been used to illuminate the mechanisms and physiological adaptations that occur in hypoxia (Hoffman, 2002). This review analyses the literature



related to altitude training focused on the physiological effects of training and living in moderate to high altitude, on how physiological adaptations to hypoxic environments influence performance; and on which are the most often protocols used to train in altitude.

Physiological Effect and Acclimatization

The initial failure of the respiratory system to respond to hypoxia is to some extent ameliorated by responses in the blood and the cardiovascular system. Immediately following exposure to high altitudes, red blood cells which are stored mainly in the spleen are released. This increases the level of haematocrit (the ratio of the volume of red blood cells to the total volume of blood), so producing an immediate increase in the capacity of the blood to carry oxygen. Within 12 hours, the rate at which red blood cells are formed also starts to increase, mediated by the glycoprotein hormone, erythropoietin, which stimulates cell division in haematopoietic stem cells in the bone marrow. Erythropoietin is synthesized in hormone-secreting cells in the inner cortex of the kidney in response to hypoxia. The haematocrit level may not peak until after many months of exposure to high altitude (Black & Tenney, 1980). Another physiological response to high altitude is an increase in heart rate and therefore cardiac output. You have seen how it takes time for respiratory control mechanisms to adapt to hypoxia at high altitude. The amount of oxygen delivered to respiring tissues depends on the rate of blood flow to the tissues as well as the value of PO_2 (partial pressure of O_2 , which reflect the amount of O_2 gas dissolved in the blood) in the blood and tissues. Cardiac output is increased by up to five times the resting level at sea-level. In addition, previously constricted capillaries in the tissues open up so enhancing blood supply to the tissues and reducing blood pressure (Hoppeler & Vogt, 2001).

According to Calbet & Lundby (2009), the body responds and adapt to two different stressors, hypoxia and exercise when exercising at altitude. The magnitude of the response to these stressors is influenced by exercise capacity and performance, and this response is mediated by the altitude level and individual characteristics. Adjustments and acclimatization to altitude involve the central nervous, endocrine, respiratory and cardiovascular systems; the blood oxygen-carrying capacity, and morphologic and functional adaptations in the skeletal muscle (Bärtsch & Saltin 2003; Rusko, Tikkanen & Peltonen 2004). The acclimatization process is aimed to obtain an optimal oxygen tension of the arterial blood and to secure an adequate oxygen supply to the body tissues and organs (Bärtsch & Saltin, 2003). Altitude training or training in hypoxia has been used by endurance athletes motivated by the expected enhancement in aerobic and SL performance (Hoppeler, Klossner & Vogt 2003; Gore, Clark & Saunders, 2007). Some of the mechanisms of altitude acclimatization include increase in erythropoiesis, red blood cell (RBC) mass, blood Hb concentration and VO_{2max} at mitochondrial level, elevated muscle efficiency and buffering capacity, as well as improvements in the structural and biochemical properties of skeletal muscle. At tissue level, hypoxia promotes rapid oxygen sensing and consequent cellular functions (Wenger, 2000 Hoppeler, Klossner & Vogt 2003).

Ventilation and Gas Exchange

Respiration both external and internal leads to delivery of oxygen to tissue from atmosphere. In high altitude due to prevailing hypobaric hypoxic conditions, subjects who are exposed to such an environment have to undergo series of adaptations in various steps of oxygen transportation to overcome tissue hypoxia as a result of less availability of oxygen for gas exchange, oxygenation of blood and cellular oxidative phosphorylation. These adaptations are complementary and are acute (immediate to 5 days), sub-acute (over weeks), chronic (months to years) or lifelong depending on the duration of high altitude exposure (Smith, Dempsey & Hornbein 2001).

Ventilation: On rapid ascent to a height of more than 1500 meters, there is a marked increase in ventilation within few hours of exposure due to hypoxia induced respiratory stimulation via carotid body to minimize fall in alveolar partial pressure of oxygen (PO_2) as a result of fall in barometric pressure (Smith, Dempsey & Hornbein 2001). This hypoxic ventilator response (HVR) results in decrease in alveolar PCO_2 (partial pressure of carbon dioxide, it measures CO_2 and serves as a marker of sufficient alveolar ventilation within the lungs) in order to increase PaO_2 for compensating lower partial pressure of oxygen in the blood (PaO_2). Hyperventilation at a given altitude persists over a period of weeks and tends to normalize after few weeks of de-induction to a lower altitude (West 1988). Over a period of days to weeks of stay in high altitude, oxygen saturation of blood improves due to sustained hyper ventilation after abrupt initial drop on acute high altitude exposure. Lung functions in high altitude subjects show reduced gas exchange, fall in vital capacity increase in residual volume, peak expiratory flow and total lung capacity. Lowlanders exposed to high altitude have lower vital capacity due to changes in pulmonary mechanics due to hypoxia and hypocapnia (a decrease in alveolar and blood CO_2 levels below the normal reference range of 35mm Hg).

Perfusion: Lung perfusion is inhomogeneous in both health and disease. Alveolar hypoxia causes hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction to facilitate redistribution of blood in various zones of lung to match ventilation and optimize diffusion of oxygen from alveoli to blood (West, 2012).

Diffusion: Decreases with high altitude due to decrease in pressure gradient across alveolar capillary membrane that cannot be compensated even with a resting transit time of 0.75 seconds. Diffusion further decreases with shortened transit time following exercise (West, 1980). As a result, PaO_2 is lowered and is in the range that falls in to the steep portion of the oxygen dissociation curve. This results in marked decrease in oxygen content of the pulmonary capillary blood even with a small decrease in PaO_2 . Long term residents of high altitude have less alveolar arterial oxygen difference, better diffusing capacity and higher mean PaO_2 compared to lowlanders exposed to high altitude.

Haematological Parameters

Plasma volume decreases due to water loss, related to dry environment and hyperventilation and to fluid shift from the intravascular space into the interstitial and intracellular spaces. This loss of plasma volume, and the increase in erythropoiesis and reticulocytes (immature red blood cell) induced by hypoxia cause the augmentation of total haemoglobin and the RBC mass (Friedmann-Bette 2008; Lundby et al. 2007). As a result, the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood increases, as well as the



oxygen content of arterial blood, being higher than at SL. A significant increase in the RBC mass may occur after 3 weeks at a minimum altitude of 2,100m, becoming more pronounced as altitude increases (Schmidt & Prommer 2008). After 48 hours at altitude the bone marrow increases its iron uptake to form Hb (Drust & Waterhouse 2010). Evaluation of iron levels and supplementation prior and during the stay at altitude is necessary to secure the proper activity of the bone marrow. Inhibition of complete haematological adaptation to training at altitude has been connected to lack of iron and may account for the studies that have failed to show increase in Hb concentration (Rodriguez, Ventura & Casas 2000).

Skeletal Muscle

Hypoxia has been used to induce adaptation in skeletal muscle. It is believed that exposure to hypoxia during exercise increases the metabolic stress and the cellular disturbance. These stimulus are expected to generate adaptive results in muscle tissue beyond those achieved in normoxia (normal level of oxygen) (Vogt & Hoppeler 2010; Baar 2006). Nevertheless, the response is influenced by the hypoxia level, duration and intensity of training. Skeletal muscle adaptations can also occur during extended periods at high altitude. Hypoxia is the predominant force when discussing changes in skeletal muscle. One of the most prominent changes in muscles are the transport of bicarbonate, hydrogen ions, and lactate and are up regulated when exposed to hypoxic situations. The adaptations made will intensify the capacity of all of those ions and help improve the body's ability to maintain the acid-base balance (Bärtsch & Saltin, 2008). Another adaptation is the down regulation of the sodium-potassium pump; however, the significance of this particular change has not been tested. Hypoxia stimulates glycolysis and can increase the availability of pyruvate. The increased availability of pyruvate can either be used for further oxidation in the mitochondria or increased lactate production. As a result of hypoxia, there is a greater lactate response for a given workload. The muscles energy source gains more energy from carbohydrates than fatty acids (Bärtsch & Saltin, 2008). The main cause of these muscular changes can be attributed to the lack of oxygen.

A switch from aerobic to anaerobic glycolysis decreases the consumption of H^+ due to the lowered production of ATP (by oxidative phosphorylation) on the other hand, and a generation of more H^+ by other metabolic reactions, such as the ATPases reaction ($ATP + H_2O \leftrightarrow ADP + P_i + H^+$) on the other hand (Kristian, 2004). During hypoxia, the cellular pH homeostasis is disturbed (Zauner, Daugherty, Bullock & Warner, 2002). A gradual decrease in both extracellular and intracellular pH is observed (Silver & Erecinska, 1992). Studies have shown an approximately drop of 0.8-1.2 pH units (Yao & Haddad, 2004). It is postulated that acidosis might be protective to hypoxic cells. Acidosis can slow down some of the enzymatic processes, reduce energy consumption and ROS (reactive oxygen species, natural byproducts of cellular oxidative metabolism) production (Zauner, Daugherty, Bullock & Warner, 2002).

Energy Metabolism:

Altitude training has been used extensively to enhance performance. However, the evidence is inconclusive in defining the magnitude of the improvement, and in which the influencing mechanisms

could be. Changes in performance after hypoxia training may be associated with changes in aerobic power components; these are: $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ the fraction of $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ that represents exercise intensity, and exercise economy (Gore & Hopkins, 2005). Then, changes in endurance performance may be related to changes in these components, in the physiological parameters previously discussed, and in the contribution of anaerobic power (Bonetti & Hopkins 2009). A key adaptive response to chronic hypoxia is a switch from oxidative phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis. Under normoxic conditions, cell energy in the form of ATP is mainly generated through the oxidative metabolism of carbohydrates, fats and amino acids. During hypoxia, ATP generation by oxidative phosphorylation is arrested. This will stimulate glycolysis with an increase in glucose consumption and lactate production (Kristian, 2004; Hochachka, Buc, Doll & Land, 1996). The switch of the respiratory pathway to anaerobic glycolysis leads to a significant reduction of the ATP/ADP ratios. Because of the reduced energy supply, the hypoxic cells will further response by shutting down the non-essential energy consuming mechanisms, such as protein synthesis, and relocate the energy to more critical functions, such as the maintenance of the ion homeostasis and membrane potential (Boutilier, 2001; Erecinska & Silver, 2001). A switch in the metabolic pathway to anaerobic glycolysis leads to an increase in the glucose consumption. The largest store of glucose equivalents is glycogen. Indeed, it is observed that during hypoxia, glycogenolysis is induced (Gruetter, 2003).

Altitude Challenge

The initial cardiovascular response to hypoxia is an increase in heart rate and in cardiac output with no changes in stroke volume, and the arterial blood pressure may temporarily increase. After a few days of acclimatization, cardiac output reduces to normal values, with still increased heart rate, so that stroke volume is decreased. In the same time the systemic vascular resistances increase as a response of the adrenal medullary activity and the systemic arterial pressure increase, too. As a consequence of these adaptations, myocardial workload and oxygen demand increase. Because the coronary oxygen extraction is normally physiologically high already at low altitude, the myocardium to adapt to this increased request may almost exclusively act on coronary vasodilatation enhancing coronary blood flow. Ultimately, global systolic indices of ventricular function are preserved or only slightly depressed, with altered diastolic filling pattern. Even if the relationship between workload, cardiac output and oxygen uptake is preserved, a decrease in maximal oxygen consumption and in maximal cardiac output are observed, which is minimal in acute hypoxia but is more important after acclimatization (Naeije, 2010; Scherrer, Allemann, Jayet, 2010). Despite all these consequences, these adaptations are well tolerated and the high altitude exposure doesn't carry risks of myocardial ischemia in healthy subjects (Naeije, 2010). But there are also intracellular changes that operate to reduce injuries of hypoxia and provide sufficient oxygenation when a subject is exposed to altitude. In hypoxic environment, humans are able to switch on activation of numerous genes to increase oxygen delivery.

Another consequence of high altitude is pulmonary hypertension. The increase pressure in pulmonary artery is caused by the hypoxic vasoconstriction of pulmonary small arteries and veins and this response is very variable among humans. The degree of pulmonary hypertension is generally mild and



does not contribute to the symptoms of acute mountain sickness (AMS). It can occur in tourists, as well as in hikers, skiers, and mountaineers. Interestingly, the increase in pulmonary artery pressure occurs both in individuals with AMS and in those who remain asymptomatic after the climb. Excessive pulmonary vasoconstriction plays a role in the development of early high-altitude pulmonary edema (HAPE) and late within week right heart failure at high altitude (Naeije, 2010; Smith, Robbins & Ratcliff, 2008; Donegani, Hillebrandt, and Windsor, 2014). Lowlanders who ascend to medium or high altitudes may develop some degree of AMS, and the common symptoms are headache, sleep disorders, gastrointestinal disorders and dizziness. The degree of susceptibility to this illness varies and in those with vigorous response it may lead to two potential lethal ones, HAPE and high-altitude cerebral edema (HACE). The main cause is hypoxemia and, thus, the treatment is oxygen administration and, in severe cases, in addition to appropriate pharmacological treatment if available, a return to lower altitudes. Acetazolamide administration is the most widely accepted prophylaxis. Staging the ascent attenuates the symptoms of AMS and, thus, is recommended as a way to prevent the most serious clinical conditions as HAPE and HACE (Naeije, 2010).

A person exposed suddenly to an altitude of 3000 m breathes rapidly because peripheral chemoreceptors have stimulated an increase in breathing rate. Explain why this increase in breathing rate is not maintained for longer than a few minutes. As more carbon dioxide is excreted through the lungs owing to the increased breathing rate, PCO_2 in plasma is decreased and eventually PCO_2 in CSF also decreases, resulting in an increased pH, a signal to reduce the breathing rate. The signal from the central chemoreceptors cancels out the signal from the peripheral ones, resulting in a very small net effect on the ventilation rate of the lungs. This example demonstrates the 'conflict' between peripheral and central chemoreceptors. In contrast with other receptors, peripheral chemoreceptors do not adapt but continue firing as long as there is hypoxia. Their continued generation of neural signals increases ventilation a little, so the CSF becomes slightly alkaline. The initial failure of the respiratory system to respond to hypoxia is to some extent ameliorated by responses in the blood and the cardiovascular system. Immediately following exposure to high altitudes, red blood cells which are stored mainly in the spleen are released. This increases the level of haematocrit so producing an immediate increase in the capacity of the blood to carry oxygen. Within 12 hours, the rate at which red blood cells are formed also starts to increase, mediated by the glycoprotein hormone, erythropoietin, which stimulates cell division in haematopoietic stem cells in the bone marrow. Cardiac output is increased by up to five times the resting level at sea-level. In addition, previously constricted capillaries in the tissues open up so enhancing blood supply to the tissues and reducing blood pressure. The lack of oxygen as a result of the ascent from SL to moderate or high altitude impairs the endurance training and performance in the athletes initially (Frisancho, 1993).

CONCLUSION

From the journey so far, the researchers concluded that:

1. The early physiological response and acclimatization to hypoxia is the failure of the respiratory system which is perfected by response in the blood and cardiovascular system followed by the

release of red blood cells that was stored in the spleen thereby increasing the blood carrying oxygen capacity which helps release more energy for a better sport performance.

2. Also, the noticeable increase in ventilation on rapid ascent to a height of more than 1500 meters within few hours of exposure due to hypoxia made respiratory stimulation via carotid body to minimize fall in alveolar PO_2 (PaO_2) as a result of fall in barometric pressure in the athletes.
3. Lowlanders trainers exposed to high altitude have lower vital capacity due to changes in pulmonary mechanics due to hypoxia and hypocapnia have plasma volume decreased due to water loss, related to dry environment and hyperventilation and to fluid shift from the intravascular space into the interstitial and intracellular spaces.
4. Sport Performance has been enhanced extensively by the used of altitude training. Because of Changes in performance after hypoxia training may be associated with changes in aerobic power components.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the conclusion reached the researchers recommended that:

1. Athletes' should acclimatize to each level of altitude in order to avoid the development of any high altitude sicknesses using a slow ascent.
2. Athletes should drink plenty of water, eat adequately and obtain sufficient sleep to provide enough energy for physical activities.
3. Athletes

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