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Editorial

This issue of *KIU Journal of Humanities* deals with organizational development, development administration, entrepreneurial studies, social psychology, education management, human rights and literary analysis.

In Organizational Development, Oluka unravels the challenges of little support from the Government that was suspicious of VTRDO as a collaborator with the rebels that carried out insurgency in Uganda. He concludes by complementing the great job done by VTRDO, particularly the courage, endurance and sacrifice which were made by the organization. Using a purely qualitative approach, Imbuki also demonstrates that the influence of the media in conflict management can not be underestimated. He recommends that content that whatever is published or aired on media should be properly considered in terms of content and packaging in order to avoid instigating conflicts.

In the Second Part which is devoted to Development Administration, Garba and Ongodia portray a positive relationship between social infrastructure and rural community development in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria. They suggest that more awareness should be made to rural populace on the provision of social infrastructure like health facilities, and increase in funding by the government and nongovernmental in the provision of social infrastructures at rural level. Ikegbu argues that bureaucratization is only an ideal model, which does not exist in reality. And for reform agenda to achieve the desired objectives, all stakeholders should be involved in their formulation and implementation. Yakubu also presents the way forward for economic and social aspects of sustainable development in Nigeria, maintaining that the major concern of every government should be how to cater for the needs of its large population and the imperative proper integration of its domestic economy into the world economy in the face of increasing globalization. Osezua finally examines public policies and programmes and national development in Nigeria, suggesting that policies to establish, grow and protect strategic sectors of the economy in job creation should be established.

In part three, Adeyemi argues that entrepreneurship development is crucial to the creation of the required manpower and skills necessary for the acceleration of growth in the Nigerian economy and reduction of unemployment, poverty and over-dependency on the oil sector and the quest for “paid employment”. Ahmed also reports his findings on Youth Entrepreneurship and Poverty Reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government Area of Kano State and recommends the need for the government of Nigeria to keep supporting the youth by providing them with

grants, loans, entrepreneurial education and training which will enhance their capacity to self-sustenance and eventual poverty reduction in their households. Investigating the common challenges faced by the local farmers in accessing agricultural credit from commercial banks in Bichi local government, Aliyu reveals that access to agricultural credit has often not being easy given the lack of collateral among farmers, high interest rate, complex bank system and late approval among others. He therefore recommends that in order to get maximum output, policies of commercial banks should be flexible and rate of interest should be less for small farmers than large farmers because small farmers hardly acknowledge their basic need. With the use of cross sectional research design, Sani, Danja and Kibuuka establish that there was a positive relationship between planning skills and career performance. They recommend that entrepreneurship skills acquired through the mandatory entrepreneurship education programme for undergraduate students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria are an important consideration in helping self-employed graduates to enhance their career performance. Bukki also establishes that there was no significant difference in level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities and that there were positive relationship between entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial value; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial behaviour; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial behaviour while there was no relationship entrepreneurial mindsets and entrepreneurial behaviour. Based on these findings, he recommends that Governments, NGOs and international bodies should assist Nigerian universities to improving undergraduates' chances of developing a strong entrepreneurship spirit.

In the Section on Social Psychology, Onifade, Adigun and others establish that eagerness to be pleased and accepted by one's friend, struggling to cope with day to day activities could result to drug abuse. They therefore advise undergraduates to be watchful of the friend they want to make so as to be free from falling prey of drug abuse. Ibraheem and Asagba also recommend among others that government, corporate organizations and philanthropists should assist in the provision of leisure activities and programmes that will bring about good health and fitness of community members.

Under Educational Management, Akinsolu examines the influence of role conflict on academic staffs' effectiveness in selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria with particular reference to Osun state and recommends that academic staffs should face less stress and be made more effective in the discharge of their roles most especially in community services and production of high quality publishable academic papers. Adeyemi also proves that there was significant influence of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State and suggests that the Ministry of Education should organize extensive in-service development programme and/or encourage the principals to go for short

courses in educational management with specific emphasis on leadership skills and styles and conflict management in schools. Olori and Igbosanu finally discuss the use of computer-based multimedia presentation on Senior Secondary School Students' Achievement in Agricultural Science. They conclude that competent ICT teachers, adherence to the application of appropriate instructional technologies to capture and sustain students' interest, creation of good learning environment with adequate improvised instructional materials in all secondary schools will enhance achievement and good success in vocational subjects.

In Human Rights, Olatoke evaluate the relationship between the World Trade Organization and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights with a view to determining whether the World Trade Organization has deliberately or inadvertently violated same in the discharge of its functions. Ayinla, Abdulrasaq and Ajakaye analyzed the ACJ Act 2015 in other to point out the salient innovations in the Act, with particularly reference to the inclusion of plea bargain as an ADR Mechanism and the need for a continuous reform. Analysing both international and Nigeria legal frameworks on foetal protection, Ayinla, Ayodele and Ahmad recommend that the foetus rights should only overweigh the pregnant woman's rights after balancing both the rights of such foetus and pregnant woman's rights as any unfavourable tilt in favour of the foetus against the mother may drive away pregnant women with the greatest need of help.

Through Literary Analysis, Ngwoke examines Amadi's drama, and tries to ascertain the extent to which his art in that genre depicts the same aloofness to the malaise of the post-independence African continent as his novels do. Awhefeada also analyzes his poetry collection *In My Hermitage* depicting it as a significant and poignant statement on contemporary social malaise.

On the whole, articles in this edition of *KIU Journal of Humanities* are both strongly theoretical and applied. They provide solutions to some of the problems confronting communities, societies, economies, and the environment. The authors' teachings and areas of research must certainly influence their perspectives on the diagnoses of the matters they have addressed. The methodologies used in the articles are useful to academics and policy makers. Thank you for reading the articles.

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Part One
Organizational Development



The Challenges of a Non-Governmental Organization during Insurgency in Uganda: A case Study of Vision Teso Rural Development Organization in Kumi District (1986-1994)

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Abstract. The specific objectives of this study were to find out how Vision Teso Rural Development Organization (VTRDO) collaborated with the local communities in the delivery social services during insurgency in Uganda Secondly it sought to determine the extent of government's support to the VTRDO's programmes. Thirdly, the study sought to establish the values, needs, attitudes, and expectations of the communities towards VTRDO's social service provisions and the extent to which VTRDO met them. Lastly, the study sought to find the level of apathy within the target communities regarding VTRDO's Programmes during the insurgency. The methodology used was a case study design, which is an intensive detailed description of an organization (VTRDO). This case study design described what went on during insurgency I the local communities in Kumi District 1986-1994. The study looked at the collaboration between VTRDO and the local communities. It researched on the environment, education, peoples' lives, morals, needs, attitudes and general expectations of the communities. The findings reveal that the communities were appreciative by VTRDO. Their morals, needs, attitudes and expectations were met in varying degrees during insurgency despite some weaknesses which VTRDO had and were perceived by the communities in that way. The study unravels the challenges of little support from the Government that was suspicious of VTRDO as a collaborator with the rebels that carried out the insurgency. The study concludes by complementing the great job done by VTRDO, the courage, endurance and sacrifice which was made by them, this cannot be equaled in any way. It is recommended that VTRDO should improve on its collaborations with the communities in the delivery of social services, it should have more skilled personnel and sensitize the government on its activities so as not to be misunderstood during service provision at the time of insurgency.

Keywords: The challenges of a non-governmental organization during insurgency in Uganda.

1. Introduction

Kumi District went through a violent period of insurgency from 1986-1994 where the entire infrastructure was destroyed. The people were bundled into camps. The families found themselves separated, as each person had to find refuge somewhere. Kumi District had originally an estimated 500,000 head of cattle in 1986, which were eventually rustled leaving behind less than 35,000 by 1992/3 statistical data. There was general decay of morals schools were closed down and general administration collapsed.

Akelo, (PCT Section 31, 1996), has stated that, general anarchy, famine and diseases were a common feature in society. This was caused by a number of factors that include: the cattle rustling carried out by the Karamojong, the nonintervention carried out by the government to protect lives and property of the people” (p3, PCT Document 2000).

The NGO phenomenon in Uganda has its origins in that; civil society and the market have become the panacea for the failures of the African State in the post-cold war neo-liberal climate. NGOs are certainly not new to the African continent or to the Third World for that matter. But now, in addition to their previous importance as poverty alleviators, emergency and humanitarian aid providers NGOs are being eroded as important vehicles for empowerment democratization and economic development. NGOs and wider civil society thus act as intermediaries between the unorganized masses and the state.

In Uganda it is argued as currently structured, NGOs are not viable vehicles for African democratization. Their democratic promise is impeded by inhospitable structural conditions, historical legacies, regime restrictions and internal (NGO) limitations. NGOs have existed in Uganda in the past. There was however an influx of NGOs to Uganda since 1986 National Resistance Movement (NRM) takeover. NGOs can be categorized on the basis of the functions that they perform as well as the constituency that they target. In addition to the obvious distinctions between international or Northern NGOs (INNGOs) and indigenous NGOs or Southern (SNGOs), NGOs can be categorized on the basis of whether they are Voluntary Organizations’ (VOs) Gap-fillers (GFs) or service provision organizations. The development of NGOs in Uganda therefore follow that trend and are founded to be gap fillers or service provision organizations. Vision Teso Rural Development Organization (VTRDO) falls in the category of service provider and was founded for that purpose.

VTRDO is a Non-Governmental Organization, which was founded in 1982 in response to the poverty situation existing in the communities. It was formed to alleviate poverty and encourage development using village technology. Like all local NGOs, it was to supplement the efforts of government in the provision of social services including Health, Education, and Agriculture. All these formed the four programmes of VTRDO.

This Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) called VTRDO had to intervene during this crisis. This intervention was to provide food, clothing, moral and spiritual assistance to the people who were in camps, trading centers and various homes. The aim was to assist the people out of the hard and harsh environment that they found themselves in because of the insurgency.

During the crisis VTRDO turned itself into a relief agency begging donors to help with food. It took sanitation to the campsites to save people from diseases. This was not an easy task for VTRDO because in 1990 the soldiers of National Resistance Army (NRA) soldiers broke into their stores and looted items meant for the suffering people. They also damaged the NGO's assets especially the vehicles, some of which were bombed. Despite the storms, VTRDO maintained its role helping the poor and mobilizing the people to engage in agriculture and counseling activities. Between 1990-1992, when people moved from the camps, VTRDO provided them with farming tools, bedding and made follow-ups to sensitize the people on food security. Kumi District in particular saw the rebellion end in 1994.

2. Literature Review

The existing literature states that like countries of Africa in which they exist, African NGOs face many challenges in part because of their origins. The nature of their support base and their expectations is held by a wide constituency, which includes the grassroots, governments and donor partners. African NGOs face an enormous challenge of sustainable development. In many ways the issue of sustainability must be characterized as the single most important challenge to the whole phenomenon of NGO enterprise in Africa. There are several reasons why the challenge of sustainability is critical for African NGOs.

One of these is the challenge of competence. Among the many challenges facing African NGOs is that of competence which has gained a great deal of attention recently. The issue has really been clouded by mudslinging between Northern and Southern NGOs. The fight often revolves around such concepts as accountability with Southern NGOs claiming the right to full self-management and a free hand in the development of resources (from the North) on the one hand. On the other, the Northern NGOs view the Southern NGOs as not having adequate management skills to account fully for the use of such resources and that the Northern NGOs have to be accountable to their constituencies in the North.

The challenge of competence, however, faces the African NGOs even without bringing in the dimension of the Northern donor NGOs the point is that while the African NGOs remain largely dependent upon foreign money for their operations, autonomy in policy and programme implementation will remain a matter of relativity. Herein lies the challenge.

A further challenge is for African NGOs to have skilled personnel in the application control and, servicing of the technology used in their development process. As long as they rely on foreign technical experts, they remain incompetent. Further, Africans have the challenge of fostering personnel with skills in self-critical analysis of their situation.

Maxwell (1987) has stated that, like the ambiguous definition of NGOs, defining what constitutes a conflict situation is also unclear. Though the phenomenon of conflict pervades all of human interaction, this discussion is concerned with overt, violent and military conflict. The two most widely publicized NGO interventions of this decade in Ethiopia and in Kampuchea were first and foremost about famine, not conflict. Yet conflict at several levels such as, super power, regional, domestic and local was the underlying factor in both these situations. Likewise, the two most publicized interventions that directly affected Uganda, the Karamoja famine in 1980 and the West Nile refugee crisis of 1981-1986 also involved conflicts among a complex of underlying causes. The responses of NGOs to any kind of emergency, be it man-made or natural or some combination of the two (as is usually the case), tend to be similar. In the same way, the concerns raised by these responses are similar. Any discussion of these concerns must recognize the fact that conflict is only one of a number of factors that cause NGOs to intervene, and the way in which a particular agency views that conflict determines its response.

He concludes, by saying that when a society such as Uganda experiences conflict, much of the society's creative energy is expended in the struggle itself. The social fabric of communities is ripped apart, leaving otherwise self-reliant people vulnerable.

Institutions break down as governments struggle with security problems, and ordinary people try to simply survive. The conflict in Uganda has been protracted, multi-sided, and with multiple causes and often with armed forces that were under no one's control. Such situations inevitably evoke a response from capable local organizations, and concerned external ones, With the exception of the latter years of Amin's rule, international NGOs including local ones have been present in Uganda throughout Uganda's turmoil.

Clark, (1995), has observed that, there is now near universal recognition that poverty alleviation, eradication of hunger, protecting the environment, and safeguarding the poor from the debt crisis are priorities. But these are areas in which the official agencies have limited experience or discover tremendous operational difficulties and as a result, they are actively seeking the collaboration of both Northern and Southern NGOs .The voluntary organizations often work in the areas of great poverty, have direct relationship with the communities of poor people, and have considerable experience of tackling environment problems.

For NGOs, this makes for an exciting and challenging time. They are no longer regarded as irrelevant, but find themselves drawn into the main stream development

debates. They have vast resources at their disposal. And they have the capacity to influence those who wield even greater resources. They are the cusps of great opportunity.

“Smallness”, is often seen as virtue in NGO circles, in comparison with giant schemes of governments, which are so frequently criticized. But “small” can also mean “insignificant”.

The challenge for NGOs is to seek ways of maximizing their impact and maximizing the value of lessons drawn from their experiences, without sacrificing the quality of their programmes. Whether NGOs significantly seize the opportunities or not depends largely on whether they create the space to step back from their conventional project work to be able to put effort into discovering the skills of analysis and persuasion, needed to shape an alternative vision of development out of their experience of working with the poor. The challenge is to move from a “tactical” to a “strategic” approach. By doing this they have the chance to transform development.

On the NGO’s, participatory qualities, Carol (1994), summarizes his findings by suggesting a number of indicators that should be looked for when assessing the “participatory qualities” of NGOs, some of these include: participation is an institutional objective of the NGO, contribution of cash, labour, raw material or local facilities by local communities which makes the communities clients of the intermediary, the NGO and its personnel have keen understanding of sensitivity to issues concerning women and children and other marginalized groups.

Essentially, Carol is arguing, that there is a direct link between field presence and the operational structure and the ability of an NGO to promote people’s participation. He also argues that the notion of participation has not been limited to the public discourse of the NGO but it has been internalized and in several facets of its institutional practice, for example, training, planning and processes of accountability. While the evidence upon which Carol draws is largely from intermediary Southern NGOs, it is not impossible to apply the same kind of criteria in assessing the performance of Northern NGOs. It has been stated that another challenge in Africa stems from the relative weakness, in both political and managerial terms of the African NGOs.

International NGOs still dominate the African scene, but they have realized that it is in their own interest to strengthen local counterparts. For this reason, special attention has been paid to strengthening indigenous NGOs. It has also been observed that the institutional pluralism poses a special challenge to African governments, which have growing challenges from these organizations especially as a result of the sweeping changes that have taken place in Eastern Europe, where power monopolies have given way to greater pluralism.

The literature that exists referring to the Western NGOs in Africa states that, so pervasive is their presence that there is virtually not a single District in most parts of Africa that does not have their presence” They come as private voluntary organizations, development agencies, and groups, charity organizations, religious and quasi-religious groups. What unites them is often the fact that they are all controlled, financed and executively staffed by European and North American wealth and direct or indirect backing from their governments put them above the local community groups and NGOs in their “host” countries.

Tajudeen Abdul-Raheem (2000) observes that the continuous rise of the NGOs, their dominance and control over the civil society in Africa cannot be divorced from the continuing crisis of the post colonial African State. The crisis is characterized by debt burden, illegitimate governments, civil wars, refugees, mass poverty and general collapse in the standard of living of the people.

Susan (1998) unravels facts regarding NGOs civil society and democracy by stating that aid is increasingly being channeled through NGO5 and other non-state actors rather than through decrepit and often corrupt states. Susan argues that NGOs are increasingly relegated to service provisions and gap filling supportive functions are not matched with activities by the retreating state but those (supported) increased political efficiency. NGOs are also fundamentally constrained by regime impediments and the current political economy of development. They can also exert pressure on public officials for better performance and greater accountability (World Bank, page 61, 1989).

On NGO performance and accountability, Micheal Edwards and David Hulme (1998), have stated that, by any standards, 1980s brought an explanation in the number of NGOs and Grass-Root Organizations (GROs) active in relief and development. In terms of service provision, there is certainly evidence that NGOs are able to provide some services more cost effectively than governments. Even when NGO’s service provision is low-cost, it usually fails to reach the poorest people though it may still reach a wider cross-section of the population than government or commercial agencies (Hashenu and Schuler 1992; Farmington and Bebbington 1993; Hulme and Mosley 1995).

Fowler, (1998), has observed that NGOs have always understood the need to assess their performance. However, the growing internal and external pressures include inadequacies that stem from fundamental difficulties inherent in the development approach adopted by the aid system, and the concept of performance when applied to non-profit organizations and the way development NGOs do not need profit themselves in order to secure and maintain public support and funding.

The factors that condition NGOs’ ability to determine what impact they are making in terms of the people they are established to serve, include, the interconnections commonly found in the project flow of international development resources, the interface where one organization’s ends become another’s means, the factors that

influence the flow of resources, and the different points at which performance can be assessed in terms of outputs, outcomes or inputs.

Aid has been criticized because of what form it may take. Hancock 1989; has stated that, the charitable impulse at the root of much aid-giving is at its most potent during disaster and emergencies, it is however, a double-edged sword. On the one hand raises money. On the other hand it stifles questions about the uses to which money is put and makes those who ask such questions look rather churlish.

Critiquing humanitarianism is like critiquing the institution of motherhood; it is just not, "the one thing". One observer has expressed the problem particularly well; humanitarians ask individuals and governments out of charity, to give funds to allow them to bind up wounds, comfort the weak save lives. Compassion expects everyone to agree on the method. Since they are guided by a moral virtue, compassion, any obstacle in the path of carrying out humanitarian objectives must be immoral. And since the objective is so good it is inconceivable that recipients will fail to be grateful. Whether the aid is charitable or official, however, whether it is funded out of public donations or out of taxes the employees of all the agencies concerned inevitably play a crucial role in the field and bear a tremendous responsibility. They must interpret the needs of the poor and they must meet those needs quickly and competently. Some recipients of emergency assistance have however, been heard to express ungracious doubts about those who come to help. As one African refugee asked, petulantly, "why is it that every US Dollar comes with 20 Americans attached to it?"

Hancock continues to say that," in many Third World disasters a great deal of aid money is spent purchasing the expertise that Americans and Europeans provide. The aid personnel who consume these resources come in all shapes and sizes, all kinds and varieties. Some are very good indeed and undoubtedly earn their pay. Others are extra ordinarily bad, their motivation is questionable and their input is negligible or even harmful. All too often during the Third World disasters, staff, experts and consultants are not subjected to any kind of careful scrutiny before they are sent into the field, common sense gets abandoned in the rush to help".

Hancock (1989) continued to observe that" aid has its defenders, not least the highly paid public-relations men and women who spend millions of dollar a year justifying their continued existence of the agencies that employ them. He concludes by saying that aid is a waste of time and money that its results are fundamentally bad and that far from being increased it should be stopped forth with before more damage is done.

This existing literature does not make mention or address the pertinent issues of challenges of NGOs in the insurgency areas, It especially makes no mention of hindrances such as political interference, looting by the military, terrible sanitary conditions, Lack of co-operation by the civil leaders, chiefs, local councils, genuine

decay of the morals of the society and breakdown of law and order. In all the existing literature is not clear how the NGOs face the challenges in the insurgency areas whether they failed or succeeded. This study sought to describe the challenges faced by VTRDO and to find out whether there were successes or failures. The study sought to inquire further into relationships between the intervention and the delivery of services during insurgency.

3. Methodology

This study used a case study design. It has illustrated the challenges faced by VTRDO in the delivery of the social services during the period of insurgency, it has also highlighted the attitudes, values and apathy of the target communities towards the VTRDO's services and how this could have affected the programme. This study was carried out in Kumi District generally but in particular in Ngora County which has got four (4) Sub-counties of Kafir, Mukura, Ngora and Kobwin. This area is the headquarters of VTRDO and most of the activities were concentrated within Ngora County. This area had the largest number of campsites. The general public respondents for the semi-structured questionnaire interviews were selected using the stratified random sampling techniques. Ngora County was stratified in Sub-counties, Parishes and LC1s. The additional stratification variables included population size and the number of camps during the insurgency. Four LC1s, one from each Sub-county with the highest population size and the number of campsites were selected. 25 respondents from each LC1 were selected using the simple random sampling techniques thus making a total of one hundred (100) respondents. All the qualitative and quantitative data collected from key informants was edited on a continuous basis to ensure completeness. Data that was collected with the use of interview schedules was put into meaningful and exhaustive categories. Content analysis was the main method of analyzing qualitative data.

4. Summary of the findings.

Generally, there was lack of adequate transportation, lack of adequate employees to do the required jobs, insufficient funding and shortage of the items for distribution to the campsites.

However, it has been noted that the strengths greatly outweigh the perceived weaknesses and shortcomings as conceived by the recipients of those social services. The challenges that VTRDO faced during the insurgency were subdued by the persistence and unwavering determination of VTRDO to alleviate the suffering of the people under siege.

The findings of the study unravel the issues that pertain to the challenges of NGOs during insurgency, which will be relevant in all similar situations. There are always uncertainties in donor funding, there are suspicions from the government of the day, in which side the NGOs are despite knowing that they are only doing intervention

on humanitarian grounds. Whatever could possibly be done was done as the study showed.

5. Conclusion

From the findings, it is concluded that VTRDO collaborated with the local communities in the delivery of social services. Due to this collaboration, the local communities were satisfied with the provision of services in the campsites by VTRDO. The organization of the provision of services was very good. The local communities also supported the VTRDO's programmes. Thus VTRDO conquered this challenge. From the findings, it is concluded that government's support to VTRDO was fair. Government saw VTRDO's intervention programmes as much relevant to insurgency and values VTRDO's programmes. The local communities rated government's support to VTRDO as good. VTRDO overcame this challenge. From the findings, it is concluded that VTRDO met the values, needs, attitudes and expectations of the local communities and this was rated as a good job done. The communities always had positive attitude towards VTRDO's provision of services. This challenge was therefore met by VTRDO. From the findings, it is concluded that there was a low level of apathy within the target communities regarding VTRDO's programmes during insurgency. The communities were satisfied with the provision of services and they always expected those services to be provided by VTRDO during insurgency. In this case also VTRDO met the challenges in the provision of services to the target communities.

6. Recommendations.

It is recommended that VTRDO should improve on its collaboration with the communities they are targeting to receive the services. VTRDO as an organization should have more skills in future so as to improve on the delivery of services. VTRDO should acquire more skills of organization to face the challenges of provision of services in future. VTRDO should improve on the degree of support from local communities so that it can always be able to provide services to the local communities during insurgency. Lastly, VTRDO should have concern for all the communities that need assistance.

It is recommended that VTRDO should sensitize the government on its functions as a service provider and a partner in social development so that government can support its programmes during insurgency. VTRDO should keep the government informed of its activities to enable the government see the relevance of its programmes. VTRDO should always maintain an information system be it in terms of monthly or yearly reports to the government to enable their interventions to be valued in the future, It is recommended that VTRDO should in future adopt or form a committee of which government officials are members so that their programmes are known and supported by government during insurgency. VTRDO should

continue to rally support from other local officials in their areas of operations so that the delivery of social services is smooth.

It is recommended that VTRDO should establish the best way to cope up with values at the campsite during insurgency. VTRDO should train counselors and social workers who have the required skills. VTRDO should establish a system which is able to meet the needs of communities. It is further recommended that VTRDO should establish good attitudes and meet the needs of local communities. VTRDO should carry out surveys and research relevant to the provision of services during insurgency. Lastly VTRDO should establish systems that can maintain sponsorship of children during insurgency.

It is recommended that VTRDO should find ways and means of the provision of services that are always satisfying to the local communities, so that people do not have to complain due to the lack of transparency during insurgency. VTRDO should provide services to all the communities so as to reduce the level of apathy from the recipients of those services during insurgency, thus maintaining the principle of equity and social justice. Lastly, it is recommended that VTRDO should continue its mandate as a service provider and seek ways and means of obtaining donor funding from partners who are sympathetic to the plight of the local communities during insurgency.

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Media and Conflict Management in Mombasa County Kenya

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Abstract. Throughout history religion has provided a powerful vehicle for instigating war, giving meaning and legitimating war, and in facilitating postwar reconciliation. The study was conducted in Mombasa County which is on the coastal strip of Kenya. This is a region that has experienced conflicts that have a religious inclinations and religious intolerance. The aim of the study is to investigate the role media in conflict management in Mombasa county.

The study used a purely qualitative approach because the researcher wanted to involve an interpretive and natural setting attempting to make sense of or interpret a phenomena in terms of meanings people bring with them. Therefore the researcher used grounded theory approach. The method allowed close and direct contact between the researcher and respondents through face to face interaction, and this further helped to promote firm basis for generalization of findings regarding the research problem and the development of a theoretical model. Interviews, Focused group discussions and observation were used to collect data. The data was categorized into meaning full units or segments or categories. Open coding was used in order to construct and interpret common themes or patterns for the qualitative data. The data was then uploaded to a computer software called NVIVO for analysis. The data was analyzed using open coding, Axial coding selection and selecting coding by the use of NVIVI version 8.

The findings demonstrated that the influence of the media in conflict management is key. It was established that media, can either be a peace or an anarchy tool. In certain instances, it was used as a container for the fermentation of religious hatred, yet in other circumstances, it was being used as a vehicle for peaceful co – existence in the Mombasa County community. On this note, it can be appreciated that the media is a vital tool for conflict transformation. Finally, religious practices if there are well followed, revered and respected, by their respective adherents, coupled with the observance of the universal societal moral tenets, have an

equally important role they play in the neutralization of the would be conflict riddled environment.

Conflict transformation can be achieved when the parties involved do not look at conflict resolutions as an end but the process to a peaceful co-existence. Conflicts are inevitable and can be transformed to a positive agent for appreciating our differences. This means that no party feels less important in the process.

It is recommended that content that is published on aired on media should not only consider content but the packaging of the same in order to avoid instigating conflicts.

1. Background of the study

The study was conducted in Mombasa coastal areas of East Africa were mainly under the stewardship of the Zanzibar sultanate during both the pre-colonial and colonial eras. These coastal areas especially the city-states and communities had the mandate to conduct their own businesses, provided they remitted taxes and duties to Zanzibar (Goldsmith, 2011). By 1963 when the British handed over power to the indigenous Kenyans, the allegiance to the sultan came to an end as the coastal protectorate was amalgamated into the new Kenyan Republic. This unification of Kenya as a sovereign state narrowed the hopes of self-rule for the coastal areas under Jomo Kenyatta's centralist government (ibid). Subsequently, the then coastal leaders showed their support for the Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU) *majimbo* platform as opposed to the *mwamba* movement cause for independence. Such desire for self-autonomy has equally been highlighted by Banner 2008, in Goldsmith (2011, p. 4) in his argument that;

“efforts to secure coastal autonomy represent a regionally and historically specific type of sovereignty pursued by mwambao activists not simply to guard political and material privileges, but more broadly to express a language of political legitimacy that still resonates today.”

The continued desire to exert sovereignty over their coastal affairs, as well as manage their own land and other resources overtime paved way for the establishment of pressure groups like the Mombasa Republican Council (MRC). The MRC nurtured the idealism of coastal nationalism to include both Muslims and non-Muslims in their activism cause in which they have out rightly sought for the session of the coast under the slogan ‘*pwanisi Kenya*’ or the coast is not part of Kenya (Wolf, Muthoka, & Ileri, 2013). However, interactions of some of the MRC members with the media has tended to suggest that MRC has a clear Muslim majority which advocates for the session (Wolf et al., 2013).

In this study, media are conceptualized as platforms and mechanisms through which information can be disseminated to the public. This is through the use of electronic and print materials. Examples are the use of internet, radio, television, newspapers/tabloids.

2. Problem Statement

In Mombasa County, there is religious intolerance between people who have different faith based persuasions, specifically between the adherents of Christian faiths, as opposed to those who observe the Islamic faith. On several occasions, Muslims and Christians have been involved in physical fights openly in Mombasa County. The Central Salvation Army church of Mombasa, that is adjacent to the *Sakina* Mosque, has been severally attacked by Muslim youth and its property destroyed. Furthermore, in one of the Christian open air meeting at Shimo la Tewa Township, the crowd was attacked by hand grenades that according to security, originated from the *Sakina* Mosque. This led to the raid by Christian bearing state security with feet clad in shoes on *Sakina* Mosque. This was interpreted as a defilement of a place of worship, in spite of the fact that several weapons including hand grenades, machetes, were recovered in the operation in *Sakina* Mosque as reported by the local Kenyan media houses.

The impact of the violence was devastating. Statistics compiled by the police, which provide a conservative estimate, indicate that a total of 104 people were killed in the violence, at least 133 more were injured, hundreds of structures were damaged, and other property damaged or stolen leading to large losses. Human rights groups estimate that, in addition to more than a hundred people killed, some 100,000 people were displaced. Furthermore, the coast region's lucrative tourism trade came to a virtual stand, which affected the national economy negatively as little money was realized from the tourists after the western governments led by the UK and US, issued travel advisory notices to their citizens. This caused the Hotel industry as well as the tourism sector to lose a lot of revenue and consequently the government of Kenya.

The response of the security apparatus in Kenya has been arresting of the perceived youths who have been arraigned in courts of law or as reported in the media. One of the emerging outcomes has been the radicalization of some of the coastal youth, and some of their sympathizers from outside Mombasa County.

The purpose of this study was to investigate how media plays a role in conflict management and conflict transformation.

3. Literature Review

Media plays a very important role of constituting a space in which the conflicts that arise within the society can be articulated and are inevitably in themselves actors in that conflict (Malakwen, 2014). This is succinctly explained by Mahatma Gandhi, who said that:

One of the objects of newspaper is to understand the popular feeling and give expression to it; another is to arouse among the people certain desirable sentiments; the third is fearlessly to expose popular defects.

The influence of the media, particularly the electronic media, continues to grow with time. This is demonstrated by the increasing number of media outlets, such as radio stations. The internet as is also a prominent media of mass communication (Kroker & Weinsten, 1994). Because of the influence, media events can be used in time of conflict to build confidence, facilitate negotiations or to break diplomatic deadlocks to create conducive to negotiation. In any society, youth are the primary consumers of media services, thus media events targeted at them such as music concerts, or radio programs can facilitate peace agreements and negotiations.

Interest generated by media events may help to promote and mobilize public support for peace agreements, as was the case in Burundi, where Studio Ijambo used radio to promote constructive dialogue between previously antagonistic groups. Studio Ijambo was initially established with a team of twenty Hutu and Tutsi Journalists whose mandate was to promote dialogue, peace, and reconciliation. The commitment of Studio Ijambo to the promotion of peace between Hutu and Tutsi is demonstrated by their products rate: they produce about a hundred radio programs per month in a continuous campaign to build peace (Gilboa, 2002).

The media also has a significant initiative as a gatekeeper which sets the agenda for public discourse, filters the issues which promotes peace, against those that don't, and tries to maintain a balance of views, However, such a gatekeeper initiative is understood by the fact that the media likes to portray themselves as "balanced and fair," even when they privately seek to promote a particular ideological set of ideas and limit the public's exposure to a wide array of information. This aspect of balance and gate-keeping is only possible in a media facility that is understood and followed by both sides in a conflict. However, in the North Rift, as in many other parts of Kenya, there are a variety of ethnic stations

which make no pretense of objectivity; as their listeners are drawn from a single ethnic group, so they do not attempt to moderate their views, but instead can incite ethnic hatred.

Thus, ethnic radio stations need to recognize their role in society if the media is to live its peace building role. This is because radio is the most widely disseminated form of mass media in Mombasa County. O'Sullivan and Flanagan (2003), observe that because it is so influential, the media can be a two-edged sword; it can be negative for the society if it is selective, biased, sensational and inclined to propaganda and media (McChesney, 2002).

The media is also a principal means through which the public can address social development challenges such as corruption, violence, crime, communal strife, public health and related issues. It is significant that these problems form a big part of the daily news agenda, all over the world as evidenced by topics like racial violence in urban America ethnic rivalry and religious intolerance in Africa, Asia and the middle East and prejudice and discrimination against notional minorities (Wolfsfeld, 2004).

The media must therefore have fingers on the pulse of the people because they have an obligation not to jeopardize or harm the welfare of the society (Reddy, 2002). Peace building means reinforcing the prospects for peace and minimizing the chances of further violence. The aim of peace building is to develop society's ability to sort out its conflicts in a peaceful manner. The media is well placed to facilitate peace building. It can advocate for the protection of human rights which are likely to be abused during conflicts, including protection of women and children against abuse: health and control of epidemics: law and order, specifically exposing and preventing arbitrary arrests, torture and inhuman treatment and so on.

The media initiative is amply demonstrated by its influence on Kenya's political process. The media is placed at a central position to guard the society against state infringements. During Kenya's 2007/2008 post-election violence, a democratic media encouraged dialogue, tolerance and interaction among communities hence reducing ongoing conflicts and building lasting peace. But media can either report negatively on political opponents or raise the legitimacy of those supporting peaceful negotiations (Wolfsfeld, 2004, p. 12).

According to Bratic (2006), if the media is often found to support that to violent conflicts. It should also have power to support forces to peace. Therefore, any discussion that examines the role of the media in promoting specific types of behavior must consider how the media affects audiences. The media is a public platform where citizens can exchange diverse issues and foster productive debates in the society. Essentially, the media is the contemporary equivalent of the Greek *agora* which was a public square in which the population gathered to discuss affairs of governance (Watson, 1998).

Public discourse, disseminated through the media, shapes the way governance is conducted and also influences policy-making institutional frameworks. Thus the media contributes to public good by articulating, defending, and protecting human rights. Thus the media has a duty to defend the public discourse and consensus against state oppression, and to highlight abuses of the law and human rights by corporate powers. This initiative is often referred to as that of the watching (ICHRP, 2002). However, caution is required in exercising the past to manipulate or inflame public opinion, especially during periods of conflicts or political ventures.

According to Manoff (1998), an independent media has an advantage which is not enjoyed by other media, in the sense that they are unrestricted in their capability of contributing to peace building. In addition, the functions of media ideally suited to peace building and conflict resolution. Because the traditional functions of the media to similar to those of conflict resolution, namely providing information to correct misperceptions; analyzing issues to frame the context of the conflict; identifying the interest of conflicting parties; defusing mistrust and providing outlets of self-expression.

This initiative is further explained by Hackley (2009), who compares the fields of journalism and conflict management and notes how each profession should be making more use of the other's expertise. Conflict management experts need to "tell their story" to the media so that the stories of successful conflict management actually reach the public. The author also argues that the emerging role of citizens as eyewitness and reporters of conflict through new media (such as mobile phone cameras which can upload photos and videos to social media) might provide a new avenue for peace building.

Similarly Reuben (2009), notes that the media could play a role in constructive escalation and de-escalation of conflict but notes that the very controversial "peace journalism" movement is rendered irrelevant when people find solutions to conflicts. For this reason, Gilboa (2009), asserts that rather than just looking at a set of phases and initiatives. In this case, the media can be involved in conflict prevention, management, resolution and reconciliation. He examines the functions and dysfunctions of media, news, interpretation, cultural transmission, entertainment and mobilization in light of these stages. He also came up with the issue of layers into his analysis of additional factors, including the level of media, type of media, type of conflict and level of conflict intensity. However, the media initiatives in peace building can very easily be reversed. The media can cause a war to become more aggressive (McChesney, 2002). Euwema and Verbeke (2009), write about the shocking initiatives that the media played in bring the Flemish-Walloon conflict in Belgium to surface.

Puddephatt (2006), opines that journalism should regularly be updated on contentious issues that are potential recipes for conflict both nationally and at the grassroots. A general knowledge of this will equip journalists to enable them to warn, advise or highlight the resultant conflict before they eventually break out without fueling them. It means the journalist should report accurately without concealing any aspect of a conflict. A journalist should thus be acquainted with various factors which influence public discourse in Kenya. For instance, the center for Conflict Resolution and the Media Peace Center in South Africa Started the Mediation Project for journalists, a series of workshops imparting conflict resolution skills to those in journalism as noted by (Bratic, 2006). At first, one of the founders, Melissa Baumann, stated that many of the journalists we invited to attend declined, totally unconvinced that learning about a managing conflict had anything to do with their profession. Their job was to “report the truth, the facts”, they said. It wasn’t the business of journalists to intervene. According to Baumann, this response was ‘highly ironic’, given that at that time the media in South Africa was engaged in a general propaganda war, with different media representing different sides (Rachwani, 2010).

In the late 1990s, the theory and practice surrounding the issue of ‘media and conflict’ took on a life of its own. “The cynics persist, of course, in great number’(Bratic, 2006): there are still “people working in the media who claim they must stay ‘objective’ at all costs and that any sort of advocacy compromises the standards of journalism.” However, a growing number of professional argue that the ‘media and conflict’ debate is not about taking sides in reporting conflict-except the side of peace and peace building – but about journalists already being a third party in any conflict they are covering. Consequently, the argument that there is a moral imperative to use that access constructively is steadily gaining ground.

4. Breaches of the Code of Conduct

The media has in many occasions been seen as a catalyst to conflict in cases where the code of conduct has been breached. The media is supposed to report fairly, and accurately for the benefit of the masses and yet making sure justice is not violated. At times, the issue of confidentiality where the report might generate further conflict or damage is an ethical dilemma for the media fraternity.

5. Accuracy and Fairness

According to Article 1 of the “Code of Conduct for the Practice of Journalism in Kenya” the fundamental objective of a journalist is to write a fair, accurate and unbiased story on matters of public interest. All sides of the story should be reported wherever possible; comments should be obtained from anyone who is mentioned in an unfavourable context.

A significant number of the articles monitored for this report, however, neglected these basic journalistic rules and only told one side of the story. More than a third

of all news reports referred to only one source and nearly one third presented only one viewpoint. Most of the one-source and one viewpoint news reports were published in The Star.

6. Provocative and alarming headlines

According to Article 1 and 11 of the Code of Conduct, provocative and alarming headlines should be avoided, especially when covering ethnic, religious and sectarian conflict. It is questionable whether the headline “North Eastern may break away Elmi” published by The Star on May 30, 2012 respected this principle. Although it clearly identifies the source of the allegation, Minister Mohamed Elmi, it puts forward both a sensational and an alarming message. The article covered a rally in Garissa and presented only one viewpoint, stating that the North-East of Kenya had been marginalized by the government and that its residents would soon “borrow a leaf from the MRC” (the article didn’t provide any further context or proof for this allegation).

7. Radio Salaam: 20.04.2012, 7.10 AM

The topic of the discussion on Radio Salaam on 20.04.2012 at 7.10 a.m. emerged from a 7.00 AM news item. The news report quoted Assistant Minister for Livestock, Dhadho Godana, who had asked the Government to expeditiously deal with the MRC issue. The presenter then asked the listeners to give their views and opinions on this statement. One male caller expressed the following views:

*“Nikidlianimbungewa Gable an’ienenamanenakweii nu
laitiwabungewetuwakinenakarnayeyesasisihuumwamhaowetuwapwanitut
aupatabilavurumanikwasababuwabungewetuwamekaakimiyakwasababuwa
naplotiwamechukua an serikaliitawany’ang’anya.
Sasasisitukin’yang’anwaraslimaliyetusisikatikamkoawapwani,
watuwerigiwafanyaokaziniwanaotoka Kenya,
Sisiwatuwapwanihatunaardhi,hatunakazimwishohatakibandayakufugapund
a. Hatunaarditizotewantechukuaniwatukutokabara.
Sisitwawaambiahiziardhinizababuzetu.Ikiwahuwatatupakwamilkonozetuis
indiotunajuasikuyakfo cha nyani”*

English Translation:

“I think the Gable MP has spoken the absolute truth. If our MPs spoke like him, we would secede without any problem. The problem is that our MPs have gone silent because they have grabbed public land and they fear the Government will reclaim it. We have been denied our ownership rights. The people who work in this region are from Kenya; we, the people of the Coast, don’t own any land, and we don’t have jobs or even land to graze our donkeys. Outsiders have grabbed our land and

we want to tell them that this is our ancestral land; if they don't surrender this land they will suffer the consequences”

8. Radio Rahema: 24.05.2012, 7.18 AM

The topic of the discussion on Radio Rahma on 24.05.2012 at 7.18 AM was based on comments made by Prime Minister Raila Odinga and Deputy Prime Minister Musalia Mudavadi. In separate rallies the two presidential aspirants had said that they would compel the government to accommodate MRC demands. Callers were asked to give their views and opinions on these statements. The presenter talked to a male caller who expressed the following views:

9. Social Media and Politics

The hope of Information and Communication Technologies for Development (ICTD) community is that new ICTs will help transform conflict and strengthen democracy. However, the societal impact of new networking media is a much more complex matter that. Social media's influence on politics can roughly be divided into three spheres. Actors that do not employ the Internet rob themselves of a highly useful tool for engaging in foreign policy and diplomacy (Gilboa, 2009). As a result, social media impacts politics on all levels of society from state legitimacy to individual citizens.

Globalization, market pressures and a crisis of political legitimacy now challenge institutionalized website of power like states. This is due to the prominent role of the fragmented mass media in producing culture. With the emergence of mass self-communication this has led to an increasing importance of network individualism (Castells, 2007).

There has also been a general change in the media environment toward a more fragmented audience. The emergence of social media as a location of power is partially to this change and has accelerated this process. This shift has resulted in the blurring of the border between entertainment and news, the 24 hour news cycle has given voice to non-mainstream politicians and broken down the binary oppositions between the media and everyday life which is what political communication was traditionally based (Castells, 2007).

The mass media have taken notice of this change and are growing their influence in these new networks, which has resulted in an increasing interaction between horizontal and vertical networks (ibid). This can be seen for example in the growing presence of tradition media in social media websites like Facebook. Corporate media are also enthusiastically investing in social media to ensure their continued success. The result of this process is today coexistence and interconnected of mainstream media, corporately owned new media and autonomous Internet websites (Castells, 2007).

In fact the intersexuality between the media and social media has developed so far that Castells has noted; the distinction between mass media and mass self-communication has analytical value, but only on the condition to add that the two modes of communication are interacting in the practice of communication, as communication technologies converge. 'Mass Communication actors are repositioning themselves by creating links to social media, which in turn is making the communication process less one-directional. Journalists 'activity uses the Internet as a source for stories, and vice versa, activists try to influence media coverage by creating online content to grab the eye of journalists (ibid).

The combination of cell phone technology with social media has created the phenomenon of citizen-journalism (Gilboa, 2009). This concept has its origins in individuals who started creating news content of stories that the media were unable to reach. Originally, these were primarily immediate events, where the media was not present. With the expansion of the Internet and the limitless space it has for publishing reports from citizen journalist, their reports now greatly outnumber those of traditional media (Tilley & Cockley, 2008). The key point here is the change in the structure of news production and empowerment of individuals. Citizen journalists create content to large audiences including the government, in opposition to the traditional one-way top-down function of mass media (Hattotuwa, 2009).

The scenario above has led to some discontent within the media community, but resulted in a sort of merge of the two forms of journalism. As one journalist working for BBC noted when major events occur, the public can offer us as much new information as we are able to broadcast to them. From now on, news coverage is a partnership (Sambrooks, 2005). Major news corporations like Reuters, AP, BBC, CNN and Al-Jazeera, just to name a few, are now actively encouraging palm-grown reports from anyone (Hattotuwa, 2009). Citizen journalism is therefore a prime example of the way new communication environment is diluting the Medias monopoly of information.

On the political level, politicians are using social networks for campaigning, as well as to diffuse any information they deem necessary (Castells, 2007). At times politicians post things on social media purely because of its efficiency in distributing a message quickly, but most of the time the aim is to grab the attention of the traditional media (ibid).

Five factor to be present in the creation of a smart mob. The first three (desire for communication, affordable communication devices and opportunities for instantaneous communication) are necessary for the creation of a social network and have therefore already been discussed above. What needs to be added are a common aim and a small time frame. The existence of a shared goal that the participating individuals can benefit from is what differentiates a smart mob from a social network. In addition, to motivate the users behind a cause a finite time frame

is needed, which is typically a period of time from hours to days. This will create the needed urgency and focus for the creation of a smart mob (Harmon & Metaxas, 2010).

Social media can also influence a conflict situation in less direct ways than through a smart mob, one of the first examples, of the negative effects of the freedom of communicating that the Internet enables, was apparent during the Balkan wars in the 1990s, which were accompanied by a flourish of often negative effects of the freedom of communicating that the internet enables, was apparent during the Balkan wars in the 1990s, which were accompanied by a flourish of often negative computer-based activity (DFID, 2000). The Internet connects people, but it also gives room for anonymity, which gives individuals the opportunity to dehumanize the other. Harmon and Metaxas (2010).

Unfortunately, like with media studies; there are few monitoring and evaluation tools that can effectively measure the impact of social media. Nevertheless, the impact is there as we have seen in the formation of smart mobs. Most of its influence is intersexual and gradual. For example social media can create a record of events and can expose wrongdoing like human rights abuses. These records are almost impossible to erase by powers to be. In addition, online activism is in many ways a safer form of social movement because it is difficult to break down or capture, due to its peer-to-peer architecture (Hattotuwa, 2009).

10. Methodology

The study used a purely qualitative approach because the researcher wanted to involve an interpretive and natural setting attempting to make sense of or interpret a phenomena in terms of meanings people bring with them. Therefore the researcher used grounded theory approach. The method allowed close and direct contact between the researcher and respondents through face to face interaction, and this further helped to promote firm basis for generalization of findings regarding the research problem and the development of a theoretical model. Interviews, Focused group discussions and observation were used to collect data. The data was categorized into meaning full units or segments or categories. Open coding was used in order to construct and interpret common themes or patterns for the qualitative data. The data was then uploaded to a computer software called NVIVO for analysis. The data was analyzed using open coding, Axial coding selection and selecting coding by the use of NVIVI version 8.

11. Findings

‘How has the media been a vehicle for conflict transformation in Mombasa County?’ was the third question that was asked.

Therefore, in a bid to solicit for the views of the respondents, the qualitative data results revealed that the media were used as tools for peace, as social cement for the multi-cultural and diverse coastal community in Mombasa County, and in a way, as a platform for launching of hatred barbs in Mombasa County – Kenya among its residents.

A sample of the below cases made the following revelations in light of media as peace tools:

‘The FM Radios have done their part in sensitizing them on the need for peaceful co – existence. Take a case of JCC that has a programme of Peace and Conflict Resolution every Sunday during day time...’

Additionally, this interviewee said:

‘For the case of this County, the media at one time took a strategic editorial decision not to report violence in the fear that it would fuel conflict. A unanimous decision by editors was made not to report the killing of 12 people, including several police officers, in Mombasa County on 3rd March 2013. Mombasa Republican Council secessionists were suspected, yet the incident did not make the headlines because of its potential to inflame tensions.’

For the case of being social cement, these respondents had these to say:

‘Since the media such as the FM Radio reach a wide array of people, our particular radio’s mission is built on the foundation that we objectively report what we have seen, and be a precursor for peace and tranquility in Mombasa County.’

The media were also seen to be tools for hatred. In line with this, the following made these observations:

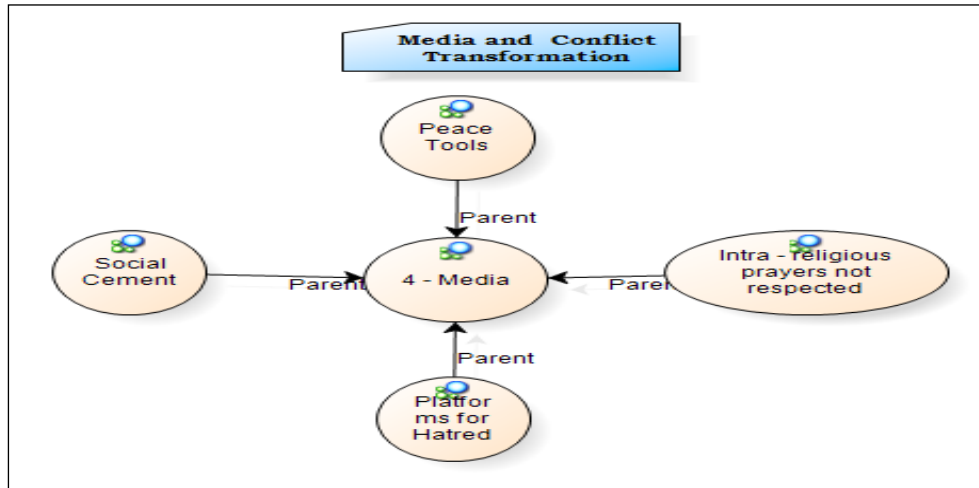
'Social media has become a vast platform for even people who hitherto had no measure of control over the use of the mainstream or traditional media in pursuing their own agenda or making their voices heard. With the death of Sheikh Aboud Rogo, some people used the social media to mobilize others to launch attacks of the Christians and their properties ...'

This was further reinforced by similar views that considered that considered the media to be tools of hatred, and animosity. The following may suffice:

*'According to Article 1 of the "Code of Conduct for the Practice of Journalism in Kenya" the fundamental objective of a journalist is to write a fair, accurate and unbiased story on matters of public interest. All sides of the story should be reported wherever possible; comments should be obtained from anyone who is mentioned in an unfavourable context. Most of these chaps, who work in these FM Radio stations, seem not to have mastered the basics of journalism profession. As a senior journalist, I covered the arrest of the youth radicals in Majengo by the national security. What was reported by my counterparts in some of these FM stations, were that security were rounding of the Muslim youth. This is a sheer neglect of basic journalistic rules manifested by only narrating one side of the story. Further, I was taken aback when one-source and one-viewpoint news reports were published in **'The Star'**.*

Figure 3 below, summarizes the extent to which the media have been vehicles for conflict transformation in Mombasa County – Kenya. The findings, argue that media have been used as instruments for peace, for unity, and at its extreme, as platforms for sowing of discontent and hatred among the people.

Figure 1: The Role of the Media in Conflict Transformation



The secondary data from the Mombasa Peace Appeal, (Wajibu, 1995) suggests that all people of Africa and their governments must be preoccupied by the continuous search for peace. This they suggest can be realized by creation of appropriate and environment for the fulfillment of the aspirations of people of Africa. This kind of powerful messages champion the cause of peace, denouncing armed conflict and particularly urging the people of Kenya to sign the Project PEACE 2000. This was disseminated through the media houses. This act can be argued as the media playing a critical role in conflict transformation. However, it must be noted, the media partnering with other stakeholders agitating for peace and conflict transformation such as in this case with the Institute of Cultural Affairs is critical in disseminating peace and conflict transformation messages to the communities.

12. Discussion

The results suggest that peace can be realized by creation of appropriate environment for the fulfillment of the aspirations of people of Africa and Mombasa in particular. This kind of powerful messages champion the cause of peace, denouncing armed conflict and particularly urging the people of Kenya to sign the Project PEACE 2000. This was disseminated through the media houses. This act can be argued as the media playing a critical role in conflict transformation.

Media does not have control on what it publishes once it is in the public especially

13. Conclusion

For the case of the influence of the media in conflict transformation, it was established that it plays a very immense duty. The media can either be a peace or an anarchy tool. In certain instances, it was used as a container for the fermentation of religious hatred, yet in other circumstances; it was being used as a vehicle for peaceful co – existence in the Mombasa County community. On this note, it can be appreciated that the media is a vital tool for conflict transformation.

14. Recommendation

It is recommended that content that is published on aired on media should not only consider content but the packaging of the same in order to avoid instigating conflicts.

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Part Two
Development Administration



Social Infrastructure and Rural Community Development in Katsina State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Traditionally, rural areas have had their own social, economic, and cultural circumstances distinct from those of their urban counterparts. Rural community development is increasingly gaining acceptance as an important instrument for mobilising resources and organising the rural populace to have cogent interests in providing for their wellbeing. The aim and objective of the research study was established the influence of rural community development and social infrastructure in rural areas of Katsina State, northern Nigeria. The methodology employed was quantitative instrument in nature. Data collected was mainly based on primary and secondary sources. The findings of the research study portray a positive relationship between social infrastructure and rural community development in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria with (0.384). This is significant enough to reject the null hypothesis since the computed sig value of 0.0000 is less than the popular at 0.05. The research study also revealed that since the sig value of (0.000) is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, meaning that rural community development is a significant predictor of social infrastructure in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria. R^2 of 0.147 showed that the rural community development explains 14.7% of the variation in social infrastructure in the case study area (Katsina state). Some of the recommendations of the research include efforts should be made to sustained the tempo in which rural community development would be used in achieving development at grassroots' level, more awareness should be made to rural populace on the provision of social infrastructure like health facilities, and increase in funding by the government and nongovernmental in the provision of social infrastructures at rural level.

Keywords: Social Infrastructure, Rural, Rural community Development, Katsina.

1. Introduction

Traditionally, rural areas have had their own social, economic, and cultural circumstances distinct from those of their urban counterparts. Certain patterns of economic activity and low population density characterize rural regions, including agricultural communities, fishing communities and logging communities, for example. These unique ways of life in rural areas, tied closely with the natural environment, have fostered close social relationships and attachments to place among local residents (Chang, 2010). Rural community development is increasingly gaining acceptance as an important instrument for mobilising resources and organising the rural populace to have cogent interests in providing for their wellbeing. Rural community development has long and diverse history in the world over. It involves many players and groups, but empowering residents and engaging them in the development process are the heart of rural community development. Before the onset of colonial administration, communities across Africa and Nigeria in particular had employed communal efforts as the mechanism for mobilizing community resources to provide improvement and functional facilities in the social, political and economic aspects of their lives. Communal labour was employed in constructing homesteads, clearing farm lands, roads or path way, construction of bridges and for the provision of other infrastructural facilities required by the people. Some of the relevant institutions were the age-grades and the village councils (Akpomuvie, 2010). With the Colonialist establishing themselves into Africa and Nigerian areas in particular, Egbe (2014), maintained that the colonial office in Britain was first conceived the idea of rural community development in 1920s. It was taken as a special development model for the rural area of its dependent territories. Its main objectives were to compensate for the lapses of the conventional school system for progressive evolution of the people to self government in the context of social and economic changes.

Akpomuvie (2010) further asserted that rural community development became a national imperative in Nigeria because of the following reasons. First, the proportion of the national population residents in the rural areas of Nigeria has been since increased 1963 census, which placed the figure at 80.7% of the national population. By 1985, this proportion went down to 70.13% and by 1990 it further dropped to 69%. According to GeoHide (2014) the rural population in Nigeria stood at 95,842,932 representing 52.2%. It is therefore clear that despite our high level of urbanization, Nigeria remains largely rural. Secondly, is the realization that a dangerous gap exists in the development levels of both the urban and rural areas which threatens the political and social stability of the country. Hence the development of a country cannot be completed with the singular act of developing the urban areas at the detriment of the rural areas which supply the urban areas with food and labour. Disheartening as it may sound and seem, the rural areas are characterized by pervasive and endemic poverty, manifested by widespread hunger, malnutrition, poor health, general lack of access to formal education, liveable housing and various forms of social and political solution compared with their

urban counterparts. Thirdly, it is being recognized that the problems of our urban centres cannot be solved unless those of the rural areas are solved, or at least contained.

Katsina State has an area of 23,938 sq. Km. It is located between latitudes 11°08'N and 13°22'N and longitudes 6°52'E and 9°20'E. The state is bounded by Niger Republic to the north, by Jigawa and Kano States to the east, by Kaduna State to the South and by Zamfara State to the West. The state is largely rural, agrarian, majority of its people live in the rural areas. Rural community development is an important aspect for the development of the area especially now when present economic reality in the country has made the people to find a lasting solution to the social and economic problems of their communities, through communal efforts.

2. Literature Review

Van et al (2000) asserted that rural community development remains essentially contested, “It is not possible to construct any comprehensive and generally accepted definition of rural community development. The notion of rural community development (emerges) through socio-political struggle and debate”. United Nations in Biggs (1999) maintained that rural community development is the process where people’s efforts are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities and communities are integrated into the life of the nation enabling them to contribute fully to national progress. World Bank, (2007) “rural community development can make a powerful contribution to four critical goals of poverty reduction, wider shared growth, household, national, and global food security and sustainable natural resource management.” Anyanwu (2002) contends that in most African countries rural community development has depended significantly on voluntary cooperative efforts. This follows a traditional trait that clearly underscores the virtue of self-reliance. This explains the emerging trend in rural community development, which sees it as an important point of take off for better living. The emphasis is to involve groups of people in planned programmes from which they may gain skills that would enable them to cope more successfully with the problems of their everyday life. Rural community development is thus “development on the basis of a country’s (region) own resources, involving its populations based on the potentials of its cultural values and traditions” (Galtung, 1980). In his opinion Obinne (1991) in Emeh (2012) perceived rural community development as a strategy involving creating and widening opportunities for (rural) individuals to realize full potential through education and share in decision and action which affect their lives. He further maintained that it as efforts to increase rural output and create employment opportunities and root out fundamental or extreme cases of poverty, diseases and ignorance. The constructs reviewed under rural community development include

community leadership, community participation and community mobilization for human and material resources.

On the other hand Wasley (2009) asserted that social infrastructure are those community facilities, services and networks that help individuals, families, groups and communities meet their social needs, maximise their potential for development, and enhance community wellbeing. Social infrastructure includes, universal facilities and services such as education, training, health, welfare, social services, open space, recreation and sport, safety and emergency services, learning, religious, arts and cultural facilities, civic and democratic institutions, and community meeting places, lifecycle targeted facilities and services, such as those for children, young people and older people e.g. early childhood centres and retirement villages, targeted facilities and services for groups with special needs, such as families, people with disabilities and people from culturally diverse backgrounds. As economic infrastructure, such as roads, energy and ports supports the economy; social infrastructure supports the wellbeing of families and communities especially in terms of health facilities. The construct reviewed under health facilities include dispensary, clinic, general hospital, drugs and health employees.

3. Objective of the Study

To determine the relationship between Social Infrastructure and Rural Community Development in rural areas of Katsina State, Northern Nigeria.

4. Methodology

The research study employed quantitative research approach. It is quantitative because of variables are numerical in nature (variable are measured in number). The research population, Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1972) maintained that a “population” consist of all the subjects you want to study. A population comprises all the possible cases (persons, objects, events) that constitute a known whole. However, a population can be seen as the total of all the individuals who have certain characteristics and are of interest to a researcher. The research population are all rural people in the nine (9) local government areas of the state consisting of 1,517,781 million people (FGNOG 2009). The research study adopts Krejcie and Morgan formula which states that for any sample size of a population greater than 10000 Morgan formula be adopted. The sample size was drawn from a table developed by Krejcie and Morgan, (1970) in Amin (2005).

Table 1: Respondents of the Study

| Local Government Areas | Total Target population | | Sample Size | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------|------------------|----------------------|
| | Target Population | Sample Size | Rural Households | Government Officials |
| Bakori | 149,516 | 38 | 27 | 11 |
| Faskari | 194,400 | 49 | 34 | 15 |
| Jibiya | 167,435 | 42 | 29 | 13 |
| Kaita | 182,405 | 46 | 32 | 14 |
| Kankara | 243,259 | 62 | 43 | 19 |
| Kurfi | 116,700 | 30 | 21 | 09 |
| Mashi | 171,070 | 43 | 30 | 13 |
| Sandamu | 136,944 | 35 | 25 | 10 |
| Zango | 156,052 | 39 | 27 | 12 |
| Total | 1,517,781 | 384 | 268 | 116 |
| Target Population | 1,517,781 | | Sample Size 384 | |

Source: Researchers' Sample Computation (2015).

5. Data Analysis

Table 2: Percentages Distribution of Respondents:

| Respondent Gender | Items | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|
| | Male | 237 | 61.7 |
| | Female | 147 | 38.3 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| Respondents Age | 20 - 25years | 106 | 27.6 |
| | 26 - 30 years | 70 | 18.2 |
| | 31 - 35years | 86 | 22.4 |
| | 36 - 40years | 68 | 17.7 |
| | 41 - 45 years | 54 | 14.1 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| House hold Size | 0 – 5 | 252 | 65.6 |
| | 6 – 10 | 86 | 22.4 |
| | 11 -15 | 24 | 6.2 |
| | 16 – 20 | 22 | 5.7 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| Marital Status | Single | 138 | 35.9 |
| | Married | 246 | 64.1 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| Educational Qualification | Primary Education | 1 | .3 |
| | Secondary Education | 104 | 27.1 |
| | Tertiary Education | 279 | 72.7 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| Occupation | Farming | 73 | 19.0 |
| | Civil Servant | 207 | 53.9 |
| | Trading | 104 | 27.1 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |
| Nationality | Nigerian | 384 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 384 | 100.0 |

Source: *Field study, 2015*

Findings from the bio data of the respondents indicate that majority of the respondents are males, also majority of the respondents are middle aged and household heads. Similarly, majority of the respondents are literate, civil servants and farmers respectively. This showed that participation and mobilization as well as leadership qualities can be expected from the respondents of the research study.

Table 3: Interpretation of the Level of variables using Likert Scale

| Mean Range | Response Mode | Interpretation |
|-------------|------------------------|----------------|
| 3.26 - 4.00 | Strongly Agree (SA) | Very High |
| 2.50 - 3.26 | Agree (A) | High |
| 1.76 - 2.49 | Disagree (D) | Low |
| 1.00 - 1.75 | Strongly Disagree (SD) | Very Low |

Table 4: Correlations

| | | Social infrastructure | Rural Community Development |
|---------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Social Infrs. | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .384** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| | N | 384 | 384 |
| Rural Com D | Pearson Correlation | .384** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |
| | N | 384 | 384 |

Field Study, 2015

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the table four (4) indicates that there was a positive relationship between rural community development and social infrastructure in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria with (0.384). This is significant enough to reject the null hypothesis since the computed sig value of 0.0000 is less than the popular 0.05. The research study therefore concluded that there is a significant relationship between the social infrastructure and rural community development in Katsina State, Northern Nigeria.

Table 5: Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .384a | .147 | .145 | .45115 |

Field Study, 2015

a. Predictors: (Constant),social infrastructure

Table 6: ANOVA^b

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 13.419 | 1 | 13.419 | 65.931 | .000 ^a |
| | Residual | 77.750 | 382 | .204 | | |
| | Total | 91.169 | 383 | | | |

a. Predictors: (Constant), social infras.

Field Study, 2015

b. Dependent Variable: Rural Comm Devt

Table 7: Coefficients

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. |
|-------|----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 1.938 | .110 | | 17.678 | .000 |
| | Infrastructure | .355 | .044 | .384 | 8.120 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: rural.com.devt

Since the sig value (0.000) is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, meaning that rural community development is a significant predictor of social infrastructure in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria. R^2 of 0.147 showed that social infrastructure explained 14.7% of the variation in rural community development in the case study area (Katsina state).

6. Discussion of Research findings

Community leadership, community participation and community mobilization for human and material resources in rural areas of Katsina state was efficient. This agreed with Bell and Evert, (2007) study which indicates that many rural communities today, local leaders are concluding that if economic and rural community development is to occur, it is their responsibility to make it happen. In support of the assertion also, Ozor and Nwakwo (2008) point out those local leaders in rural community development programmes or projects cannot be undermined. These have also agreed with the assertion of Scheffert (2007) which states successful communities have strong leadership. A number of state and national studies have documented the connection between successful communities and leadership practices (Wall & Luther, 2005; Green, Flora, Flora & Schmidt, 1998; Flora, 1999; National Commission on Civic Renewal, 1998; Mathews, 1996). The pattern is clear that successful communities are more intentional about. Building

and transitioning leadership over time, allowing and supporting many people to be in leadership functions including women, young people, and newcomers to the community and so on, having places and spaces for new leaders, emerging leaders, mid-career leaders and retiring leaders to learn and contribute, utilizing the assets of the local people to create a better community, focusing on leadership for the whole community as well as leadership within the parts of the community (business sector, organizations and so on).

The research study also found social infrastructure (health facilities in particular) was low in the area. To support the findings of the research study Dandago (2003) maintained that couple with the fact that health services (social infrastructural facilities in particular) in the zone are so weak, should be enough for observers to understand why poor social infrastructure in the zone is on the low side. According a technical report by FMOH (2011), maintained that since 2007 government budgetary allocation for health of 6.5% was still far below the target set in the Abuja Declaration of 2001. Three quarters of total health expenditure is borne by households throughout of pocket payments for healthcare. The cost of care, particularly in the case of obstetric emergency, is one of the most important barriers to healthcare use. Local and state governments also demonstrate a critical lack of accountability, as local governments allocate resources with little influence and oversight from the state. From documented evidence obtained show that Katsina State government has only 150 Doctors, 480 Midwives, 981 Nurses for a population of almost 6 million people (Katsina State Ministry of Health, 2010). Attitudes of health officials towards patients, most health employees or officials engaged in attitudes that drive away patients from government health centres especially in the rural areas of the state

The research study correlates the variables (Social Infrastructure and Rural Community Development). From the data correlated using Pearson linear correlation coefficient it shows a positive relationship between social infrastructure and rural community development in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria with (0.384). This is significant enough to reject the null hypothesis (which said there is no relationship between Social Infrastructure and Rural Community Development in Katsina State, Northern Nigeria) since the computed sig value of 0.0000 is less than the popular at 0.05. The research study concludes that there is a significant relationship or influence between the dependent and independent variables (rural community development and social infrastructure in Katsina State, Northern Nigeria).

The Regression showed sig value of (0.000) was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, meaning that rural community development is a significant predictor of social infrastructure in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria. R^2 of 0.147 showed that the rural community developments explained 14.7% of the variation in social infrastructure in the case study area (Katsina state, northern Nigeria). This is important as rural community development play an integral role in any

development of social infrastructure. There is no doubt whatsoever, the research study has added new knowledge or has established a new contribution of knowledge in the field of social infrastructure and rural community development in Katsina State, Northern Nigeria. How? Governments, researchers, policy makers have now gotten data regarding the contributions of rural community development, and social infrastructure in the case study area.

7. Conclusion

Social infrastructure (health facilities in particular) in Katsina state, Northern Nigeria is ironically meagre and efforts made to improve them have not yielded desired results. This is as a result of many factors such as poor funding on the part of the government. Another reason is attitudes of the community's, towards provision of such facilities, households, associations, practitioners and other development partners in the area are not fully mobilise and engaged in the provisions of such facilities. The research study would stress the value of genuine community health sector partnerships to develop health services for rural communities in Katsina State, Northern Nigeria in collaboration with rural community development associations. However, governments, practitioners, rural community development associations and health systems in the area must recognise and accept that provision social infrastructure (health facilities) requires a long-term and consistent investment.

8. Recommendations

Provision of adequate dispensaries at all levels should be improved especially in the rural areas of the state. When rural community development associations, rural households should be enlighten on the need to have infrastructure (social). These would along way to provide a healthy society; a healthy society equally means a healthy nation with economic prosperity. This can be done through the use of rural community development associations, community groups, age-grades and so on in rural areas of the state.

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Bureaucratization and Reform Agenda in Nigeria, 1999-2007

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Abstract. The government of any nation plays the crucial role of policy formulation and implementation for the various developmental programmes. The government achieves these objectives through its various organs in the public service. In the modern world, the bureaucracy or the Civil Service is a major organizational institution within which policy making, implementation and evaluation takes place.

In spite of the immense resources, the great potentials and the many efforts by government to develop the economy of the country and empower its people, the performance in both the political and economic spheres has nevertheless been below expectation. It therefore makes the re-assessment of values by way of reforms imperative. Reform programmes or Reform agenda and policies of government, aim at making the public service not only responsive to developmental needs of the country but also to enable it operate optimally and efficiently.

However bureaucratization is only an ideal model, which does not exist in reality. It is the conception of the mind, which has serious draw back as demonstrated in the way and Manner Reform Agenda are pursued. For reform agenda to achieve the desired objectives, all stakeholders should be involved in their formulation and implementation. The Bureaucrats, who are the civil servants who represent the government, must demonstrate seriousness and political will so that Reform Agenda drawn up by themselves will not become just a mirage or worse still a mockery of the entire system.

1. Introduction

Nigeria has had fifty six years of existence since independence and during this period, she has experienced seven military coups. Interspersed with three civilian regimes, and political structures have been increased from three Regions to 36 States and the Federal Capital territory. This created ample opportunities for inexperienced civil servants to rise to high positions, the effect of which lowered

the standard and efficiency of the Service. The system of government was also changed from the Parliamentary system inherited from the colonial masters, to a Presidential system, which is operating *pari passu* with inherited structure of the Parliamentary System.

The Public Service has therefore been subjected to very many reforms as a result of:

- (i) Changes in government
- (ii) Changes in government system
- (iii) Changes in government policies
- (iv) Executive pronouncements
- (v) Dictates from external organizations (World Bank, IMF, MNCs, etc)
- (vi) The need to make the Service more responsive and effective.

2. Theoretical Framework

An academic discuss of this nature will be weak and deficient without an appropriate theoretical foundation upon which to build. This paper will therefore be hinged on the foundation of the bureaucratic school of thought. The concept of bureaucracy aims at explaining the power tandem in organized situations.

Max Weber, a German sociologist was the first social scientist who made a systematic study of bureaucracy, he regarded bureaucracy as a universal social phenomenon, and the means of carrying “community action” over into rationally ordered “societal action” and its characteristics of ideal type from functional point of view. He propounded it and made it popular.

Among Weber’s works on administration, his theories on domination, leadership and legitimacy merit special mention. He prescribed three states of legitimacy each with a different type of “apparatus” to justify the power of command, they are: legal authority, traditional authority and charismatic authority. Of the three types of authority Weber preferred the legal type of authority because of the inherent rationalities in it. It emphasizes efficiency and achievement. He also maintains that legal type of authority or domination alone is suitable for the modern governments and Weber designed his model of bureaucracy keeping the “legal-rationality” in mind. He further maintains that bureaucracy is the ideal type of administration. To him bureaucracy is “an administrative body of appointed officials”. The bureaus or public offices, in some form or other, were always adjuncts of organized governments in all over the world.

Marshall, E. Dimock (1960) identified bureaucracy with institutions and large scale organizations in society. For him, “Bureaucracy is the state of society in which institutions overshadow individuals and simple family relationships; stage of development in which division of labour, specialization, organization, hierarchy, planning and regimentation of large groups of individuals either by voluntary or

involuntary methods, are the order of the day.....Bureaucracy simply institutionalism written large. It is not some foreign substance which has been infused into the life-blood of an institution; it is merely the accentuation characteristics found in all. It is a matter of degree, of the combination of components, and of the relative emphasis given to them.”

John .A. Vieg (1968) says, in free translation it means ‘desk government’ or management by bureaus. “It denotes the sum total of the personnel apparatus and procedures by which an organization manages its work and accomplishes its purposes. The organization may be public or private, governmental, commercial, educational, ecclesiastical; but if it is of any size, it must be a bureaucracy, in the sense”.

Marshal W. Mayer and Peter .M. Blau (1966), says bureaucracy as “organization designed to accomplish large scale administrative tasks by systematically coordinating the work of many individuals”.

Bata .K. Dey, (1978), from the structural aspect, it is value neutral – “neither hero nor villain”, it can be treated as a phenomenon associated with any large-scale, complex organization. From the behavioural angle, bureaucracy may be thought of as showing some functional or pathological symptoms. From the achievemental or purposive point of view, it can be regarded as an organization that maximizes efficiency in administration or an institutionalized method of organized social conduct in the interests of administrative efficiency”.

3. Major reforms embarked upon by successive government

Some of the major reforms embarked upon by successive governments were:

- (i) Morgan Salaries and Wages Commission 1963
- (ii) Way Panel on Public Service Management and Salary Administration 1968
- (iii) Elwood Grading Team 1969
- (iv) Adebo Commission 1973
- (v) Public Service Review Commission (Udoji Report) 1974
- (vi) Study Team on Structure, Staffing and Operations of the Nigerian Civil Service (Philips Report) 1985
- (vii) Presidential Task Force on the Implementation of the Civil Service Reforms (Admiral Koshoni Report) 1988
- (viii) Promulgation of Decree No. 43 of 1988
- (ix) Review Panel on Civil Service Reforms (Ayide Report) 1995
- (x) Abrogation of Decree No. 43 of 1988 (Akhigbe Committee 1997)

Of these reforms, the Public Service Review Commission of 1974 (Udoji Report) was the most comprehensive, in that, it not only reviewed salaries, but also introduced measure to increase productivity and make the Service more efficient.

4. The Reform initiated:

- (i) The establishment of the Code of Ethics which every employee in the Civil Service must subscribe to.
- (ii) The introduction of a result-oriented practice which emphasizes concrete and measurable achievement in terms of resources invested.
- (iii) The introduction of three new management principles of Project Management (PM), Management by Objectives (MBO) and Programme of Performance Budgeting System (PPBS)
- (iv) The replacement of Confidential Reporting system with the Open Reporting system, based on agreed targets and regular dialogues between the reportee and reporting officer.
- (v) The institution of the merit system as a basis for reward in the Service
- (vi) Massive training programmes for senior officers, in the Service, in order to enhance their executive capacity
- (vii) The introduction of a Unified Grading and Salary Structure (UGSS) for all staff in the Civil Service including Parastatals.
- (viii) A system of continuous job evaluation and grading, in order to restore an equitable system of equal pay, for substantially equal work.
- (ix) The establishment of implementation agency that would review the service on a continuous and regular basis, and
- (x) Wages and salary increases

Unfortunately, these measures, lofty as they were, were not fully implemented. Only the wages and salary increases were implemented and this had two major negative effects on the Public Service:

- (i) It added more income into the pockets of public servants without due regard to productivity.
- (ii) The increased pay fuelled inflation and as such, public servants were worse off than before.

The most devastating reform to the Service however, was the Decree No 43 of 1988 resulting from the Dotun Phillips Report, and the Koshoni Report.

5. Reforms in Nigeria's Fourth Republic (1999-2007)

The Obasanjo regime came to power in 1999 with the political programme and manifesto of the people Democratic Party. According to professor A.A. Ujo in his book "Theory and practice of Development Administration" the manifesto was simply a document to satisfy the requirements of the Independent National Electoral Commission. Indeed, the first term (1999-2003), was an experimental period when the government toyed with many programmes. The programme of the regime became clearly focused at the beginning of the second term.

This economic reform package embarked upon was based on the 2001 Kuru Declaration, a vision which former president Olusegun Obasanjo had for Nigeria. It states that government hopes to:

“Build a truly great African democratic country (Nigeria), politically united, integrated and stable, economically prosperous, socially organized, with open opportunity for all, and responsibility from all to become the catalyst of (African) Renaissance and making adequate, all embracing contributions, sub-regionally, regionally and globally”.

Government plans to achieve this mission through the strategy called “THE NATIONAL ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY (NEEDS) at the Federal level; THE STATE ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY” (SEEDS) and THE LOCAL ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY (LEEDS) at the State and Local government level respectively.

The goals of NEEDS, SEEDS, and LEEDS differ from previous strategies for the development of Nigeria, and included the following:

- (i) Wealth creation,
- (ii) Employment generation
- (iii) Poverty Reduction
- (iv) Value — Re-orientation

6. Public Sector Reforms

a. Service Delivery (SERVICOM)

The existence and functioning of a nation and its government, is predicated on the need for orderly human interaction, and the provision of a systematic mode of delivery for a wide array of services, ranging from purely governance services to the provision of a variety of social services. Laws, regulations and practices evolve to provide definite guides for human and governmental conduct.

The state provides a social framework that aims at satisfying the social wants, claim, demands and expectations involved in the existence of a civilized society, by giving effect to, as much as possible, with the least sacrifice, a generally acceptable ordering of human conduct.

Democratic societies create a number of rights for citizens, and in return, certain basic duties and responsibilities are expected from the citizen to the state. A symbiotic relationship is thus created where there are legitimate expectations, and citizens expect their government to deliver a minimum basket of goods and services effectively and efficiently. In such societies, government is mainly funded by citizen taxes, and in return, they demand accountability and a transparent administration of state resources.

This background provides the rationales of high quality service expectation by the citizens, and the rendering of same, and continuous attempts to improve service delivery on the part of government.

b. Code of Conduct bureau

The code of conduct Bureau is set up to establish a high standard of morality in the conduct of Government business through the enforcement of the Code of Conduct for Public officers.

Today, Nigerians are in agreement that we need to rid ourselves of the cankerworm called corruption, and concretize ourselves towards acceptable behaviour. In reality, no benefits accrue from unethical practices, which lead to corruption. The depth of decay which corruption has brought to our National life is so frightening and disturbing that most Nigerians, be it beneficiaries, or victims of corruption, are tired of this phenomenon. The weight of corruption on our National psyches is so heavy that we are beginning to crack under it.

The relief usually is that, when one gets to such a breaking point, the options are either to throw off the weight, or get swallowed up in the debris.

Cap. C 15, LFN 2004 gives the Bureau the mandate to “establish and maintain a high standard of morality in the conduct of Government business and to ensure that the actions and behaviour of public officers conform to the highest standards of public morality and accountability.

To implement this mandate, section 3, part I of the Third schedule of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria gives it the power to:

- (i) Receive declarations by public officers made under paragraph 11 of part I of the Fifth schedule of the 1999 Constitution;
- (ii) Examine the declarations in accordance with the requirements of the Code of Conduct or any law;
- (iii) Retain custody of such declarations and make them available for inspection by any citizen of Nigeria on such terms and conditions as the National assembly may prescribe;
- (iv) Ensure compliance with and, where appropriate, enforce the provisions of the Code of Conduct or any law relating thereto;
- (v) Receive complaints about non-compliance with or breach of the provisions of the Code of Conduct or any law in relation thereto investigate the compliant and, where appropriate, refer such matters to the Code of Conduct Tribunal;
- (vi) Appoint, promote, dismiss and exercise disciplinary control over the staff of the Code of Conduct Bureau in accordance with the provisions of an act of the Nation Assembly enacted on that behalf;
- (vii) Carry out such other functions as may be conferred upon it by the National Assembly.

c. The Contributory Pension Scheme

Against the backdrop of an estimated N2 trillion deficit, arbitrary increases in salaries and pensions as well as poor administrative structures, the need for pension reform is glaring. As is typical worldwide, the Pay As You Go defined benefit scheme that is currently operated in Nigeria is burdened with a lot of problems and has increasingly become unsustainable.

This led to signing into law of the Pension Reform Act 2004 and the setting up of the National Pension Commission (PENCOM).

The key objectives of the new scheme are to:

- (i) Ensure that every person who has worked in either the public or private sector receives his retirement benefits as at when due.
- (ii) Assist individuals by ensuring that they save to cater for their livelihood during old age
- (iii) Establish a uniform set of rules and regulations for the administration and payment of retirement benefits in both the public and private sectors
- (iv) Stem the growth of outstanding pension liabilities

d. Debt Management Office of Nigeria (DMON)

The debt management office of Nigeria was set up for the purpose of providing one stop shop of cleaning all Nigeria government debts at all levels. The office came into existence by the act of the government.

It has the vision of transforming Nigeria's debt portfolio into an asset for growth and development.

e. Monetization

This policy will have far-reaching impact on Government planning, budgeting and discipline, and will positively impact on our national value system and ethics. The ramifications of the impact of monetization as a public policy reform can be listed as follows:

- (i) Monetization Policy will enable Government to get the true picture of what it costs to maintain a Political Office Holder, or Public Servant, in office and therefore lead to more realistic budgeting and budget implementation; it is the most transparent avenue for the disbursement of (remuneration,) and fringe benefits from employers to employees;
- (ii) Monetization will curb the excesses of public officers, as Government will no longer provide chauffeur-driven cars to its officials. For example, unlike in the past, Ministers are now to drive to office and back in their personal cars, with their personal drivers; also the use of pilot vehicles and sirens by political office holders has been discontinued in Abuja.

- (iii) The policy will correct the wrong public perception of Government utilities such as telephone, electricity and others, as limitless resources which hitherto were used without caution.
- (iv) The policy will stop the practice of providing and furnishing official accommodation for public servants including political office holders, the only exception being the President, the Vice President, the Senate President, the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the House of Representative and the Chief Justice of the federation.
- (v) Unauthorized journeys at Government expense will be minimized.
- (vi) The policy will ensure equity in the allocation of scarce resources.
- (vii) Public Office will develop and imbibe a culture of discipline and, frugal use of public utilities.
- (viii) The Policy will encourage public officers to own vehicles, houses and furniture, thereby assisting them to plan better for their retirement, and

Overall, the Monetization Policy will eliminate the trauma of transition from public life to private, which sadly, has resulted in many Public Servants dying shortly after retirement.

f. Due Process (Budget Monitoring and Implementation)

This is a process government use to ensure maximum utilization of the limited resources. Due process encourages the process of bidding, competition, uninflated contracts to ensure that we get the right value for tax payers' money.

7. Privatization and Liberalization

a. Bureau of Public Enterprises:

Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) is the secretariat of the National Council on Privatization (NCP) and is charged with the overall responsibility of implementing the policies and decision of the Council. The function of the Bureau as provided for in the Act includes:

- (i) Implementing the Council's policy on privatization and commercialization.
- (ii) Preparing public enterprises approved by the Council for privatization and commercialization.
- (iii) Advising Council on further public enterprises that may be privatized or commercialized.
- (iv) Advising Council on capital restructuring needs of the public enterprises to be privatized.
- (v) Ensuring the update of accounts of all commercialized enterprises for financial discipline;
- (vi) Making recommendations to the Council on the appointment of Consultants, advisers, investment bankers, issuing houses stockbrokers,

- solicitors, trustees, accountants and other professionals required for the purpose of either privatization or commercialization;
- (vii) Ensuring the success of the privatization and commercialization exercise through effective post transactional performance monitoring and evaluation
 - (viii) Providing secretarial support to the Council, and Carrying out such other duties and responsibilities as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Council and its respective committees.

b. Monetary Policy Reform

Following the prolonged use of direct controls, the pervasive government intervention in the financial system and the resultant stifling of competition and resources misallocation, a comprehensive economic restructuring programme was embarked upon in Nigeria in 1986 with increased reliance on market force. In line with this orientation, financial sector reforms were initiated to enhance competition, reduce distortion in investment decisions and evolve a sound and more efficient financial system. The reforms which focused on structural changes, monetary policy, interest rate administration and foreign exchange management, encompass both financial market liberalization and institutional building in the financial sector. The broad objectives of financial sector reform include:

- (i) Removal of controls on interest rates to increase the level of savings and improve locative efficiency
- (ii) Elimination of non-price rationing of credit to reduce misdirected credit and increase competition
- (iii) Adoption of indirect monetary management in place of the imposition of credit ceiling on individual banks
- (iv) Enhancing of institutional structure and supervision
- (v) Strengthening the money and capital markets through policy changes and distress resolution measures; and
- (vi) Improving the linkages between formal and informal financial sectors.

c. Bank Consolidation

On July 6, 2004, the Central Bank of Nigeria announced to the nation a major reform program that would transform the banking landscape of the country. The main thrust of the 13-point reform agenda was the prescription of a minimum shareholder's funds of N25 million for a Nigerian deposit money bank not later than December 31, 2005. The banks were expected to shore up their capital through the injection of fresh funds where applicable, but were most importantly encouraged to enter into merger/acquisition arrangements with other relatively small banks thus taking the advantage of economies of scale of reduce cost of doing business and enhance their competitiveness locally and internationally.

The program has resulted in the shrinkage of the number of banks from 89 to 25 through merger/acquisition involving 76 banks which altogether account for 93.5% of the deposit share of the market. The capital Market has also received a boost with a total of N406 billion raised so far and N360 billion accepted by the CBN including foreign capital inflow of US \$654million and L161,993. The general banking public is therefore advised to henceforth transact their banking business with only these 25 banks.

8. Transparency and Anti-Corruption

a. The Independent Corrupt Practice and other Related Offences (ICPC) is the apex body saddled by law with the responsibility to fight corruption and other related offences in Nigeria. It was set up and empowered by the corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Act 2000 ICPC was inaugurated on the 29th of September 2000 with a Chairman and 12 Members. Section 3(14) of the Act ensures the independence of the Commission as not being subject to the direction or control of any person or authority.

Nigeria has been stigmatized by the international community as the second most corrupt country in the world. For three consecutive years; 2000, 2001 and 2002, it has maintained that unenviable position. The rating came up as a consequence of several failed attempts in the past to wipe out corruption or reduce it to a tolerable level in the polity.

From the Jaji Declaration in 1977 by Olusegun Obasanjo; the Ethical Revolution of Shagari in 1981-1983; War Against Indiscipline by Buhari in 1984; National Orientation Movement by Babangida in 1986; Mass Mobilization for Social Justice by Babangida in 1987; War Against Indiscipline and Corruption in 1996 by Abacha; to the Anti-Corruption Act 2000 again by President Olusegun Obasanjo, this is the first time in the series of several efforts to fight corruption that the attempt has the force of law with severe sanctions.

b. Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC)

The preponderance of economic and financial crimes like Advance Free Fraud (419), Money Laundering, etc has had severe negative consequences on Nigeria, including decreased Foreign Direct Investments in the country and tainting of Nigeria's national image. The menace of these crimes and the recognition of the magnitude and gravity of the situation led to the establishment of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC). The Commission has high-level support from the Presidency, the Legislature and key security and law enforcement agencies in Nigeria. The legal instrument backing the Commission is the EFCC Establishment Act 2002.

9. Effects of Civil Service Reform on Reform of Other Sectors

The primary responsibility of government is to regulate and control all aspect of human activities within its territory and to provide welfare and security for all her

citizens. It is the civil service that manages the implementation of all government policies and programmes. If the civil service is efficient and innovative in administering the affairs of government things will work well in any nation. It can be argued that the pace of progress in any nation and the quality of its development management is a reflection of the quality of its public service and especially the bureaucracy.

Any national reform that will work must start with public service Reform. The two main enemies in Nigeria are corruption and mediocrity. Both are manifest in both the public and the private sector, nevertheless, the solution to the problems must start in the Civil Service because it is the civil service that regulates the private sector and not the other way round. The effective reform of the civil service will therefore result in reducing corruption and inefficiency which will result in efficient utilization of Public resources which will produce better infrastructure for the growth of other sectors. Reform in Civil Service will reduce corruption in the police force and other security agencies which will result in security of lives and properties with attendant positive impact on the social and economic life of the public. Reform in public service will reduce mediocrity and inefficiency which will have direct impact on the private sector resulting in the overall improvement of the quality of service in both sectors.

However, it must be pointed out that there is no tangible improvement in the quality of transparency, accountability and efficiency in the public service. Although appropriate institutions have been created to achieve this, there is still rampant corruption in the Public service as evidenced by scandals in such institutions as PTDF, Power Holding Company of Nigeria, NNPC, Ajaokuta Steel and many other embarrassing cases. It is hoped that reform institutions like EFCC, ICPC and, Bureau of Budget Implementation and project monitor (Due Process Office), SERVICOM and such others will soon result in the improvement of the quality of Public Service.

10. Conclusion

“Bureaucracy” or “Bureaucratization” appears to have acquired an opprobrious meaning, a negative connotation. It is associated with inefficiency, lack of initiative, unintelligent rigidity in the approach of human problems, undue fussiness and bossiness on the part of officials and downright stubbornness. Yet bureaucracy is an inseparable element of administration. Bureaucracy and bureaucratic practices are functionally necessary for the operation of a large administrative apparatus.

Since the government is still the main actor in the formulation, and implementation of policies, programmes and Reforms, there is the need for it to demonstrate a high measure of commitment, sincerity of purpose and political will to ensure that there is a rapport between policy intentions and policy output so as to be able to apply incremental adaptation when the policy or Reform agenda has shown its capacity, its effectiveness and high level of productivity, which will lead to the achievement of a sustainable development.

11. Recommendations

In the future formulation of Reform Agenda, all stakeholders such as the states, the Local Government and the organized private sector and Labour should be involved.

One of the Critics of bureaucracy, Alvin Gouldner advocated what he called “Representative Bureaucracy” This is to say that, there is high level compliance when workers participate or are represented in the formulation of rules and regulations. To him Weber’s model of bureaucracy is indeed a “mock bureaucracy” as workers tend to obey their superiors only when they are around.

Summarily, all hands must therefore be on deck to achieve tremendous success not only in Reform formulation but also in the implementation and sustenance of the efficacies of these policies & reforms.

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Assessing the Economic and Social Aspects of Sustainable Development in Nigeria

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Abstract. Like any developing nation, Nigeria faces some challenges in its development stride and efforts to improve the quality of life of its citizens. The critical economic issues concern the need to foster sustainable rapid economic growth that will cater for the needs of its large population and the imperative proper integration of its domestic economy into the world economy in the face of increasing globalization. Therefore the country has taken education as an important key of achieving a sustainable economic development. Energy also has been recognized as the power drive of economic growth and industrial development of Nigeria since there is a clear correlation between energy consumption and living standards. Similarly, in attempt to promote sustainable economic development, Nigeria has underscored the importance of entrepreneurship as a realistic mechanism for sustainable economic development in the country. Furthermore, Nigeria ranks among the most urbanized countries in the world hence posing challenges to the provision of basic services for all, despite government efforts, particularly in terms of safe water and sanitation. This paper therefore presents the way forward for economic and social aspects of sustainable development in Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The most interesting aspect of sustainable economic and social development is the fact that it puts in to consideration the present conditions of people as well as not compromising those that come later. Therefore, the concept of sustainable economic and social development remains the modern parameter of measuring development. The Bruntland Commission (1987) defined sustainable development as “the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.” Economic sustainability in Nigeria is maintaining and sustaining a high real growth rate of the economy to achieve a sustainable economic development. For instance, Nigeria’s economy

performed reasonably well in the 1960s and early 1970s but did poorly in the following two decades. However, since the late 1990s, the economy has picked up. But the recovery's sustainability is fragile for two reasons. First, strong domestic savings do not underpin it. Second, Nigeria's economy remains vulnerable to outside shocks.

Despite the contributions of international multinational, bilateral and non-governmental organizations to the development strides in Nigeria, it appears that the more assistance the country gets the higher the poverty, unemployment and conflict levels. The country's population is growing at geometrical progression without corresponding growth in basic infrastructure and social amenities such as electricity, good roads, potable water, health, educational facilities. The real sector of the economy is comatose with low capacity utilization in the industrial sector, underdevelopment in agricultural sector and ailing transport sector. The cities are congested due to high rural-urban migration and poor urban planning and most citizens who could no longer bear the congestion associated discomforts had either legally migrated to developed countries or sought asylum. Analysts have been asking what had happened to resources generated from oil and gas productions as well as the financial assistance from many international organizations to Nigeria.

The implications of sustainable developmental challenge in Nigeria are diverse socio-economic problems. This paper examines the economic and social aspects of sustainable development in Nigeria.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Economic Aspects of Sustainable Development in Nigeria

Economists have since focused on viewing the economy and the environment as a single interlinked system with a unified valuation methodology. Intergenerational equity can be incorporated into this approach, as has become common in economic valuations of climate change economics. Ruling out discrimination against future generations and allowing for the possibility of renewable alternatives to petrochemicals and other non-renewable resources, efficient policies are compatible with increasing human welfare, eventually reaching a golden-rule steady state. Thus the three pillars of sustainable development are interlinkages, intergenerational equity, and dynamic efficiency. Economic Sustainability: Agenda 21 of UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005) clearly identified information, integration, and participation as key building blocks to help countries achieve development that recognizes these interdependent pillars. It emphasizes that in sustainable development everyone is a user and provider of information. It stresses the need to change from old sector-centered ways of doing business to new approaches that involve cross-sectoral coordination and the integration of environmental and social concerns into all development processes. The economic sustainable development reviewed in this paper shall include energy and entrepreneurship.

2.1.1 Energy

Energy is the power drive of economic growth and industrial development of any society, there is a clear correlation between energy consumption and living standards. The availability and consumption of energy is an index of prosperity on any nation. Nigerian's energy need is on the increase, and her increasing population is not balanced by adequate energy development. Nigeria needs more energy to meet the rising in demand of energy, due to population increase, inevitable industrialization, more agriculture production and improving the standards. However, there are challenges due to economic, social, technical and political barriers. The challenges have to be overcome if energy development technologies are to be deployed to make a meaningful impact on the energy mix in the nation which of course would promote sustainable economic development.

In addition to the above, today Nigeria does not have government regulation in place to clearly define energy efficiency standards, the use of alternative and renewable energy, or even integrated energy resource planning. In fact, the rational use of energy is not covered by any of the country's laws, which is the most important constraint. As part of the steps to alleviate Nigeria's energy crisis, there are several ongoing projects like the electricity sector reform, licensing of private refineries and other energy sector reform projects aimed at increasing energy supply. However, as aptly indicated by the Director General of the nation's Energy Commission, these are half-measured approaches, which do not adequately consider the opportunities and potentials that arise from efficient energy use. According to him, "only integrated resource planning strategies which consider both the supply-side and demand-side management can be considered sustainable. This requires a fundamental switch from strategies that focus on conventional supply-expansion to those that give greater emphasis to energy end-use efficiency improvement."

Nigeria's inefficient energy production and consumption gives it the potential to achieve significant gains in energy efficiency. Furthermore, Nigeria possesses great potential for the development of hydropower, solar energy and other renewable energy resources as well as the natural gas, all of which are distributed throughout the region. Yet, so much remains to be done to harness these efficient energy resources. Although there are a few pilot projects geared towards increasing energy efficiency, there is undeniably, a huge disinterest in energy efficiency matters at the federal government level, where it could make great impact. Finally, there is no doubt that a business as usual or half-hearted approach is not the way forward for Nigeria. The present energy crisis and projected energy demand growth make it imperative for Nigeria as a whole to inculcate the culture of rational energy use through the development and implementation of both national and regional energy efficiency policies.

2.1.2 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship in Nigeria started when people in the villages and farming communities produced more products than they needed, as such; they had to exchange these surpluses with those who needed them within their immediate and neighbouring communities. The exchange of goods for goods or services was based on trade by barter initially, until commodity money was developed and used. The socio-economic impact of entrepreneurship on the sustainable economic development of the Nigerian economy is difficult to accurately measure or estimate, but it is believed to be highly dynamic and significant. This is the reason why several studies have estimated that between 45 and 60 percent of the urban labour force work for small private enterprises or what is otherwise called small businesses. These same studies also suggest that entrepreneurship has been beneficial because the Nigerian private sector comprising of small and medium enterprises provides diverse employment opportunities for 50 percent of the country's population and 50 percent of the its industrial output.

Nigeria despite its abundant natural and human resources is unfortunately faced with some challenges which in the recent years have surged appreciably cause serious set-backs to entrepreneurship development. With specific reference to the SMEs, they are faced frequently harassment from the government officials who extort money from their already small businesses. In addition, there is paucity of infrastructure including bad roads, water shortage, erratic supply of electricity, and poor telecommunication system. Added to the above discouraging challenge is difficulty accessing bank credits, but the most serious and damaging problem threatening the state of entrepreneurship in Nigeria is a lack of government interest and support for micro, small enterprises.

2.2 Social Aspects of Sustainable Development in Nigeria

Social sustainability encompasses human rights, labor rights, and corporate governance. Social sustainability is the idea that future generations should have the same or greater access to social resources as the current generation ("inter-generational equity"), while there should also be equal access to social resources *within* the current generation ("intra-generational equity"). Social resources include ideas as broad as other cultures and basic human rights. Also we can speak of Sustainable Human Development that can be seen as development that promotes the capabilities of present people without compromising capabilities of future generations. In the human development paradigm, environment and natural resources should constitute a means of achieving better standards of living just as income represents a means of increasing social expenditure and, in the end, well-being.

Social sustainability entails continuous improvement in the social well-being and quality of life. It focuses on social and human development indicators. The following are the indicators of social aspects of development: the percentage of a

population living below the poverty line, adult literacy rate, primary and secondary school enrolments, percentage of population with access to improved sanitation, and percentage of population with access to safe water. This paper looks at two social aspects of development in details, that is: education and urbanization.

2.2.1 Education

Technical and Vocational Education and training (TVET) have been recognized the world over as tools for empowering people, especially the youth, for sustainable livelihood and social-economic development. The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) recommendations of 2000 on technical and vocational education and training for the twenty-first century, defined TVET as those aspects of education process involving, in addition, to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.

The development of technical and vocational skills is vital to economic development for two important reasons. First, technical and vocational skills are needed for enterprise productivity and profitability, as well as for national productivity and wealth creation. Without the necessary technical skills, enterprise and national growth can be seriously hobbled. Technological innovation and economic growth fuel the demand for skilled workers. The need for technical and vocational skills is increasing because of a convergence of factors—technological change, changes in work organization, growing economic openness and competitiveness, and capital deepening (increasing capital per worker).

The second reason for the development of technical and vocational skills is because it is essential for individual prosperity. Skills enable the individual to increase productivity and income. This is especially important for those who are seeking out a living in the informal sector of the economy. Today in Nigeria, population growth and urbanization; poverty and lack of income generating capacity and failure of graduates from schools system to secure employment clearly highlights the importance of career development which is achievable through TVET. To enable those still in post- secondary schools to be relevant to the world of work as well as to draw the majority of jobless people out of the unemployment market, there is need to reposition TVET as the best means to improve economic opportunities for the teeming youths which will eventually enhance economic development of Nigeria.

Although capacity development initiative in technical education had been done through the introduction of related courses in colleges, polytechnics and universities, some challenges are still present which if not addressed may militate against the use of TVET as a driver of sustainable economic development. These are negative perception of TVET as career path for less academically endowed, discrimination against graduates of technical institutions, lack of linkage between formal and non-formal TVET, poor implementation of staff development training

policy, insufficient laboratory and workshop equipments, low enrollment in technical schools, absence of partnership between training institutions and industry, societal respect for the “scholars” and disdain for “mechanics” and mismatch between training and labour market needs.

2.2.2 Urbanization

Nigeria as a nation has been experiencing an accelerated shift of her populations from rural to urban areas. This rapid rate of urbanization has engendered several challenges and problems similar to situations in other parts of the world. The problems identified in Agenda 21 are prevalent in Nigeria. Today’s Nigerian cities are typified by substandard and inadequate housing, slums, and lack of infrastructure, transportation problems, low productivity, poverty, crime and juvenile delinquency. Urbanization is the root cause of the high rates of environmental degradation, pollution and social delinquency.

Urban development problems in Nigeria could be viewed from both socio-economic and environmental perspectives. Increase in the urban population has resulted in the proliferation of slums and informal peri-urban settlements otherwise known as shantytowns. The shantytowns are deprived settlements characterized by excessive residential densities, largely uninhabitable housing and the absence of sanitation, basic infrastructure and social services. They harbor migrants from the rural areas who are unable to fit into the economy of the city and so tend to find solace in informal activities and crime. The proliferation of these shantytowns results in the unwieldy expansion of the urban centers which poses a major planning problem as provision and management of roads, drainage and sewage systems among other infrastructure proves very difficult. Furthermore, shantytowns, a consequent of urbanization, cause increases in the incidence of urban poverty, diseases and epidemics, environmental pollution, urban conflicts and crime.

3. Methodology

This study employed a cross-sectional survey design. This is because it allows for the study of the population at one specific time and the difference between the individual groups within the population to be compared. The choice of this method is informed by the fact that cross-sectional survey design combines the use of quantitative and qualitative observation, text content analysis and available official statistics in different proportions for problem-solving or problem-identification depending on the objectives of the research (Abouzeedan and Leijon, 2007). The target population of this study included 4,000 participants while the sample size was 351 respondents which was determined using Krejcie and Morgan table (1970). However, 343 questionnaires were returned and counted valid for analysis, giving a response rate of 98%. The category of respondents included management and technical staff of different organizations and technical schools in Nigeria. The questionnaires which were retrieved were categorized as follows: Energy (87 respondents), Entrepreneurs (89 respondents), education (86 respondents), and

Urbanization (81 respondents). The study results were presented in tabular format using frequency and percentage tables.

4. Findings

Table 1: The Challenges Facing the Energy Sector in Nigeria

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Technical Competence | 28 | 32.2 | 32.2 | 32.2 |
| Adequate Funding | 25 | 28.7 | 28.7 | 60.9 |
| Government Policies | 19 | 21.8 | 21.8 | 82.8 |
| Political and Legal framework | 11 | 12.6 | 12.6 | 95.4 |
| Insecurity | 4 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 87 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Source: *Primary Data, 2016*

Table 1 revealed that majority of the respondents noted that technical competence was the major challenge in the energy sector, followed by lack of adequate funding, poor government policies, lack of better political and legal framework and high level of insecurity specifically posed by Boko Haram in the Northern zone of Nigeria.

Table 2: The Challenges Affecting Entrepreneurs in Nigeria

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Electricity | 33 | 37.1 | 37.1 | 37.1 |
| Access to finance | 23 | 25.8 | 25.8 | 62.9 |
| Transportation | 14 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 78.7 |
| Tax Rates | 10 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 89.9 |
| Corruption | 6 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 96.6 |
| Access to land | 3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 89 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Source: *Primary Data, 2016*

Table 2 revealed that majority of the entrepreneurs noted that electricity and access to finance were their greatest impediment to the success of their businesses. However, other impediments to the successes of these businesses included poor road network that makes transportation a big challenge most especially in remote areas; followed by high tax rates that is marred with bribery and corruption hence posing tax evasion and avoidance among the potential tax payers.

Table 3: Challenges Facing Technical and Vocational Training Educational System in Nigeria

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| discrimination against graduates of technical institutions | 22 | 25.6 | 25.6 | 25.6 |
| societal respect for the “scholars” and disdain for “mechanics” | 17 | 19.8 | 19.8 | 45.3 |
| poor implementation of staff development training policy | 14 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 61.6 |
| low enrollment in technical schools | 13 | 15.1 | 15.1 | 76.7 |
| insufficient laboratory and workshop equipment | 11 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 89.5 |
| absence of partnership between training institutions and industry | 9 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 100.0 |
| Total | 86 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Source: *Primary Data, 2016*

Table 3 revealed that majority of the respondents noted that discrimination against graduates of technical institutions is a very big challenge to TVET, followed by societal respect for the “scholars” and disdain for “mechanics”, poor implementation of staff development training policy, low enrollment in technical schools, insufficient laboratory and workshop equipment, and absence of partnership between training institutions and industry.

Table 4: Challenges Facing the Urbanization of Nigeria

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid growth of slums | 25 | 30.9 | 30.9 | 30.9 |
| access to piped water | 21 | 25.9 | 25.9 | 56.8 |
| access to electricity | 19 | 23.5 | 23.5 | 80.2 |
| waste disposal | 10 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 92.6 |
| sanitation and healthcare | 6 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 81 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Source: *Primary Data, 2016*

Table 4 revealed that majority of the respondents noted that the challenges facing urbanization in Nigeria is the high level of slum growth, followed by lack of access to piped water, lack of access to electricity, poor waste disposal and poor sanitation and healthcare.

5. Empirical Evidence

The unstable power supply in Nigeria has for a long time forced the closure of several potential entrepreneurial businesses in the country. For Instance, a survey by Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) revealed that a total of 834 companies shut down their operations in 2013. The closure of the 834 companies

was attributable to epileptic power supply, high cost of alternative sources of electricity and multiple taxes, which resulted in huge cost of doing business. The closure of these companies further compounded the already bad state of unemployment in the nation (Oyelola and Ajiboshin, 2013).

In regard to the energy sector, lack of technical competence remained and may continue to be a major challenge towards the development of energy systems in Nigeria. The technical failures of energy development systems can be traced to lack of understanding of local energy requirements, lack of research and development to adapt technologies to local conditions, resources and requirements; lack of local skilled labour to install, operate and maintain the equipment properly and lack of access to spare parts (Okafor and Joe-Uzuegbu, 2014). It is on record that most of the pilot programmes are carried out in rural communities. These communities are quite remote that most initial installers will not be willing to get back there to render maintenance services. Even when they do the professional charges are beyond the capabilities of beneficiary rural dwellers. The concept, design, application and use of most energy devices are conceived without any local input, and there is little or no effort to the system to various usage requirements. The result is that anytime it becomes difficult to get assistance in terms of component or intellectual property, as may be needed to maintain the energy systems, the systems will simply face redundancy and finally abandonment by the user (Garba and Bashir, 2012).

In regard to TVET, today in Nigeria, population growth and urbanization; poverty and lack of income generating capacity and failure of graduates from schools system to secure employment clearly highlights the importance of career development which is achievable through TVET. To enable those still in post-secondary schools to be relevant to the world of work as well as to draw the majority of jobless people out of the unemployment market, there is need to reposition TVET as the best means to improve economic opportunities for the teeming youths which will eventually enhance economic development of Nigeria (Yusuff and Soyemi, 2012).

In regard to urbanization, majority of Africa's population growth is expected to take place in urban areas largely due to rural-urban migration. Rapid urbanization in Africa has been accompanied by new and challenging environmental problems. A sizeable proportion of urban dwellers in Sub-Sahara Africa live in slum conditions, without durable housing or legal rights to their land. At least one-quarter of African city dwellers do not have access to electricity. The World Health Organization (2004) reported that an estimated 43 percent of urban dwellers had access to piped water. After a decade, not much has changed. Waste disposal presents a tremendous health hazard in many urban areas. Clearly, current patterns of urbanization do not have consistent desire to have ecologically friendly sustainable development in Nigeria.

6. Conclusion

Nigeria's economic and social aspects of development can better be realized when education through technical and vocational education and training is embraced, or energy is efficiently developed into a sustainable level, entrepreneurship is widely encourage, and urbanization is carefully observed. This is because these developmental aspects could be argued to be the way forward if Nigeria should realize any sustainable development. The Nigeria's government has never been in short supply of policies, programmes or reforms aimed at alleviating the challenges confronting the economy and the livelihood of its citizens. But what is usually in short supply is the political will to successfully implement these policies and programmes to tackle these challenges. It has been argued that commitment to sustainable socio-economic development both for the present and future generations will be meaningless if collaborative approach is not employed.

7. Recommendations

It is therefore recommended that the following institutions and policies be enhanced in order to make way for sustainable economic and social development in Nigeria:

- Firstly, facilities and material resources need for energy development in Nigeria especially for that of hydro power, solar energy installation, biogas and biomass technology should be up-graded to generate stable power drove for energy development. The government should alternatively import facilities to complement the existing domestic facilities so that efficiency and effectiveness can be justified optimally.
- Secondly, the Nigerian government needs to shift from over-dependence on oil and place more attention on the development of small & medium sized enterprises for sustainable economic development in Nigeria. Economic prosperity in Nigeria, as in the rest of the world, depends on strong and empowered private sector to lead micro, small and medium enterprises to a higher level of growth which would significantly contribute to the country's economic well-being.
- Thirdly, achieving sustainable social development through technical and vocational education and training requires collective and serious efforts and strong commitments on the part of parents/guardians, educational institutions/training providers, employers and government. Parents should support children to choose vocational education track and reject the perception that TVET is for less academically endowed.
- Last but not least, there is need for urban regeneration and enhanced infrastructural development. As the population of an urban centre increases, its need for infrastructure such as transportation, water, sewage and facilities such as housing, commerce, health, schools, recreation and others increases; therefore, increasing the environmental carrying capacity of the urban areas is necessary for enhancing the liveability of cities in Nigeria.

Massive rehabilitation and expansion of urban infrastructure in the country should be taken more seriously. This should be done to address the challenges of urbanization, urban governance, land management and shelter in Nigeria. The issues of poverty (rural and urban) and sustainable urban cities should continue to receive the attention of the government, just as the political will and commitment to formulate and implement programmes and policies for development planning, housing, infrastructural development and urban management should be accelerated.

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An Examination of Public Policy Programmes and National Development in Nigeria

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Abstract. National development is construed to comprise various indices of which the most paramount is economic growth and development. The quests for national development have led to the formulation and adoption of various development policies and programmes by government at various times. Analyzing the state of development of any nation must have a reference to the economy as measured by various indices or indicators, notable of which are the influences of fiscal, economic, development policies amongst others. Against this background this paper examines public policies and programmes and national development in Nigeria. The study adopted a qualitative method, drawing on secondary sources of data. Various technical reports were used in analyzing the Nigerian economy. There is no greater time than now that the reality and importance of diversification of the economy has dawn on the country. To this effect, policies to establish, grow and protect strategic sectors of the economy in job creation should be established. The paper concludes that to advance the economy and development of the nation, all the various stakeholders must be considered.

1. Introduction

In every sovereign state, government policies and programmes in different areas have implications on the development of the state. Economic and monetary policies and programmes by government amongst others have significant impact on national development. Government being the formulator, executor and interpreter policies/acts, custodian of rules and regulations, as well as being the resource allocator for the entire system of government have a great role to play in enhancing the wellbeing of its citizens.

The linkage between public policy and programmes, economy and national development is that of a chain-like reaction in which one affect the other, that is, they are intertwined. This is against the background that national development is a reflection of the economic state of the nation which is majorly shaped by public policies and programmes. These policies are seen in a wider spectrum to include government fiscal and economic policies, educational policies, development policies, petroleum policies, amongst others. As Nkogbu (2014) noted, Nigeria is

rated by international standards as “less developed”, “developing”, and thus has development as a major goal. He further said that Nigeria’s predicament could be placed on many factors-institutional, human, political factor, leadership, etc. and not merely on the lack of human and material resources.

Since independence in 1960, Nigeria as a nation has been grappling with ways to fast-track development. The quest for development of Nigeria as a nation has been appreciated by Nigerian governments under different administrations. Efforts in this regard were the four national development plans-First National Development Plan of 1962-1968; Second National Development Plan of 1970-1974; Third National Development Plan of 1975-1980; the Fourth National development Plan of 1981-1985 and some other rolling plans- the First National Rolling Plan (1990-1992); the Second National Rolling Plan (1991-1993); the Third National Rolling Plan (1993-1995); the Fourth National Rolling Plan (1994-1996); and the National Rolling Plan (1997-1999). Besides these development plans, various public policies and programmes such as industrialization, liberalization, privatization, commercialization, and deregulation policies amongst others have been made by government in the quest to fostering economic progress and national development. It is against this background that this paper examines public policies and programmes and national development in Nigeria.

2. Conceptualization of Terms

2.1 Development

Development as a concept defies an easy or one sentence definition. From certain perspectives, development is construed as a sustained growth in Gross National Product (GNP) or Per Capita Income (PCI), while others perceived development as the ability of the people to lead a modern or civilized existence through access to such facilities as good roads, health, water, and education. The conception of development underpins much of the work of international organizations such as the United Nations (UN), World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and also many national governments.

Hettne (1995) opined that ‘development’ involves three things: development theories, development strategies and development ideologies. Put differently, development = theories + strategies + ideologies. Sen (1983, 1999) posited that development is judged by the expansion of people’s entitlements (the set of alternative commodity bundles that a person can command in a society using the totality of rights and opportunities that he or she faces) and the ‘capabilities’ that these entitlements generate. Scholars have unanimously agreed that the goal of development is the enhancement of the total well-being of the people or citizens, i.e., it is people-centred (Okeke, 1999; Iyoha & Onwuka, 1996; Nyerere, 1974). Nyerere(1974) pointed out that mere availability of basic necessities of life do not constitute an end (development) itself, rather it is a means to an end and that end is the people’s well-being which represents the goal of development. Nyerere (1974) puts it thus:

Roads, buildings, the increase of the crop output and other things of this nature are not development; they are tools of development. A new road extends a man's freedom if he travels on it. An increase in the number of schools is development only if those buildings can be and are being used to develop the minds and understanding of the people. An increase in the output of wheat, maize or beans is only development, if it lends to the better nutrition of people. An expansion of the cotton, coffee or fiscal crop is development only if those things can be sold, and the money used for other things which improve the health, comfort and understanding of the people....

The World Bank uses Gross National Income per capita (GNI p.c.) to divide countries of the world into four development categories namely: high income countries-countries having between US\$11,906 and more; upper middle income countries-countries having between US\$3,835-\$11,905; lower middle income countries-countries having between US\$946-\$3,835; and low income countries-countries with less than US\$945(Willis, 2011).

Summarily, the concept of development can best be understood as freedom; changes in time; economic growth and progress; reduction of unemployment, poverty and inequality; increased standard of living of the people; people's ability to access the basic needs of life; prevalence of equity, fairness and justice in the allocation of resources; improved and safe environment where human beings live.

2.2 Policy

Ikelegbe (1996) defined policy as a course setting action, which provides direction, guide and way to the achievement of certain goals. Thus, policy is a purposive course of action for dealing with a problem or matter of concern. It is a guide to action aimed at actualization of predetermined goals and objectives. Enabunene and Idada (2002) posited that that the concept of policy connotes the following: a major guideline for action; a general guide for action; a framework within which decisions are taken and implemented; a choice from among alternatives; a proposed course of action;; futuristic statement of action; and a projected sets of decisions.

2.3 Public Policy

Public policy is a purposive direction or course of action undertaken by government institutions and officials to address specific social/societal problems. Oruku (2007) defined public policy as actions taken or to be taken and actions not taken or not to be taken by government. Fredrick in Enabunene and Idada(2002) defined public policy as the proposed course of action of a group, government or its agencies within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities with which the

policy was proposed to utilize and overcome in an effort to reach a goal or realize an objective of a purpose

Public policies are classified into distributive, regulatory and redistributive policies on the basis of intent operating process (Lowi, 1964) and on their hierarchy or levels such as fundamental, major, functional policies (McKinney & Howard, 1979), and mega and meta policies (Dror, 1973). Public policy comprises a number of elements-*policy demands* (These are the demands of the people in the form of needs, desires, wishes, aspirations, intentions, difficulties and questions which are presented to the political system- public officials);*policy decisions* (These are the authoritative steps taken by the government giving direction and contents to policy actions);*policy statements* (It refers to the formal expression or articulation of public policy indicating the intention of government and what will be done to realize them); *policy outputs* (These are the tangible manifestations of public policies. They are the actual activities carried out by the government in pursuance of policy decisions and statements) and *policy outcomes* (These are consequences for society that flow from action or inaction by government).

2.4 Measuring Development

There exists a lack of agreed universal scale or instrument for measuring development across nations. As a result various scholars and institutions evolved different instruments for measuring development. However, the thinking of Goulet, Sen and others has led to the construction of alternative measures of economic and social development. The notable measurements of development are the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)'s Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI), Human Poverty Index (HPI), Human Development Index (HDI), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the recent Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). All these measurements take into recognition the following: food, water, shelter, clothing, health, education, sanitation, safe and healthy environment, participation in decision-making, employment, nutrition, electricity, mortality rate, etc. In discussing economy and national development, this paper combined the various measurements of development as presented in technical reports from national and international organizations which the Nigerian economy reflects.

3. Government Efforts towards Improving the Economy and Attaining National Development through Public Policies and Programmes

In a bid to strengthening and revitalizing the Nigerian economy and the quest to attain national development, governments at various levels now and in time past have made concerted efforts through the enactment of public policies and programmes. Examples of such public policies and programmes made include: Nigerian industrialization and indigenization policy through the promulgation of the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree (now Act) in 1972; Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) under President Ibrahim Babaginda in 1986; National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), Vision 2010, National

Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), Nigeria Vision 20:2020, Vision 20:2020 all under President Olusegun Obasanjo administration; seven (7) point agenda under late President Musa Yar'Adua in 2007; Transformation Agenda, Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) and Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Program (SURE-P) under President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan in 2011; Treasury Single Account (TSA) and the Change Mantra of current President Muhammadu Buhari since May 29th, 2016. The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was the development strategy from 2003-2007. It describes the strategy for poverty reduction, employment generation, wealth creation and value re-orientation in Nigeria. NEEDS is anchored on three pillars: empowering people, promoting private enterprise and changing the way the government does its work. The goals of NEEDS are expected to be achieved through the adoption and implementation of four key strategies namely reforming the government and institutions, growing the private sector, implementing a social charter and value re-orientation. The Vision 20:2020 policy was articulated during the Olusegun Obasanjo administration to make Nigeria one of the twenty largest economies in the world by the year 2020.

In Delta State, the current Governor Ifeanyi A. Okowa led administration christened his administration's vision as "SMART Agenda", also nicknamed "Prosperity for all Deltans". SMART Agenda is government intended programme with the acronym "SMART" meaning Strategic wealth creation initiatives and provision of jobs for all; Meaningful peace building platforms aimed at political/social stability; Agricultural reforms and industrialization; Relevant health and education policies; Transformed environment through massive urban renewal. Accordingly, various policies were formulated and implemented which are addressing the development and economic challenges.

A common characteristic of all these development strategies is the recognition of the need for development-human, economic, infrastructural, etc. Despite these attempts, the Nigerian economy could be said to be in a discomfoting state due to indices/indicators as contained in reports of international agencies hence it is difficult to say with certainty that we are either progressing or retrogressing.

4. Public Policies and Programmes and National Development: A Reflection on the Nigerian Economy

The actions, activities, policies, programmes, by Nigerian citizens (leaders) who occupied government positions at various times are the cause of the present Nigerian economic and development predicament. Lamentations and complaints from different sectors of the economy and the general populace point to the fact that the present state of the Nigerian economy since the inception of the 6th republic on May 29th, 2015 is biting hard on its citizens. Thus, the present state of the Nigerian economy characterized by high inflation, unemployment and poverty rates among others indicators have place constraints on national development.

A significant question asked by the enlightened mind in this regard is, "what are the tangible impact of these policies in addressing the economy and national

development?”, “how will the common, unenlightened and down trodden citizen describe the benefits of these policies to them?”, “to what extent has these policies addressed the problems and challenges of the current and future generations?” These questions arose because of the lack of government’s presence being felt by the least and poverty ridden stricken citizens in the nation. For instance, people have been asking, “what role has the well-schooled technocrats played while in governance?” since the inception of the President Muhammadu Buhari’s administration in May 29th, 2015 given the economic challenges facing the country with huge external debts owed by Federal Government of Nigeria and the various States. Although policies were formulated to address the economic and development challenges, what happened and what went wrong?

Table 1: Poverty in Nigeria, 1980-2010

| Year | Poverty Incidence (%) (Head Count) | Estimated Population (Million) | Population in Poverty (Million) | Non-Poor | Moderately Poor | Extremely Poor |
|------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|-----------------|----------------|
| 1980 | 27.2 | 65.0 | 17.1 | 72.8 | 21.0 | 6.2 |
| 1985 | 46.3 | 75.0 | 34.7 | 53.7 | 34.2 | 12.1 |
| 1992 | 42.7 | 91.5 | 39.2 | 57.3 | 28.9 | 13.9 |
| 1996 | 65.6 | 102.3 | 67.1 | 34.4 | 36.3 | 29.3 |
| 2004 | 54.4 | 126.3 | 68.7 | 43.3 | 32.4 | 22.0 |
| 2010 | 69.0 | 163.0 | 112.47 | 31.0 | 30.3 | 38.7 |

Source: *National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) Nigeria’s Poverty Profile, 2010*

The above table shows that the proportion of the population living in poverty line increased from 27.2% in 1980 to 69.0% in 2010. Over the period of 1980-2010, the proportion of the core or extremely poor increased from 6.2% to 38.7% in 2010. The proportion of moderately poor rose from 21% to 30.3% during the same period. It can be deduced from the above table that the percentage of population in poverty and extremely poor people steadily rises as the population increases.

Table 2: Geo-Political Structure of Poverty in Nigeria, 2010

| Zone | Food Poverty | Absolute Poverty | Relative Poverty | Under \$1 Per Day |
|---------------|--------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| North Central | 38.6 | 59.5 | 67.5 | 59.7 |
| North East | 51.5 | 69.0 | 76.3 | 69.1 |
| North West | 51.8 | 70.0 | 77.7 | 70.4 |
| South East | 41.0 | 58.7 | 67.0 | 59.2 |
| South South | 35.5 | 55.9 | 63.8 | 56.1 |
| South West | 25.4 | 49.8 | 59.1 | 50.1 |

Source: *National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) Nigeria’s Poverty Profile, 2010*

The above table captures the depth and spread of poverty in the country by highlighting the zonal incidence of poverty via different poverty measures. Though

poverty is wide spread in the country, North West Zone has the highest proportion of the poor by all dimensions of poverty measurement closely followed by North East Zone. Ekpo (2013) posited that poverty in Nigeria remains a largely rural phenomenon. Thus, poverty in the Northern part of Nigeria is very high hence having negative implications on national development.

Table 3: Urban/Rural Incidence of Poverty by Different Poverty Measures, 2010

| Sector | Food Poverty | Absolute Poverty | Relative Poverty | Under \$1 Per Day |
|--------|--------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Urban | 26.7 | 52.0 | 61.8 | 52.4 |
| Rural | 48.3 | 66.1 | 73.2 | 66.3 |

Source: *National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), Nigeria's Poverty Profile, 2010*

The above table reveals that the concentration of poverty lies mainly in the rural sector/areas. The implication of the above shows that the economy is unstable and people in the rural areas are worse hit. As revealed from the table above also, the population of people living under \$1 per day is disheartening amidst the abundant natural and human resources and wealth accruable to the nation. The uneven distribution of wealth as well as the prevalence of corruption has led to this pitiable situation.

Table 4: Selected Macroeconomic Indicators of the Nigerian Economy, 1980-2012 (%)

| Year | INFLA | GRGDP | MPR | LENR | UNEMP | DI |
|------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| 1980 | 10.0 | 4.2 | 6.00 | 7.50 | 6.4 | 16.4 |
| 1981 | 21.4 | -13.13 | 6.00 | 7.75 | 6.5 | 27.9 |
| 1982 | 7.2 | -0.23 | 8.00 | 10.25 | 6.2 | 13.4 |
| 1983 | 23.2 | -5.29 | 8.00 | 10.00 | 3.4 | 26.6 |
| 1984 | 40.7 | -4.82 | 10.00 | 12.50 | 6.2 | 46.9 |
| 1985 | 4.7 | 9.7 | 10.00 | 9.25 | 6.1 | 10.8 |
| 1986 | 5.4 | 2.51 | 10.00 | 10.50 | 5.3 | 10.7 |
| 1987 | 10.2 | -0.7 | 12.75 | 17.50 | 7 | 17.2 |
| 1988 | 56.0 | 9.89 | 12.75 | 16.50 | 5.3 | 61.3 |
| 1989 | 50.5 | 7.2 | 18.50 | 26.80 | 4.5 | 55.0 |
| 1990 | 7.5 | 8.19 | 18.50 | 25.50 | 3.5 | 11.0 |
| 1991 | 12.7 | 4.76 | 14.50 | 20.01 | 3.1 | 15.8 |
| 1992 | 44.8 | 2.92 | 17.50 | 29.80 | 3.4 | 48.2 |
| 1993 | 57.2 | 2.19 | 26.00 | 18.32 | 2.7 | 59.9 |
| 1994 | 57.0 | 0.1 | 13.50 | 21.00 | 2 | 59.0 |
| 1995 | 72.8 | 2.5 | 13.50 | 20.18 | 1.8 | 74.6 |
| 1996 | 29.3 | 4.3 | 13.50 | 19.74 | 3.4 | 32.7 |
| 1997 | 10.7 | 2.7 | 13.50 | 13.54 | 3.2 | 13.9 |
| 1998 | 7.9 | 1.9 | 14.31 | 18.29 | 3.2 | 11.1 |
| 1999 | 6.6 | 1.1 | 18.00 | 21.32 | 3 | 9.6 |
| 2000 | 6.9 | 5.4 | 13.50 | 17.98 | 13.1 | 20.0 |
| 2001 | 18.9 | 3.1 | 14.31 | 18.29 | 13.6 | 32.5 |
| 2002 | 12.9 | 1.5 | 19.00 | 24.85 | 12.6 | 25.5 |
| 2003 | 14.0 | 10.3 | 15.75 | 20.71 | 14.8 | 28.8 |

| | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|-------|-------|------|------|
| 2004 | 15.0 | 10.6 | 15.00 | 19.18 | 13.4 | 28.4 |
| 2005 | 17.8 | 5.4 | 13.00 | 17.95 | 11.9 | 29.7 |
| 2006 | 8.2 | 6.2 | 12.25 | 17.26 | 12.3 | 20.5 |
| 2007 | 5.4 | 6.4 | 8.75 | 16.94 | 12.7 | 18.1 |
| 2008 | 11.6 | 6 | 9.81 | 15.14 | 14.9 | 26.5 |
| 2009 | 12.4 | 7 | 7.44 | 18.36 | 19.7 | 32.1 |
| 2010 | 11.8 | 8 | 6.13 | 17.59 | 21.4 | 32.9 |
| 2011 | 10.9 | 7.4 | 9.19 | 22.39 | 23.9 | 34.8 |
| 2012 | 9.8 | 6.58 | 12 | 24.61 | 25.7 | 33.7 |

Source: *Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical Bulletin, 2013.*

Notes: INFL = rate of inflation; GRGDP = growth of real GDP; MPR = monetary policy rate; LENR = lending rates; UNEMP = rate of unemployment; DI = discomfort index.

Indicators of the Nigerian economy above shows clearly that though certain macroeconomic fundamentals like the inflation rate may move in the right direction, others such as unemployment, lending rates are not. In addition, poverty is rising and most of the social indices points to an economy that is growing but not experiencing development; primary production and export of crude petroleum defines the economy. The table reveals further that the rate of unemployment and discomfort index are rising steadily from 2008 to 2012 when compared against previous years. Furthermore, the rising lending rate and inflation rate will significantly affect the economy which in turn will affect home management. The implication of the dwindling economy and rising poverty level is that home management will be negatively affected and consequently family meal selection practices.

In Nigeria's attempts to enhance development, various development theories and models have been experimented in form of policies and programmes. Such policies include privatization, liberalization, nationalization, deregulations, etc. Despite these attempts, indicators reported by United Nations and other international organizations showed that Nigeria is still lagging behind in terms of development. For instance, the Human Development Report of 2014 does not tell well of Nigeria as a nation. In this report, Nigeria is ranked 152nd out of 187 countries and is categorized under low development countries with multidimensional poverty index value of 0.239; 25.7% of her population is in severe poverty; intensity of deprivation is 55.2%; 46% of Nigerians live below the national poverty line; and 67.98% of Nigerians live below \$1.25 a day under the multidimensional poverty index; 30% of the population have trust in the national government; life expectancy is 50.8 years and 50.0 years for male and female respectively; 36:1 teacher-pupil ratio (HDR, 2014). Furthermore, Nigeria maintained the same ranking position in the 2015 Human Development Report where it ranked 152 out of 188 countries with multidimensional poverty index value of 0.239. Other indices in the report include: 36.4% child malnutrition, 17.4% infants exclusively breastfed, 46% satisfied with health care quality, 40% satisfied with standard of living with an

overall life satisfaction index of 4.8 out of 10, with 0 being the least, intensity of deprivation is 54.8%, 18.4% of population near multidimensional poverty, and 30.0% population in severe multidimensional poverty.

The under listed points further portrays the Nigerian economic situation:

- Dwindling price of crude oil in the international oil market, which negatively affect the Nigeria government and economy as it solely rely on it as the major source of foreign exchange. The current price of crude oil is \$42.62per barrel (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2016).
- High rate of unemployment and underemployment: 500,000 applicants applied for 10,000 vacancies in the Nigerian Police Force recruitment exercise in 2016; Over 400,000 applications were received within 36 hours of opening the website for applications in the federal government Npower empowerment programme; thus making the website to crash before reopening of the portal for applications; The March 16th, 2014 Immigration recruitment tragedy in Nigeria where over 23 prospective employees were killed during stampede across FCT, Port-Harcourt, Minna, Gombe, Benin-City while several other persons were injured.
- High rate of inflation and increasing rate of foreign exchange: As at August 16th, inflation rate stands at 16.48%; exchange rate is ₦310 to 1USD dollar \$; monetary policy rate is 14% (Central Bank of Nigeria 2016).
- High rate of poverty which is 72.0% (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2013).
- Increasing population.
- Government at national and state levels struggling to pay wages.

5. Economy and National Development: The Role of Government

Events in the country indicate that uncertainties now characterize the Nigerian economy and this situation to a great extent affects national development. The escalation of the prices of fuel or premium motor spirit (PMS), household kerosene (HHK), domestic cooking gas and aviation fuel alongside the increase in cost of goods and standard of living are pointers to an unstable economy as the hardship among Nigerians continue to increase. These situations amidst others are consequences of various government policies. Against this what then is the role of Government?

The role of government in such a time revolves around policies and programmes to reverse the adverse effects of previous policies and programmes. This is because the activities of individuals and private organizations to a very great extent depend on whatever the government does. No individual or private organization is bigger and can survive without government playing one role or another.

There is a general consensus among scholars that government sets the foundation upon which all other activities of a nation thrives. A vivid example is Singapore, where the importance and reality of public policy by government can be appreciated.

The role of government in (economic) policy making according to Samuelson and Marks (2012) encompasses three broad areas: microeconomic, macroeconomic, and distributive. Government's microeconomic role is to provide certain public goods and services, undertake public investments, and regulate operations of private markets. The macroeconomic role of government is to help steer the course of the aggregate economy: reducing the frequency and severity of recessions, promoting economic growth, and maintaining low rates of inflation and unemployment. Distributively, government's role is to reduce income inequality, ensure minimum health, education, and living standards, and improve the welfare of the poor.

6. Conclusion

There is no greater time than now that the reality and importance of diversification of the economy has dawn on the country. To this effect, policies to establish, grow and protect strategic sectors of the economy in job creation should be established. The proposed empowerment programmes should be implemented with integrity and devoid of corruption and recklessness as experienced in previous administrations. In conclusion, to advance the economy and development of Nigeria, all the various stakeholders must be considered. This is because many interest groups have a "stake" in the Nigerian project and are affected by the actions and activities of the central stakeholder (federal government). Thus, these stakes should be recognized by those (government) whose actions in form of policies and programmes may impinge upon them.

7. Recommendations

- A top priority for government should be full implementation of public policies and programmes. Previous policies and programmes made by government should be revisited, reworked upon and modified with a view to effectively address present and future economic and development challenges. In this regard, policy makers should carefully understudy the history and its recurrence both globally and locally with a view to developing policies, programmes and strategies that addresses current and future generations.
- Given this turbulent economic situation, Government should take responsibility for realignment of federal, state and local expenditure to national development plan. Policy makers and programmes planners should be anticipatory and alert to formulating and implementing policies and programmes to cushion the economic hardship on its citizens should any unexpected event occur.

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Part Three
Entrepreneurship Studies



Building Entrepreneurship Capacity and Development in Contemporary Nigerian Society

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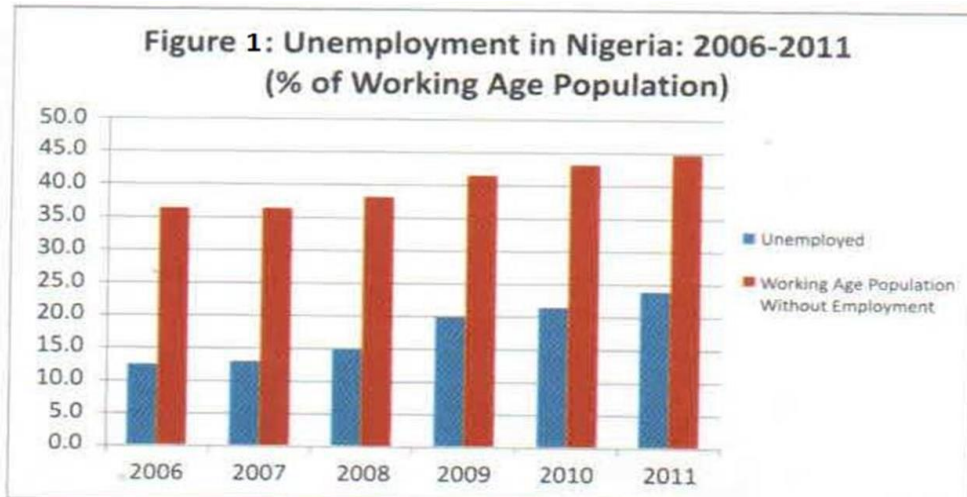
Abstract. It is an indisputable fact that there are increasing calls for economics driven by value creation, the exploitation of economic innovations and new order not only in Nigeria but the world over. That is why there is the need for critical assessment of the current economic situation of the country and capabilities in entrepreneurship as the way forward. This paper concluded that entrepreneurship development is crucial to the creation of the required manpower and skills necessary for the acceleration of growth in the Nigerian economy and reduction of unemployment, poverty and over-dependency on the oil sector and the quest for “paid employment”.

1. Introduction

Although, the onset of industrialization in the 17th century brought the importance of entrepreneurs as a separate factor and contributor for production. The industrial revolution, it must be noted, also gave a special status to the entrepreneur. According to Obiajuru (2012) in Ihugba, Odii and Njoku (2013), it has become paramount in a “specially tottering economy” like Nigeria’s that her citizens, young and old alike unemployed, under-employed and even the employed are expected to take on enterprising and risk-taking characteristics in order to sustain family and self above the poverty line. Nigeria is a country of over 170 million people of different backgrounds in different spheres of life and the country is fundamentally known as an oil producer which it highly depended upon and generates about 80% of its revenue from the sector. This over dependency on oil has created several challenges for the country where a sizeable number of its labour force run after jobs rather than being masters of themselves and creators of jobs.

The World Bank (2013) report also states that Job creation in Nigeria has been inadequate to keep pace with the expanding working age population, to the extent that Nigeria has the largest army of unemployed and under – employed youths in Africa. As illustrated in the World Bank report below, the official unemployment

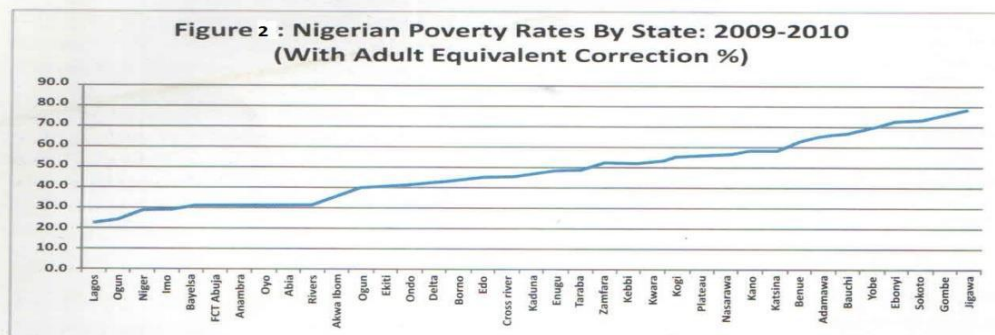
rate has steadily increased from 12% of the working age population in 2006 to 24% in 2011.



Source: World Bank's 2013 Nigeria Economic Report.

As shown in this figure 1, 44.6% of the working age population in Nigeria was categorized as being either unemployed or out of the labor force. As better summarized, one out of every three Nigerian is either unemployed or under – employed, with millions of youths, mostly graduates who do not possess even single entrepreneurial skills with which to fend for themselves. The Bank also stated in their report that —Wage jobs in Nigeria are scarce and provided mostly by Government, with the heart-rending consequence that it is mostly those who are connected to the men in authority that get the few government jobs that fall due. As consequences of the above scenario, it has been truly observed that youth unemployment is the biggest problem confronting Nigeria, only next in line to problems of Electricity and infrastructure. Unemployment in Nigeria is the root cause of poverty, youth restiveness, gangsterism, bank robberies, kidnapping, assassination, lawlessness and all kinds of deviant behaviors which has seriously retarded and discouraged foreign investors from coming to invest in the country.

World Bank (2013) reports that while official statistics place Nigeria among the fastest growing economies in the World, with growth concentrated in the pro-poor areas of small scale agriculture and trade, more direct indicators of social welfare of the population would appear to tell another story. It continues that estimated poverty rates declined only marginally between 2003 – 2004 and 2009 – 2010, implying that given growth in the population, the number of Nigerians living in poverty is increasing significantly.



Source: National bureau of Statistics, in 2013 Nigeria Economic Report (World Bank).

The pattern of spread in the country is that as at the statistics of 2010, four Northern states and one South Eastern State have the highest poverty rates, while Lagos and the South West states have the lowest estimated poverty rates. The burden of poverty is more in the rural areas than the urban areas of Nigeria (as can be seen in figure 2 above).

Table 1: Nigerian Urban vs Rural poverty Rates (% of Population) 2009 – 2014.

| | 2013 – 2014 | 2009 – 2010 |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Per capita | | |
| Poverty rate | 64.2 | 62.6 |
| Urban Poverty | 52.2 | 51.2 |
| Rural Poverty | 73.4 | 69 |
| | | |
| Adult equivalent | | |
| Poverty rate | 48.3 | 46.1 |
| Urban Poverty | 36.8 | 34.3 |
| Rural Poverty | 57.4 | 52.9 |

Source: World Bank Calculations on NBS figures (2013 NER).

It is worthy of note that the issue of oil, the nature of education received by Nigerians and their low level quest (until recently) for new order in term of creativity, innovations and drastically affected the economic growth and development of the nation. Consequently, the Nigerian economy seems to have lost its focus (especially as justified by the new government of President Muhammadu Buhari when he posited that the Nigerian economy was in bad shape) and hence, the need for quick intervention. It is in an attempt to reverse the declining nature of the economy that the intervention brought by the current government policy direction of private sector led growth for job and wealth creation which is anchored on entrepreneurship is expected to be pursued with vigor and all the priorities and attention.

2. The Concept of Entrepreneurship

To drive entrepreneurship is to set up a process through which individuals are made participating members of their society in developing the capability and capacity to live in the society and equally contribute meaningfully towards its economic growth and development. To this extent therefore, entrepreneurship is self-employment oriented which will also generate employment opportunities to others. It is the most effective approach for bridging the gap between science and market place, creating new enterprises and bringing new products and services to the market. Summing up this idea, Duru (2011) posits that these entrepreneurial activities significantly impact the economy of a nation by building the economic base and provide job.

Developments in entrepreneurship are sometimes seen as arising from three sources-namely:

- A. From the contributions of economic writers and thinkers on the role of entrepreneur in economic development and the application of economic theory
- B. From the psychological trait approach on personality characteristics of the entrepreneur, and
- C. From social behavioural approach which stresses the influence of social environment as well as personality trait.

Generally speaking, entrepreneurship could be defined as dynamic process created and managed by an individual (the entrepreneur), which strives to exploit economic innovation to create new value in the market. The entrepreneur therefore, is a person, who has entrepreneurial mind with a strong need for achievement. Furthermore, Shane (2003) in Ekankumo and Kemebaradikumo (2011) described entrepreneurship as the act of being an entrepreneur. As a French word, an entrepreneur is “one who undertakes innovations, finance and business acumen in an effort to transform innovations into economic goods”.

It is important to identify that the result of entrepreneurship or becoming an entrepreneur may bring about:

1. self establishment (a new organization or new business);
2. taking over already existing business (the revitalization of mature organization in response to perceived opportunities)
3. inherit business venture; and
4. franchisement.

In today's world and as pointed out earlier in this paper, anybody, industry or business leader with innovation and creative business abilities is described as an entrepreneur or someone who engages in entrepreneurship. The entrepreneur must therefore perceive business opportunities and take advantage of the scarce resources to meet with unlimited opportunities profitability. The entrepreneur bears risks and equally directs the available human and material resources to achieve economic, social and financial goods of the enterprise. The entrepreneur must be willing to put his or her career and financial security on the line and take risks in the name of an idea, spending much time, as well as, capital (wealth creation in other to create further wealth) on an uncertain venture. These uncertainties according to knight (1921) in Ekankumo and Kemebaradikumo (2011) can be classified into three:

1. Risk: Measurable statistically;
2. Ambiguity: Hard to measurable statistically; and
3. True Uncertainty: Impossible to estimate or predict statistically.

For an entrepreneur to be successful in his or her entrepreneurial activities, he or she must adequately perform the following functions:

1. Identification of business opportunities
2. Selection of opportunities
3. Decision on form of enterprise
4. Allocation and distribution of resources
5. Co-ordination of other factors of production
6. Planning and controlling organizational programmes and activities
7. Mobilization and utilization of local raw materials
8. Risk bearing
9. Creating of employment opportunities
10. Marketing activities for customers satisfaction
11. Innovation to meet up with the needs of the market.

To effectively and efficiently perform these functions identified above, the entrepreneur according to the USAID – funded research by McBer and Management international in Manu and Brown (1987) listed the following fourteen (14) personal entrepreneurial characteristics as common behaviour of successful entrepreneur:

1. Take initiative ;
2. See and act on opportunities;
3. Persistent;
4. Personally seeks information;
5. Concerned for high quality;
6. Committed to fulfilling contracts;
7. Oriented to efficiency;
8. Plans systematically;
9. Solve problem in original ways;
10. Demonstrates self-confidence;
11. Takes calculated risks;
12. Assertive;
13. Persuasive; and
14. Use influence strategies.

These traits of successful entrepreneurs can be grouped into four (4) categories as (a) personal characteristics (b) interpersonal skills (c) conceptual skills (d) technical skills.

The functions and personal characteristics highlighted earlier points to three important components of entrepreneurship, which are:

- I. Entrepreneurship consists of basic personality characteristics which mix together values, abilities and motivation. These includes: creativity, assertiveness which are somehow innate to the individual.
- II. Entrepreneurship is viewed in terms of enterprise attributes like planning systematically, seeking and acting on opportunities among others.
- III. Entrepreneurship goes beyond individual attributes to the performance of economic or social roles like managing a small business.

4. Locating Entrepreneurship Opportunities in Nigeria's Developing Economy

With the United Nation programme of Global Action for Sustainable Development, and the quest of the Nigerian nation for the diversification of economy and reduced emphasis on "paid jobs", the need to locate and develop entrepreneurship opportunities cannot be under estimated.

Most good business opportunities do not suddenly appear, but rather result from an entrepreneur's alertness to possibilities or, in some cases, the establishment of mechanisms that identify potential opportunities. Most entrepreneurs do not have formal mechanisms for identifying business opportunities, some sources are often fruitful. These include Consumers and business associates, members of distribution system, and technical people. Often, consumers, such as business associates purchasing products to fit a certain lifestyle, are the best source of ideas for a new

venture. It is usually very common to hear people say “if only there was a product or service that would”----- This comments usually results in the creation of a new business. Many businesses have started as a result of complain about poor quality or high cost of the product or service by the consumers. Many other entrepreneurs have identified business opportunities through a discussion with a retailer, wholesaler, or manufacturer’s representative. Technically oriented individuals often conceptualize business opportunities when working on other projects. There are several Entrepreneurship opportunities in Nigeria. According to the Nigeria Small and Medium Scale Enterprises Toolkit, Developing a Business Idea is (a) A matter of creating a vision, (b) Leveraging your strengths, and (c) Determining what the markets needs.

(i) Create a Vision

The toolkit says you should envision what you want by answering the following questions: (a) Where do you live? (b) How do you spend your days? (c) What kind of work do you do? (d) Do you work alone or with others? (e) Who are you surrounded by? (f) What do you do when you are not working?

(ii) Leverage your Strengths

Determine what you good at: (a)Everyone is good at something.(b) Your skills can be a foundation for a business (c) Many entrepreneurs have ended up making money in areas outside their profession.(d) List the things you enjoy doing (e) Itemize the skills you have acquired over the years.

(iii) Figure Out what the Market Needs

Keep your business antenna up, with an eye for unfilled opportunities. (a) Is there a gap in the market? (b) Is there a market in the gap? (c) Is there a product or service that would make life easier for people you know? (d) Is there something that everybody hates to do that you can do for them? Your ability to answer these questions will open up entrepreneurship opportunities for you.

5. Potential Factors on Challenges and Prospects of Entrepreneurship Development in Contemporary Nigerian Society

The following are some of the potential factors on the challenges and prospects of entrepreneurship development in Nigeria today:

1. Economic factors: These include:

- (a) Market
- (b) Capital
- (c) Labour
- (d) Taxation
- (e) Inflation
- (f) Raw materials
- (g) Condition for importation/acquisition of needed inputs.

2. Psycho-social and cultural factors: These include:

- (a) Legitimacy of entrepreneurship e.g taboos, social climate, social attitude e.t.c

(b) Social mobility e.g social characteristics, open system, flexibility in role relationship, relative social blockage, social setting e.t.c.

3. Marginalization
4. Profit opportunities
5. Nature of business growth and certainties
6. Funding
7. Level of initiative and innovativeness

6. Conclusion and Recommendation

It is concluded fact that entrepreneurship development is crucial to the creation of the required manpower and skills necessary for the acceleration of growth in the Nigerian economy and reduction of unemployment, poverty and over-dependency on the oil sector and the quest for “paid employment”. A critical assessment of the current economic situation of the country, especially at this time when most state Governments of the Federation are unable to pay staff salaries backed with persistent threat on “down-sizing” and “wright-sizing” the building of capacities and capabilities in entrepreneurship is the way to go.

To this extent, every opportunities open for entrepreneurship development should be fully exploited and optimized. The creation of such opportunities put an immediate challenge on the government shoulders by way of creating the necessary enabling environment to make way for entrepreneurship particularly in the 21st century and the current democratic experience with mounting hopes and expectations. Government should create an investor-friendly environment which encompasses stable macro-economic policies in various dimensions especially in those areas that may either serve as challenges and creating prospects to the development of entrepreneurs.

Government must therefore galvanize all resources and efforts of all stakeholders in this regard and channel them towards creating an economy of innovative and invention-oriented people.

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Youth Entrepreneurship and Poverty Reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government, Kano State, Nigeria.

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Abstract. This study investigated about youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government, Kano State, Nigeria. the study was guided by the following research objectives: i) to establish the effect of youth entrepreneurship education on poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria; ii) to assess the effect of youth business management skills on poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria; and iii) to determine the relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria. Furthermore, only questionnaire was used as the main research instrument. Data was analyzed using Pearson correlation and Regression analysis. The study found a positive and strong relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction ($r=0.711^*$, $p<0.01$). The study concluded that when youth involve themselves in entrepreneurship, there is a high likelihood of poverty reduction and vice versa. The study recommended the need for the government of Nigeria to keep supporting the youth by providing them with grants, loans, entrepreneurial education and training which will enhance their capacity to self-sustenance and eventual poverty reduction in their households.

Keywords: Youth, entrepreneurship, poverty reduction, Tudun Wada, Kano State, Nigeria

1. Introduction

According to the ‘Socio-Economic Profile of Nigeria (1996) published by the Federal Office of Statistics, Kano State is noted for the prevalence of absolute poverty in all its characteristic features (Aluko, 2013). Poverty in Kano State is massive, pervasive and chronic, engulfing a large proportion of the society. The

concern about poverty in Kano State has been very tremendous. Resulting from large-scale poverty, human conditions in Kano State have greatly deteriorated, particularly in the last decade. Real disposable incomes have dwindled while malnutrition rates are on the increase. The concern for poverty is two-dimensional. Over time, a sizeable reduction in poverty is important, both in its own right and as a first step to providing the means for the self-improvement of the most disadvantaged group in the society (Aliyu, 2012).

In Tudun Wada local government, government efforts at poverty reduction have not succeeded in reducing poverty among the youth. Some of the factors responsible for this lie in the nature of the socio-political and economic structures, which alienate and exclude the youth from decisions affecting their welfare. Programmes are imposed from the top, with huge overheads, which favour contractors, consultants and the cronies of those in power. The politicization of policies aimed at poverty reduction and the interplay of corrupt practices has often led to the displacement of goals and the objectives of programmes designed to reduce the incidence of poverty in Tudun Wada local government. Coupled with this is the problem of political instability, the rapid turnover of programmes of action and office holders, leading to the truncation of programmes midstream and unnecessary duplication and waste (Aluko, 2013).

2. Problem Statement

There is a high level of poverty in Nigeria. According to Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics (2012), 60.3% of the population lives in absolute poverty. The same report indicated that in Kano State alone, the poverty rate is as high as 57%. The demographic household survey by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2012) indicates that in Tudun Wada alone, the poverty rate stands at 53%. Unfortunately the same report indicated that the greatest population composition of Tudun Wada is the youth with a representation of 66%. However, only 38% of these youths are employed, leaving a huge 62% unemployed. Furthermore, Tudun Wada also registers one of the highest illiteracy rates in Kano State, standing at 44%. This means that majority of these youth cannot get better jobs since they are not educated. Unfortunately if one is not employed then they cannot earn income and that means they might end up thinking negatively like joining gang groups or leaving a promiscuous life because of the scourging poverty.

Over the years, the Nigeria government tried to come up with solutions to youth unemployment with the intent of fighting poverty. The government came up with schemes such as national poverty alleviation programme, youth empowerment schemes, etc (Ogundele, et al., 2012), and some of these schemes registered a huge success, however, youth unemployment coupled with vicious circle of poverty has still remained a 'thorn in the back' in Tudun Wada local government.

According to Esema (2012), the effect of poverty includes among others poor health; lack of basic nutrition; inadequate housing; social discrimination and

inadequate/ineffective channels through which concerns can be voiced. This study investigated to establish if youth entrepreneurship through entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training can empower the youth and eventually reduce poverty level among them.

3. Objectives of the Study

- (i) To establish the effect of youth entrepreneurship education on poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria.
- (ii) To assess the effect of youth business management skills on poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria.
- (iii) To determine the relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria.

4. Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction in Tudun Wada local government, Kano State, Nigeria.

5. Literature Review

5.1 Theoretical Perspective

This study was guided by the Individual/Opportunity Nexus Theory by Shane (2003). The theory suggests that opportunities are objective, individuals are unique, and that entrepreneurs are risk bearing. In the individual/opportunity nexus view, opportunities have an objective component and these opportunities exist whether or not an individual recognizes them (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003). The second assumption of the individual/opportunity nexus is that entrepreneurship requires differences in people and these differences manifest themselves in the ability to recognize opportunities (Shane, 2003). Individuals in this view are “alert” to existing opportunities. The third assumption of this theory is that, “risk-bearing is a necessary part of the entrepreneurial process” (Shane, 2003, p7). An analysis of assumptions one and two further supports the conclusion that the individual/opportunity nexus assumes conditions of risk.

5.2 Youth Entrepreneurship

Youth entrepreneurship is a vital stage in life for building the human capital that allows young people to avoid unemployment and possibly have a more fulfilling life (Awogbenle and Iwuamadi, 2010). The human capital formed in Youth is an important determinant of long-term growth that a nation can invest on. The promotion of youth entrepreneurship is seen as an important means of creating employment and ensuring that nations are able to benefit from the socio-economic potentials of their young people. Youth Entrepreneurship programme is increasingly seen as an important means of improving the capacity of young people

and putting them onto the path of economic independence, thereby tackling the global unemployment challenge as observed by ILO (2006) an important argument for investment in youth entrepreneurship is to turn “necessity” entrepreneurship into “opportunity” entrepreneurship by instilling an entrepreneurial culture in young men and women, such that young people become entrepreneurs by choice rather than by chance or necessity.

5.3 Youth Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship Education means many things to many people. Nwabuama (2014) view entrepreneurship education as the identification of the general characteristics of entrepreneurs and how potential entrepreneurs can be trained in management techniques needed for effective performance of persons for long time survival of an organization after the acquisition of occupational skills. Olawolu and Kaegon (2012) confirms that entrepreneurship education prepares youths to be responsible and entering individuals who become entrepreneurs or entrepreneurial thinkers by exposing them in real life learning experiences where they will be required to think, take risks, manage circumstances and incidentally learn from the outcome. Ememe (2010) observes that entrepreneurship education enables youths to seek for success in ventures through one’s effort.

5.4 Youth Business Management Skills

Business management skills include those areas involved in starting, developing and managing an enterprise. Being an entrepreneur means you are you own manager, as well as a manager of others. Your skills need to be extensive in order for you to be successful. An entrepreneur should be able to effectively manage people, a budget, operations and in some instances, investors. This requires someone with a multi-tasking work style who can plan for both the short- and long-term goals of his business (McQuerrey, 2015).

5.5 Poverty Reduction

There seems to be no single universally acceptable definition of poverty because scholars have ascribed various meanings to the term. Generally, poverty is the lack of basic human needs such as clean water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing, shelter and other basic needs because of the inability to afford them. The World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen (1995) define poverty as a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs including food, sanitation facilities, education and information. It includes a lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihood.

Poverty in Nigeria are attributed to various causes. These include: Structural crises arising from exogenous factors such as lack of skill, location disadvantage, changes in economic policies which lead to unemployment Obadan (2012); It can also be caused by natural calamities such as wars, and environmental degradation; Negative rapid changes in macro-economic and monetary policies resulting in low

economic growth rate, inflation and the continuous slide in the value of the nation's currency; Dwindling performance of the manufacturing sector of an economy resulting on loss of wage employment.

Faced with the unprecedented poverty level, the Nigerian Federal Government developed some programmes towards poverty alleviation between 1990 and 2010. These programmes among others included: i) Establishment of Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure; ii) Establishment of Agricultural Development Programmes; iii) Primary Health Care; iv) National Directorate of Employment; v) National Poverty Eradication Programme; vi) National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy; and vii) Small and Medium Enterprise Development Agency. Despite all these poverty alleviation programmes, many Nigerian youth still remain largely poverty stricken. The public perception is that there has been little job creation despite the efforts to stem the rising wave of unemployment which principally leads to poverty.

5.6 The Relationship between Youth Entrepreneurship and Poverty Reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government, Kano State, Nigeria

A study by Ogundele, et al (2012) on entrepreneurship training and education as strategic tools for poverty alleviation in Nigeria confirmed that entrepreneurship training and education were significantly related to the youth empowerment and social welfare services. Furthermore, youth empowerment was found to be influenced by acquired technical skill. The study recommended that effective technical education, youth empowerment, and social welfare service as a catalyst for poverty alleviation.

A study by Adebayo and Nassar (2014) on the impact of micro and small business entrepreneurship on poverty reduction in Ibadan Metropolis, South Western Nigeria revealed a significant impact on small business entrepreneurship on poverty reduction. In addition to that, the study found that the impact could have been more pronounced but for some socio-economic, infrastructural and management challenges, poverty reduction could not be substantively achieved. The recommended strengthening of youth entrepreneurship, increased publicity of government Business Development and Support Services, liberalization of access to and usage of business premises, reduction in cost of production, improvement of infrastructural facilities among others.

6. Methodology

6.1 Model Specification

This study adopted ordinary least squares (OLS) model. Ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression is a generalized linear modeling technique that may be used to

model a single response variable which has been recorded on at least an interval scale (Hutcheson and Moutinho, 2008).

At a very basic level, the relationship between a continuous response variable (Y) and a continuous explanatory variable (X) may be represented using a line of best-fit, where Y is predicted, at least to some extent, by X. If this relationship is linear, it may be appropriately represented mathematically using the straight line equation 'Y = α + β X'. In our study, Poverty Reduction (PR) is predicted by Youth Entrepreneurship (YE);

Single explanatory variable

Equation: $PR = \alpha + \beta YE$ (1)

Where; α =the value of PR when YE is equal to zero (also known as the intercept)

β = the slope of the line (also known as the regression coefficient)

The regression coefficient β describes the change in PR that is associated with a unit change in YE.

Multiple explanatory variables

Equation: $PR = \alpha + YE (\beta_1 EE + \beta_2 BMS)$ (2)

Where;

EE=Entrepreneurship Education

BMS=Business Management Skills

6.2 Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using Pearson Correlation Coefficient and Regression Analysis to determine the association between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction. The level of significance was measured at 0.01.

7. Findings

Table 1: Linear Regression Model

| Variable | Coefficient (β) | P-Value |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| Constant | 6.478 | 1.000 |
| Entrepreneurship education (EE) | .699 | 0.964** |
| Business management skills (BMS) | .644 | 0.907* |
| Prob>F=0.000 | | |
| R-Square=1.000 | | |

Constant: poverty reduction

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From the table above, we confirm that the model is fit since the F, value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 or 0.01 level of significance. This implies that all variables comfortably fit in the model.

Linearly the model becomes:

$$PR = \alpha + YE (\beta_1 EE + \beta_2 BMS + \beta_3 TS) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$PR = 6.478 + 1 (0.699 EE + 0.644 BMS) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

The results in table 1 shows that entrepreneurship education is significantly associated with poverty reduction ($r=0.964^{**}$, $p<0.01$). This implies that every youth who undergoes entrepreneurship education is mostly likely to reduce poverty in his/her household by up to 69.9% (Beta=0.699).

Similarly, the results in table 1 shows that business management skills is significantly associated with poverty reduction ($r=0.907^*$, $p<0.05$). This implies that every able bodied youth who acquires business management skills is most likely to reduce poverty in his/her household by up to 64.4% (Beta=0.644).

Table 2: The Relationship Between Youth Entrepreneurship and Poverty Reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government, Kano State, Nigeria

| | | Youth entrepreneurship | poverty reduction |
|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Youth entrepreneurship | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .711** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .003 |
| | N | 20 | 15 |
| poverty reduction | Pearson Correlation | .711** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .003 | |
| | N | 15 | 15 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results presented in table 2 reveal a positive and strong relationship between youth involvement in entrepreneurship and the level of poverty reduction in Tudun Wada at 0.01 level of significance ($r=0.711^{**}$, $p<0.01$). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected and the alternative hypothesis upheld that there is a positive and significant relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction in Tudun Wada Local Government. This implies that if youth get involved in entrepreneurship activities, there is a high likelihood of poverty reduction in their households. However, if youth do not participate in entrepreneurial activities, it becomes difficult to reduce poverty in their households.

8. Discussions

The study found a positive and strong relationship between youth entrepreneurship and poverty reduction ($r=0.711^*$, $p<0.01$). This study agrees with that of Ibitoye, et al (2015) where the findings suggested that there exist a positive and significant relationship between entrepreneurship and poverty reduction. Similarly, a study by Ogundele, et al (2012) also confirmed that entrepreneurship training and education were significantly related to the youth empowerment and social welfare services. Furthermore, Holmes et al (2013) also found that there is a strong empirical evidence that employment creation generally increases incomes and reduces poverty in low-income countries at both micro and macro levels.

9. Conclusion

Youth entrepreneurship reduces poverty. In other words youth involvement in entrepreneurial activities causes an increase in income, reduction in vulnerability and improvement in productivity hence reducing poverty.

10. Recommendations

There is need for the government of Nigeria to keep supporting the youth by providing them with grants, loans, entrepreneurial education and training which will enhance their capacity to self-sustenance and eventual poverty reduction in their households.

Furthermore, there is need for the local leaders of Tudun Wada local government to engage the youth in productive business oriented ventures such as participation in youth business forums, business tours and establishment of business projects which are supported and sponsored by the local leaders themselves. This will help fight unemployment and poverty vulnerability among the youth.

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The Common Challenges faced by Local Farmers in Accessing Agricultural Credit from Commercial Banks in Bichi Local Government, Kano State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study was set out to investigate the common challenges faced by the local farmers in accessing agricultural credit from commercial banks in Bichi local government. The study used a sample size of 359 respondents. The study revealed access to agricultural credit has often not being easy given the lack of collateral among farmers, high interest rate, complex bank system and late approval among others. This has often limited farmers to potentially be able to expand their production/productivity. The study recommended that in order to get maximum output, policies of commercial banks should be flexible and rate of interest should be less for small farmers than large farmers because small farmers hardly acknowledge their basic need. Similarly, efforts should be made to simplify the borrowing procedure in the terms of time-lag, acceptance of security, documentation and disbursement of loan.

1. Introduction

In the formal setting of Nigeria, commercial banks and other specialized agencies are charged with the responsibility of providing credit to farmers. Nigerian Agricultural, Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) are typical example of a specialized bank established for the purpose of advancing agricultural credit (Olowa, 2011). Through this bank, agricultural lending rates are regulated by government and at times subsidized. In addition to NACRDB, Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme (ACGS) was introduced in 1977 to encourage the trading banks to increase their supply of agricultural credit through the provision of suitable loan guarantee. In 2005, Obasanjo's administration evolve the 50 billion naira agricultural loans to farmers in which the state government were made to contribute counterpart fund for citizens of their state to participate. The government has also involved a number of institutions in the provisions of agricultural credit. For instance, Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs), the river Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), and soon have implemented various forms of agricultural credit programmes (Idachaba, 2013).

As a result of the poor financial situation of small farmers especially in terms of low income and low savings, both national and international organizations have embarked on various programmes to boost the supply of agricultural credit in several States in Nigeria (Ijere, 2015). Agricultural growth in Nigeria is increasingly recognized to be central to sustainable economic development. The sector plays a very significant role in addressing food security, poverty alleviation and human development challenges.

However, in more recent years, there has been a marked deterioration in the productivity of Nigeria's agriculture (Amaza and Maurice, 2015). Many reasons have been advanced for the declining agricultural productivity in Nigeria. One of the factors attributed to the declining productivity of the sector is farmers' limited access to credit facilities (Nwaru, et al., 2015). According to Alfred (2015), acquisition and utilization of credit for agricultural purposes promote productivity and consequently improved food security status of a community. Increase productivity depends on adoption and technical efficiency of improved farming technologies (Obwona, 2014). In an effort to increase adoption rate among farmer, their purchasing power to acquire modern agricultural technologies should be improved. Most of the Nigerian farmers are smallholders trapped in vicious cycle of poverty. It has been argued that when agricultural credits are made accessible to farmers it will go a long way in breaking this cycle of poverty and liberating the farmers to improve their production by adopting modern farming technologies which could enhance productivity and farmers' income.

2. Conceptual Perspective

Carter (2012) defined credit as obtaining control over the use of money at the present time in exchange for a promise to repay it at some future time. According to Sriram (2007), credit is a device for facilitating the temporary transfer of purchasing power from those who have surpluses of it to those who are in need of it. Nosiru (2010) defined agricultural credit as the amount of investment funds made available for agricultural production from resources outside the farm sector. According to Abbas (2003) agricultural credit is any of several credit vehicles used to finance agricultural transactions, including loans, notes, bills of exchange and bankers acceptances. Credit can be obtained for agricultural purposes from formal and informal sources. The informal type of agricultural credit refers to credit from moneylenders, friends, relatives and the like. Whenever small farmers need emergency loans or small investment funds, they often resort to moneylenders. In the formal setting of most developing countries, including Nigeria, commercial banks and other specialized agencies are charged with the responsibility of providing credit to farmers. Nigerian Agricultural, Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB) is a typical example of a specialized bank established for the purpose of advancing agricultural credit. In this study agricultural credit shall refer to the money farmers borrow from formal financial

institutions (specifically commercial banks) intended to improve their agricultural production. This study measured agricultural credit using loans.

Farm productivity refers to the output produced by a given level of input(s) in the agricultural sector of a given economy (Fulginiti and Perrin, 2011). According to Olayide and Heady (2012) farm productivity is the ratio of the value of total farm outputs to the value of total inputs used in farm production. In this study, agricultural productivity was measured using output/ha.

3. Contextual Perspective

Agriculture in Nigeria is labour intensive; dominated by small scale farmers who constitute 85 % of domestic agricultural output and transforms their available time into labour (Oluyole et al 2015). This labour is either consumed on farm work, sold for money, traded for goods and services, allocated to leisure or expended on some other alternative activities (Olayide and Atobatele, 2012). The amount of labour available for farm production depends on who is included in the labour force and how many hours they are able and willing to work as well as the amount of capital available to hire labour. Lack of labour limits the extent of work done in small holders' agriculture. It is a limiting factor of farm production in Bichi local government farming system. According to Olayide and Otobatele (2012), labour available for planting and weeding limits the amount of land a farmer can manage and the labour available for harvesting the crops limit the final output, that is, farm production. As a result, labour constitutes a major determinant of farm productivity in Bichi local government.

For instance, World Bank (2015) reported that labour productivity in Nigeria is low and average 1.2 percent between 2000 and 2014, lower than 1.7 and 2.2 percent recorded in Ghana and Cameroun, respectively. The low productivity of labour in Nigeria has been contributing to a fall in farm production in Nigeria by average of 0.2% every year since 2005 (Umaru and Yaqub, 2013). The National Bureau of Statistics (2014) attributed the low values in labour productivity in Nigeria to constraints facing economic activities such as power and transport infrastructure, access to finance, science and technological capabilities, quality of educational institutions, investment climate and favourable policy support to business. Apart from the aforementioned factors, labour productivity is also constrained by insufficient funding. Lack of sufficient funding of agricultural sector limits the cash available to hire labour for farm operations especially during the peak period. Farmers are poor and unable to access formal credit to enhance their liquidity position. This coupled with the mass exodus of labour to urban centres in search of white collar jobs results in increase wage for hired farm labours in rural areas hence eventually affecting the final farm productivity.

4. Research Objectives

To find out the common challenges faced by the local farmers in accessing agricultural credit from commercial banks in Bichi local government, Kano state, Nigeria.

5. Review of Related Literature

5.1 Credit

Credit is the trust that allows one party to provide money or resources to another party where that second party does not reimburse the first party immediately (there by generating a debt), instead arranges either to return or repay those resources or other materials of equal value at a later date (Nwaru, et al., 2006).

Nwaigbo (2014) noted that credit implies a promise by one party to pay another for money borrowed or goods and services received. Credit cannot be divorced from the banking sector as banks serve as a conduit for funds to be received in form of deposits from the surplus units of the economy and passed on to the deficit units who need funds for productive purposes. Commercial banks are therefore debtors to the depositors of funds and creditors to the borrowers of funds. Commercial bank credit is the borrowing capacity provided to an individual, government, firm or organization by the banking system in the form of loans.

Adebayo and Adeola (2008) observed that agricultural credit enhances productivity and promotes standard of living by breaking vicious cycle of poverty of the resource poor farmers. Similarly, Nwaru et al. (2006) observed that credit facilitates adoption of innovations leading to increased farm productivity and income, encourages capital formation and improves marketing efficiency.

Nasir (2007) explains that credit plays a pivotal role in development. It helps farmers to undertake new investments and adopt new technologies to increase agricultural yield. Lack of access of the rural poor to institutional loan has negative impact for rural growth and well-being. Institutional loans are normally used for production and investment purposes while informal loans are squandered away on consumption. Being short- term, informal loans do not contribute to rural development, as these cannot be channeled to long-run productive activities. In this study, agricultural credit was measured using loans.

5.2 Loans

In a loan, the borrower initially receives or borrows an amount of money, called the principal, from the lender, and is obligated to pay back or repay an equal amount of money to the lender at a later time. The loan is generally provided at a cost, referred to as interest on the debt, which provides an incentive for the lender to engage in the loan. In a legal loan, each of these obligations and restrictions is enforced by contract, which can also place the borrower under additional restrictions known as loan covenants. Although this article focuses on monetary loans, in practice any material object might be lent (Eugene and Paul, 2012).

According to CBN (2015), the amount of loans and advances given by the banking sector to economic agents constitute bank credit. Bank credit is often accompanied with some collateral that helps to ensure the repayment of the loan in the event of default. Credit channels savings into productive investment thereby encouraging economic growth. Thus, the availability of credit allows the role of intermediation

to be carried out, which is important for the growth of the economy. The total domestic bank credit can be divided into two: credit to the private sector and credit to the public sector. Thus, for this paper, we adopt the definition of credit given by CBN (2015), which is defined above.

6. Methodology

6.1 Analytical Technique

Access to agricultural credit is assumed to have a very significant impact on farm productivity. This is because if the credit is used for its intended purpose, say, buy more land, buy pesticides or fertilizers, buy improved seeds, hire more labourers, buy farm tools or acquire modern farming methods, there is a guarantee of increase in farm production. Take for example, if a farmer accesses agricultural credit to buy more land, it would mean that his hectares will increase hence the likelihood of increasing productivity. Furthermore, the use of modern farming methods such as use of improved seeds ensures that crops are healthy and not susceptible to diseases hence increasing the yields. Similarly, hiring more laborers at an extra cost to work in the farm ensures that every farm detail is handled such as digging, weeding, irrigating, harvesting etc, this eventually guarantees increase in productivity/output.

6.2 Research Design

A cross-sectional survey design was used in this study using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. According to Amin (2005) a cross-sectional survey design is flexible in both quantitative and qualitative research. Quantitative approach was used to describe the statistics of the current situation and investigate the relationships between the study variables using information gained from the questionnaires while qualitative approach was intended to establish the phenomenon regarding agricultural credit by getting their views through face to face interviews.

6.3 Research Instruments

6.3.1 Questionnaires

The researcher used closed questionnaires to collect primary data from the farmers regarding agricultural credit and farm productivity. The researcher preferred questionnaires because they are easy to collect data with, since it takes short period of time and covers a larger population compared to other data collection tools.

6.3.2 Interviews

The study used face to face interviews to collect data from the selected key interview informants. This involved a face to face interview with 10 farmers from each of the 12 (strata) divisions, making a total of 120 participants. The researcher

preferred to use face to face interviews because people tend to share a lot more information when someone is asking the questions in person and because it is much easier to ask a follow-up question and get examples to support what people are saying.

7. Discussion of findings

The objective of this study was to find out the common challenges faced by the local farmers in accessing agricultural credit from commercial banks in Bichi local government. Questionnaires were retrieved from 359 respondents and their responses were summarized in table below:

| Common Challenges in accessing credit | Frequency | Percent (%) |
|---------------------------------------|------------|--------------|
| lack of collateral | 91 | 25.3 |
| high interest rate | 84 | 23.4 |
| complex bank system | 63 | 17.5 |
| late approval | 47 | 13.1 |
| loan defaulting | 29 | 8.1 |
| lack of credit information | 21 | 5.8 |
| bank location | 16 | 4.5 |
| lack of bank account | 8 | 2.2 |
| Total | 359 | 100.0 |

Source: *Primary Data, 2015*

Table shows that collateral (25.3%) is the most common challenge faced by local farmers when accessing agricultural credit from commercial banks, followed by high interest rate (23.4%), complex bank systems (17.5%) and late approval (13.1%).

The researcher also used face to face interviews from 120 key interview informants to capture their in-depth opinions regarding the challenges they face when trying to accessing agricultural loans from commercial banks. The farmers shared similar views and the researcher decided to summarize some of the sampled responses as indicated below:

“...they ask for a lot of documentation, such as where are you coming from, what do you do, how much do you earn, who will stand as a guarantor for you etc. the whole process can take two to three months before you can finally get the loan....”

“.....when you want a loan from those people, they can ask for collateral security such as land title, vehicle, house etc, which smallholder farmers like us do not have.....,”

“..... I did not have proper farm records, so they could not value my earnings. They almost refused to give me the loan but when I took them to my maize farm,

they were convinced though they ended up giving me half of what I had applied for....”

“.....Bichi local government does not have commercial banks in rural areas so sometimes we have to travel long distances to banks that are located in town areas. The whole thing is quite tiring and discouraging. Most of my friends seem not interested in traveling such costly and long distance just to borrow a loan....”

“.....the loan interest rates are very high for smallholder farmers like us. The local commercial bank in my town area charges up to 25% interest, something I cannot afford!.....”

“.....the commercial banks in my home area do not educate farmers on what the loan is all about. They only tell you that agricultural loans are available for borrowing. However, after receiving the loan, they give very many terms and conditions such as when you should return the money, which sometimes is too short for us farmers.....”

“.....the loan amount given by these commercial banks is very small and is not enough to buy expensive agricultural inputs. Most of us farmers here we just depend on small loans to buy fertilizers, pesticides and improved seeds.....”

“...these loans are available but most of the farmers do not know about it. In fact me I got to know about it from a friend of mine who has a relative working in Abuja town; we indeed lack knowledge about these loans. The banks concerned should come up to the grassroots’ level to educate the local famers of their loan services.....”

The above results show that loans are difficult to be accessed by the local farmers and therefore it is necessitated for the commercial banks and the federal governments of Nigeria to make these loans easily accessible to farmers at affordable rates since the borrowers are poor and most of them lack collateral.

8. Conclusion

The study established that access to agricultural credit has often not being easy given the lack of collateral among farmers, high interest rate, complex bank system and late approval among others. This has often limited farmers to potentially be able to expand their production/productivity.

9. Recommendations

In view of the above findings, the following is recommended:

1. Assessing the potential ability of commercial banks to provide credit in the absence of collateral could help improve access.

2. For getting maximum output, policies of commercial banks should be flexible and rate of interest should be less for small farmers than large farmers because small farmers hardly acknowledge their basic need.
3. Efforts should be made to simplify the borrowing procedure in the terms of time-lag, acceptance of security, documentation and disbursement of loan.
4. Furthermore, the credit facility should be provided on time, otherwise the delay in the completion procedure for taking loans will occur and the farmers will not get maximum profit regarding their plans.
5. Commercial banks should put more commitments in implementing vigorously the policy of granting loan by purpose so that those segments of the nation's agricultural produce that are targeted for improved productivity will be achieved.
6. Appropriate simplification of loan documentation is needed. All supporting documents for loan applications should be made available in local/vernacular language to local farmers.

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Entrepreneurial Culture among Youths in Ogun State-Owned Universities, Nigeria

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Abstract. This paper investigated the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian youths in universities; assessed the level of each of the indices of entrepreneurial culture in Ogun state owned universities and also provided some plausible strategies that can promote effective entrepreneurial culture that will help quell unemployment and thus generate employment for the Nigerian youths.

With the use of descriptive research design of ex-post facto type, the study established that there was no significant difference in level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities and there were positive relationship between entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial value; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial behaviour; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial behaviour while there was no relationship entrepreneurial mindsets and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Based on these findings, it was recommended that Governments, NGOs and international bodies should assist Nigerian universities to improving undergraduates' chances of developing a strong entrepreneurship spirit. All Nigerian universities authorities / management should ensure that the teaching of Entrepreneurship Education is being made to be practical oriented and Students should be encouraged to set up business centres in the campus in order to gain necessary experience. Families and Parents should help in instilling entrepreneurship culture even in their interaction with their wards on career development and life skills.

1. Introduction

The importance of entrepreneurship education and its potency to generate employment can not be overemphasised. Thus, the relevance of its introduction in universities' curriculum. The introduction of the mandatory entrepreneurship education in Nigerian universities was a presidential initiative and the resolution

which its formation was hinged upon was enacted in a meeting held on 28 September 2006 in the secretariat of the National Universities Commission (NUC) with education stakeholder. The central message of this resolution was that the NUC in consonance with the Federal Government of Nigeria should enhance the employability and self employment potential of Nigerian youth in the Nation's universities (Dada, Fayomi & Simeon-Fayomi, 2014). The strenght of this introduction was as a result of the experiences gathered on the effectiveness of entrepreneurship in developed countries, which can also have positive impacts on the economy and the quality of life of people in a developing countries like Nigeria.

Kuratko (2009) in Suraju (2016) describes entrepreneurship as a kind of behaviour that includes initiative taking, the organizing of social economic mechanisms to turn resources and situations to practical account and the acceptance of risk of failure. As such entrepreneurship revolves around the individual who searches for changes, responds to it and exploits it as an opportunity.

In similar vein Oladele, Akeke and Oladunjoye (2011) citing Chigunta (2001) notes that entrepreneurship has been receiving increasing recognition as a source of job creation, empowerment for the unemployed and economic dynamism in a rapidly globalizing world. Schnurr and Newing (1997) cited in Oladele, Akeke and Oladunjoye (2011) justify the need for promoting entrepreneurship culture on the ground that youth in all societies have sterling qualities such as resourcefulness, initiative, drive, imagination, enthusiasm, zest, dash, ambition, energy, boldness, audacity and courage which are all valuable traits for entrepreneurship development. According to Akuegwu and Nwi-ue (2016), when students develop entrepreneurship culture, wealth creation is possible; jobs are created; individuals and collective wellbeing becomes a reality.

Gibb (1987) in Esuh (2011) describes entrepreneurial culture as a product of culture which is the set of values, attitudes and beliefs that is supporting the exercise in the community of independent entrepreneurial behaviour in a business context. These values form an entrepreneurial culture where entrepreneur work effective and efficiently in order to contribute to the economic development. Entrepreneurship culture in a university setting would refer to students' attitude to expand beyond scientific side of research to go for commercialization of general knowledge (Chiesa & Chiaroni, 2005 in Akuegwu & Nwi-ue, 2016). Entrepreneurship culture can be developed in school setting through the teaching of entrepreneurship education, For entrepreneurship to be an antidote to joblessness and youth restiveness, it must have a culture, which needs to be developed (Akuegwu & Nwi-ue, 2016).

According to Brownson (2015), Entrepreneurial Culture is a society that depicts the exhibition of entrepreneurial attributes, entrepreneurial values, entrepreneurial mindset and entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial Attributes (EA) these are the attributes that are important at the early stages of the entrepreneurial process

and can sustain an individual during those early stages. Entrepreneurial Values (EV) are the driving force for decision making. They have important implications not only for the decision to pursue entrepreneurship but also in the way in which the individual entrepreneur approaches a venture. Entrepreneurial Mindset (EM) is a mental attitude which determines how an individual will interpret and respond to situations and Entrepreneurial Behaviour (EB) is referred to as new venture creation, firm birth or startup.

According to Anyadike, Emeh and Ukah (2012), the dexterity with which hunger and poverty have devastated lives and future ambition of youths especially graduates in Nigeria, have led to scholars prescribing entrepreneurship development as the permanent cure for extreme hunger and poverty which is necessitated by the rate of unemployment and its effect on both the people and the nation. More than half of the Nigerian populations are under the age of 30 according to the National Population Commission (2001). Therefore it can be asserted that the economy of Nigeria is a youth economy. Expectedly, today's youth will become in a short decade tomorrow's parents, leaders, labour force and armies. However, the Nigerian youths are said to be confronted with poverty, unemployment, urbanization, lack of capacity and skills needed to move the economy forward (Oviawe, 2010).

This implies that if Nigerians youth are mentored, guarded in the possess adequate entrepreneurial culture while in schools it will provide enabling environment for business start-ups and they will economically be engaged thereby shunning the illegal acts. It is in this respect that this paper seeks to investigate the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian youths in universities; assessing the level of each of the indices of entrepreneurial culture in Ogun state owned universities and thus providing some plausible strategies that can promote effective entrepreneurial culture that will help quell unemployment and thus generate employment for the Nigerian youths.

2. Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- (a) assess the level of entrepreneurial culture among youths of state-owned universities in Ogun state;
- (b) investigate the relationship among the indices of entrepreneurship culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities; and
- (c) determine the influence of socio-demographic factors (gender, age group, religious affiliation, level and course of study) on the youths' entrepreneurial culture in Ogun state Universities.

3. Research Questions

To achieve the objectives of the study, the following research questions are raised:

1. What is the level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities?
2. Is there any relationship among the indices of entrepreneurship culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities?
3. Would there be any difference in the indices of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender, age group, religious affiliation, level and course of study?

4. Methodology

The research design that was adopted for this study is the descriptive research design of ex-post facto type. This offered the researcher opportunity to collect data without manipulating any of the variables of interest in the study. This method was considered appropriate for this study because it helps to capture attitude, pattern of past behaviour, opinions that are held, and processes that are going on. This study aims at gathering information from tertiary institutions students that are considered to be a representative sample of the population. Respondents in this study were students in their final year of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye and Tai-Solarin University of Education, Ijagun. They numbered 200, with 50 (25 Males and 25 Females) students randomly selected from four (4) faculties of the university. The Purposive sampling technique was adopted for the selection of sample. The resulting sample consisted of 127 (55.7%) male, 101 (44.3%) female; 143 (62.7%) Christian, 79 (34.6%) Muslim and 6 (2.6%) Traditionalist; 160 (70.2%) Business related courses and 68 (29.8%) non business related courses. The average age of the respondents was 20 years.

The instrument that was constructed by the researcher was used to collect data for this study. The instrument is a questionnaire titled 'Entrepreneurial Culture Questionnaire' (ECQ) and is divided into five (5) sections (i.e. Section A, B, C, D & E). Section A requests for the personal information of the respondents e.g sex, age group, religion, course of study, level etc. Section B contain 5 statements on respondents' opinion on their Entrepreneurial Attributes. Section C consists of 5 items. This was designed to elicit information on the Entrepreneurial mindsets of Nigerian youth. Section D contains 9 items designed to measure respondents' Entrepreneurial behaviour. Section E contains 6 items designed to measure respondents' Entrepreneurial Value. Each of the items in these sections are rated on a four- point likert scale type ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly disagree. The responses are scored 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

In an attempt to determine the validity of the instrument, the researcher gave the draft of the questionnaire to some experts in educational evaluation to ascertain its face and construct validity. Ambiguous items were pointed out, some items were restructured and irrelevant ones were completely deleted. To test the reliability of the questionnaire, a test-retest with two weeks interval was carried out. The instrument was administered on 30 students of Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta who did not participate in the main study. The two administrations of the

ECQ yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.89 which is strong enough to justify the use of the instrument.

The researcher with the assistance of one trained research assistant visited the institutions selected for the study. The respondents were asked to fill the instrument independently before returning them to the researcher. The questionnaire was administered and collected within the period of two week. Four hundred questionnaires were administered but 387 copies of the questionnaire were return which amounted to 94% success of questionnaire administration.

The statistical analysis that was used for testing the raised research question for this study includes Descriptive Statistics (mean and standard deviation) and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) Analysis at 0.05 alpha level.

5. Results

Research Question One: What is the level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities?

Table 1: Level of Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in TASUED and OOU

| Entrepreneurial Culture and its indices | OOU | | TASUED | | T-value | Sig | Decision |
|---|--------|-------|--------|-------|---------|------|----------|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | | | |
| Entrepreneurial Attribute | 18.300 | 1.850 | 18.600 | 1.740 | 1.234 | .219 | Not sig. |
| Entrepreneurial Value | 32.857 | 4.028 | 32.284 | 4.902 | .966 | .335 | Not sig. |
| Entrepreneurial Mindsets | 17.586 | 2.380 | 17.757 | 3.044 | .477 | .634 | Not sig. |
| Entrepreneurial Behaviour | 39.526 | 5.067 | 38.842 | 6.255 | .911 | .363 | Not sig. |

Table 1 above show that the calculated t value of 1.23 (Entrepreneurial Attribute), .966 (Entrepreneurial Value), .477 (Entrepreneurial Mindsets), .911 (Entrepreneurial Behaviour) respectively are less than the critical value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that there was no significant difference in level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities.

Research Question Two: Is there any relationship among the indices of entrepreneurship culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities

Table 2: Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Matrix of Entrepreneurial Culture indices

| Indices of EC | MEAN | SD | EA | EV | EM | EB |
|---------------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|----|
| EA | 18.425 | 1.807 | 1 | | | |
| EV | 32.618 | 4.412 | .168* | 1 | | |
| EM | 17.657 | 2.672 | .316** | .206** | 1 | |
| EB | 39.241 | 5.590 | .152* | .467** | -.088 | 1 |

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table 2 above revealed that there are positive relationship between Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Value ($r_{(228)} = .168$; $p < 0.05$), Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Mindsets ($r_{(228)} = .316$; $p < 0.05$), Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Behaviour ($r_{(228)} = .152$; $p < 0.05$), Entrepreneurial Value and Entrepreneurial Mindsets ($r_{(228)} = .206$; $p < 0.05$), Entrepreneurial Value and Entrepreneurial Behaviour ($r_{(228)} = .467$; $p < 0.05$) while there was no relationship Entrepreneurial Mindsets and Entrepreneurial Behaviour ($r_{(228)} = -.088$; $p > 0.05$).

Research Question Three: Would there be any difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender, age group, religious affiliation, level and course of study?

Table 3a.: Comparison of male and female entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities.

| | N | Mean | SD | df | T-cal | Sig | Decision |
|--------|-----|---------|-------|-----|-------|------|-------------|
| Male | 127 | 109.834 | 9.407 | 226 | 2.503 | .013 | Significant |
| Female | 101 | 106.811 | 8.595 | | | | |

Table 3 above shows that the calculated t value of 2.50 is greater than the critical value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with 226 degree of freedom. The mean score of the male undergraduates is higher than the mean score of the female undergraduate. This implies that there is significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender.

Table 3b: Comparison of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on course of study.

| | N | Mean | SD | df | T-cal | Sig | Decision |
|------------------------------|-----|----------|----------|-----|-------|------|-------------|
| Business related courses | 160 | 107.6438 | 8.32164 | 226 | 2.171 | .031 | Significant |
| Non business related courses | 68 | 110.5000 | 10.68756 | | | | |

Table 4 above shows that the calculated t value of 2.171 is greater than the critical value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with 226 degree of freedom. Furthermore, the mean score the undergraduates offering non business related courses (110.50) is higher than their counter that are offering business related courses (107.64). This implies that there is significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on course of study.

Table 3c: Comparison of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on Age group

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Decision |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|------|------|-----------------|
| Between Groups | 36.917 | 3 | 12.306 | .145 | .933 | Not Significant |
| Within Groups | 19016.079 | 224 | 84.893 | | | |
| Total | 19052.996 | 227 | | | | |

Table 5 presents the result of ANOVA test on entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on Age group. The F value of .145 obtained in the test is not significant at 0.05 level of significance. It is therefore concluded that there is no significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on Age group

Table 3d: Comparison of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on religious affiliation

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Decision |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|-----------------|
| Between Groups | 181.764 | 2 | 90.882 | 1.084 | .340 | Not Significant |
| Within Groups | 18871.232 | 225 | 83.872 | | | |
| Total | 19052.996 | 227 | | | | |

Table 6 presents the result of ANOVA test on entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on religious affiliation. The F value of 1.084 obtained in the test is not significant at 0.05 level of significance. It is therefore concluded that there is no significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on religious affiliation.

Table 3e: Comparison of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on their level

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Decision |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|-------------|
| Between Groups | 2270.965 | 3 | 756.988 | 10.104 | .000 | Significant |
| Within Groups | 16782.031 | 224 | 74.920 | | | |
| Total | 19052.996 | 227 | | | | |

Table 7 presents the result of ANOVA test of entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on their level. The F value of 10.104 obtained in the test is significant at 0.05 level of significance. It is therefore concluded that there is significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on their level.

6. Discussion

Research question one stated that what is the level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities? The result of the analysis in Table 1 revealed that the indices of entrepreneurial culture (Entrepreneurial Attribute, Entrepreneurial Value, Entrepreneurial Mindsets, Entrepreneurial Behaviour) of the universities were not different. This implies that there was no significant difference in level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities. This means that the youth in the two state universities studied had the same level of Entrepreneurial Cultures, since their

level of exposure are not significantly different irrespective of their background and the location of the institutions. This is in line with the findings of Dutse, Mamaki and Djibo (2013) who discovered that there was significant difference in the attitudes of students towards entrepreneurship education taught in their various institutions.

Research question two stated that is there any relationship among the indices of entrepreneurship culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities? The results of the analysis revealed that there are positive relationship between Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Value, Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Mindsets, Entrepreneurial Attribute and Entrepreneurial Behaviour, Entrepreneurial Value and Entrepreneurial Mindsets, Entrepreneurial Value and Entrepreneurial Behaviour while there was no relationship Entrepreneurial Mindsets and Entrepreneurial Behaviour. This corroborated the findings of Rauch and Frese (2006) in Abaho (2013) that Entrepreneurial values develop behaviors, skills and attitudes that help people to succeed in all spheres of life. According to Olomi, (2013) Entrepreneurial values that pre-dispose people to entrepreneurial behaviour include strong belief in one's ability to make things happen, self-directed action, value of know-who and trust and that rewards come with effort. These values, according to Olomi, act as triggers, incentives and sustainers of entrepreneurial tendencies.

Research Question Three stated would there be any difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender? The result of the analysis in Table 3a-3e revealed that there was significant difference in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender, course of study and level while no significant different existed in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on Age group and religious affiliation. Siyanbola , et. al (2012) finding supported the result of this study when they discovered students' socio-demographics was found to significantly explain entrepreneurial interest. Wang and Wong (2004) also discovered that gender played the most significant factor influencing students' entrepreneurial interest in Singapore with females being less entrepreneurial.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

It can be concluded from the finding of this study that there was no significant difference in level of the Entrepreneurial Cultures' indices of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities and there were positive relationship between entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial value; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial attribute and entrepreneurial behaviour; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial mindsets; entrepreneurial value and entrepreneurial behaviour while there was no relationship entrepreneurial mindsets and entrepreneurial behaviour. Futhermore, there was significant difference in the

entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on gender, course of study and level while no significant different existed in the entrepreneurial culture of Nigerian Youths in Ogun state-owned Universities based on Age group and religious affiliation.

Based on these findings, it was recommended that Governments, NGOs and international bodies should assist Nigerian universities to improving undergraduates' chances of developing a strong entrepreneurship spirit. All Nigerian universities authorities / management should ensure that the teaching of Entrepreneurship Education is being made to be practical oriented and Students should be encouraged to set up business centres in the campus in order to gain necessary experience. Families and Parents should help in instilling entrepreneurship culture even in their interaction with their wards on career development and life skills.

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Planning Skills and Career Performance among Self-Employed University Graduates in North-West Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria

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Abstract. Drawing upon human capital theory, this study examined the effect of entrepreneurship skills on career performance. A total of 319 self-employed university graduates in the northwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria participated in the study. The present study also employed a cross sectional research design in which data was collected and analysed within a short period of time. Results using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) supported the hypothesized direct effect of entrepreneurship skills on career performance. Specifically, there was a positive relationship between planning skills and career performance.. Theoretical, methodological and practical implications are discussed. In particular, the results recommended that entrepreneurship skills acquired through the mandatory entrepreneurship education programme for undergraduate students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria are an important consideration in helping self-employed graduates to enhance their career performance.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship skills, planning skills, career performance

1. Background

The issue of entrepreneurship skills has been a common topic in many countries for a long time. The concern of entrepreneurial skills is rooted from the desire to have students who are job makers than job seekers. This need was emphasized by the drive to have university students introduced to entrepreneurship studies. According to Andrea (2010), the concept of formal entrepreneurship education at the university level is a relatively new one. Citing the works of Volkmann (2004), Andrea (2010) reveals that the first courses that specifically addressed entrepreneurship took place at the Harvard Business School in 1947. In other countries like UK, the original entrepreneurial courses were launched in 1980s together with the UKs first initiative for Enterprise in Higher Education (Elton

1991, Kirby, 2005). From that time, high education programs focusing on the teaching of entrepreneurship have gone global. According to Volkmann (2004) it had been predicted that imparting entrepreneurship skills among higher education students would become a major academic discipline for university education in the 21st century.

Enu (2012) recognized that the entrepreneurs' business management skills must be given primary attention in handling issues of employment creation and survival of enterprises. Ahmad, Basir & Kitchen (2010) reiterate that if the owner-manager lacks the necessary skills, the business is doomed to fail.

Moreover, the issue of efficiency in career performance and or firm performance is a global one (Msoka, 2013). Developed countries focussed on building the capacities of their work force, when they wanted to deal with problems of low levels of productivity at either individual, firm or national levels. It has long been believed that a competent and efficient workforce is the spring board for economic growth and development of any nation, as it is for the growth and success of any company. The need for improved career performance was the force behind the great global inventions and innovations such as the scientific management approach, the skills approach and so on. With the exception of the less developed countries, efficiency in career performance or the performance/productivity of individual employees is well trucked in most organisations of the developed world, and its contribution to the growth or otherwise of the firms and nations has always been recognised. The focus of employers has for a long time shifted from academic paper qualifications to the generic or soft skills, which are social and personal skills, expected to accomplish the various multifaceted requirements of work.

There are different reports about the inadequacy of the graduates to perform as expected from various countries in the past; but most of these reports are attributing these inadequacies to the low levels of soft skills possessed by these graduates. Graduate entrepreneurs, in whatever field they are, require skills in the field of management and these skills, have been to a great extent lacking over the long term (Msoka, 2013). This inadequacy has been attributed to lack of entrepreneurship education and training in entrepreneurial skills, which according to Lorraine & Peter (2007) reduced management capacity and performance in new firms in South Africa and has been given as the major reason behind levels of entrepreneurial creation and the high failure rate of new ventures.. According to Lorraine & Peter (2007) most higher education institutions have been focusing on academic quality and qualifications other than quality of entrepreneurship training and so the performance of local and graduate entrepreneurs has been poor but employers and other stakeholders have not been able to identify the key factors majorly responsible for this.

In this 21st century, almost all countries globally have recognised the need for enhancing the performance of higher education graduates, by uplifting their entrepreneurial skills through quality entrepreneurship education and training. It has

also been accepted that entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship skills are intertwined and as a result, most countries have established entrepreneurship education centres in many higher institutions of learning, with a goal of imparting entrepreneurial skills among their graduates so as to improve their enterprising attitudes, intentions and capabilities, as well as their employability (Lorraine & Peter, 2007).

Despite such undisputed recognition and policy support, no study has been conducted to specifically establish whether the entrepreneurship education centres have imparted the required entrepreneurial skills and whether those skills have enhanced/ boosted the performance of the graduates as employers and employees in the case of Nigeria

Another important gap identified by the researcher in this study is that, no study has examined the impact of entrepreneurial skills on career performance of graduates in Nigeria, within the perspectives of the Human Capital Theory of Entrepreneurship theory. This study intends cover all these gaps and come up with conclusions concerning the identified gaps.

The career performance of university graduates in Nigeria has been reported to be low in recent years (Pitan & Adedeji, 2012). It has been observed that majority of the graduates still find it very difficult and impracticable to find their feet on ground as business founders or as employees managing entities to a strong better position (Adeshina, 2014). The levels of creativity, team performance, social networking, tolerance and accountability have been reported to be inadequate. And yet the general performance of entities, including those started by graduates and the none-graduates has also been reported to be poor, as many are not able to survive for longer years (Mohammed, 2014). The continued high unemployed levels (Ibrahim, 2010) is also another sign that the graduates are not doing a good job in the field of job creation and expansion. The continued incompetence of the graduates in Nigeria go with several unfavourable consequences to the country and its nationals, some of which are already being experienced while others may show up if the problem persists.

The persistent low performance level of graduates has been blamed on many factors by different stakeholders and academicians. Two most prominent articles on this issue, have attributed the problem to the inadequate and irrelevant education contents in the curriculum of most programs of study in the country. Among these, Pitan & Adedeji (2012) have attributed it to the big mismatch between the skills imparted among the graduates vis-as-vis those required in the job market, indicating that university graduates in Nigeria have been poorly prepared for work in recent years. Adenike (2016) has attributed it to inability of the entrepreneurship education curriculum to meet its introduction objectives, which has resulted into many uncoordinated revisions and changes in the pedagogical structure of the curricula over the years. Other factors blamed include irrelevancy of the content and

inadequate funding of the education institutions which see them produce half-baked graduates, who are inadequate in skills

This study was conducted to fit into this gap, to document evidences on the effect of entrepreneurship skills on career performance among self employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria.

2. Hypothesis

H₁: Planning skills relate positively and significantly with career performance among self-employed university graduates in North -west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria.

3. Planning Skills

Traditionally, planning was the first stage within the four stages of management process (planning, scheduling, directing and controlling). Planning skills are skills that allow an individual to look ahead, accomplish goals and avoid emotional, financial, physical or social hardships (Kibuuka, 2011). These skills allow an individual to make or implement decisions. The Employee Development Systems, Inc. (EDSI) (nd) has called planning skills survival skills, implying that for a manager or entrepreneur to survive in today's changing business world, he/she must engage in effective planning. Planning helps managers to use less resources than they would use if they had not planned. And it helps them to do more with fewer resources. In perspectives of an entrepreneur and in business sense, planning involves developing a business plan. George & Johns (2001) and Mullins (2002) explained that planning has to do with setting goals, mobilising and allocating resources. In this review section, we discuss planning skills of the graduates with respect to five elements of planning namely; goal setting skills, business plan development skills, resource mobilisation skills, marketing skills and customer service skills.

4. Planning Skills and Career Performance

Previous researches support theoretical assertions of a positive relationship between planning skills and career performance. For example, Hayton (2015) identified a positive relationship between entrepreneurship skills and some measures of business performance. In line with these authors, Hayton (2015) indicated that leadership skills and entrepreneurship skills combine to influence strategy formalization and responsiveness; factors that are positively associated with performance and growth. One potential implication of Hayton's findings contained in Lorraine & Peter (2007) report is that successful interventions to improve entrepreneurship skills are likely to result in improved graduate's performance, not only among the graduates but also among a wider group of entrepreneurs for whom entrepreneurship skills might be improved as employees as well as entrepreneurs.

In a related study, Qureshi, Saeed & Wasti (2016) reported that planning skills result in enhanced career performance of entrepreneurs. In the same vein,

Etonyeaku *et al.* (2014) found results similar to the study conducted by Qureshi *et al.* (2016) that planning skills, such as those related to co-ordinating business resources significantly and positively influence career performance of Secretarial Education Graduates of Colleges of Education in Enugu State, Nigeria.

5. Methodology

5.1 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive correlational and a cross-sectional survey research design

5.2 Population of the Study

The study targeted all university graduates from both federal and state universities, who graduated between 2010 to 2015, who were currently self-employed and registered within the seven states of North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria. According to the State Ministries of Commerce and Industry (2015), there are 24000 students who have graduated from these universities for the period of five years and are registered with the state ministries of commerce and industry as entrepreneurs. Table 1 shows a distribution of study population.

Using this criterion, the researcher marked all those respondents who qualified and then generated a list of those who qualify. Using the list of qualifying graduate entrepreneurs, selected using the inclusion/exclusion criterion listed above, the researcher applied systematic random sampling to finally select respondents from each state.

Table 1: Sampling procedure

| State | Target Population | Sample Size | Qualified population | Interval |
|---------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|----------|
| Kaduna | 6100 | 100 | 4000 | 40 |
| Kano | 4200 | 69 | 3200 | 46 |
| Sokoto | 3850 | 63 | 3250 | 51 |
| Zamfara | 2600 | 43 | 1500 | 35 |
| Katsina | 2500 | 41 | 1458 | 36 |
| Jigawa | 2350 | 38 | 2100 | 55 |
| Kebbi | 2400 | 39 | 2150 | 55 |
| Total | 24000 | 393 | | |

Source: Computed by Researcher State Ministries of Commerce and Industries and Establishment Offices (2015)

6. Data Analysis

The present study assessed the theoretical model using PLS path modeling in conjunction with Smart PLS 2.0 software (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015). In the present study, the PLS path modeling is considered appropriate technique of data analysis for several reasons

This section presents the results of the data analysis performed using both the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Smart PLS software. The first analysis undertaken was the data screening and cleaning using SPSS before conducting the main analyses to ensure that the statistical assumptions necessary for multivariate analysis are not violated. Firstly, the chapter presents the response rate reported in section 4.1. Next, the results of data screening and diagnostic tests are presented in Section 4.2. The results of profile characteristics of respondents are then presented in section 4.3. Section 4.4 presents the findings of the study on each of the three study objectives and finally section 4.5 presents the results of PLS path modeling estimation and structural model generated from the study. Also in the final section, a summary drawing together the results of the afore-mentioned analyses was provided, which serves as basis for the discussion of findings

Table 2.

Demographic Profile of the Respondents Surveyed

| Profile Characteristics | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 203 | 63.6 |
| Female | 116 | 36.4 |
| Age | | |
| 20-30 years | 151 | 47.3 |
| 31-40 years | 82 | 25.7 |
| 41-50 years | 37 | 11.6 |
| 50 years and above | 49 | 15.4 |
| Education | | |
| Bachelor Degree | 155 | 48.6 |
| Masters | 98 | 30.7 |
| PhD | 35 | 11.0 |
| Others | 31 | 9.7 |
| Specialization | | |
| Sciences | 47 | 14.7 |
| Social Sciences | 210 | 65.8 |
| Engineering | 40 | 12.5 |
| Others | 22 | 6.9 |
| Business Type | | |
| Sole proprietorship | 36 | 11.3 |
| Partnership | 111 | 34.8 |
| Limited Liability Company | 172 | 53.9 |
| Number of workers employed | | |
| Less than 50 employees | 14 | 4.4 |
| 50-99 employees | 163 | 51.1 |
| 100-249 employees | 73 | 22.9 |
| 250-499 employees | 37 | 11.6 |
| 500 or more employees | 32 | 10.0 |
| Industry | | |
| Food and beverages | 79 | 24.8 |

| | | |
|--------------------------|-----|------|
| Packaging/containers | 26 | 8.2 |
| Metal and metal products | 32 | 10 |
| Printing and publishing | 138 | 43.3 |
| Agro-allied, furniture | 23 | 7.2 |
| Building materials | 5 | 1.6 |
| Others | 16 | 5 |
| <hr/> | | |
| Business Age | | |
| Less than 3 years | 170 | 53.3 |
| 3 – 6 years | 32 | 10.0 |
| 7 – 9 years | 61 | 19.1 |
| 10 – 12 years | 56 | 17.6 |

Source: *Researcher's Computation from Primary data (2016)*

Table 2 further indicates that 47 of the participants, representing 14.7 percent were sciences' graduates and majority, which is 210 or 65.8 percent were Social Sciences graduates. Furthermore, Table 2 showed that 40 participants or 12.5 percent belong to Engineering discipline. More so, of the sampled respondents, 22, representing 6.9 percent were falling in other educational disciplines, other than those mentioned above.

In terms of number of workers employed, Table 4.7 further revealed that 14 (4.4 percent) of the participants' firms employed less than 50 workers. One hundred and sixty three participants (51.1 percent) reported that they employ between 50 and 99 employees and only 73 of the participating firms, representing 22.9 percent employ between 100 and 249 employees. Thirty seven of the participants' firms, representing 11.6 percent employ between 250 and 499 employees and only 32 of the participating firms, representing 10 percent employ 500 or more employees.

In terms of industry in which the participants operate, Table 2 further indicated that 79 or 24.8 percent were operating in Food and beverages industry. Relatedly, 26 (8.2 percent) operates in packaging/containers industry, 32 (10 percent) operates in metal and metal products industry. Additionally, 138 or 43.3 percent were into printing and publishing industry. Furthermore, 23 of firms surveyed, representing 7.2 percent were into agro-allied business, 5 or 1.6 percent operate in building materials, while 16 or 5 percent were who operated in other industries not indicated above.

Finally, in terms of business age, most of the participants' firms had stayed in business for less than 3 years and this represented 170 (53.3%) of the total sample. In addition, 32 firms (10%) were reported to have stayed for 3 – 6 years, while 61 firms (19.1%) had stayed for 7 – 9 years and only 56 (17.6 %) had been in business for 10 – 12 years. This complies with the fact that most of the respondents had just graduated in at most five years back, so it is no wonder that majority of their enterprises were relatively young. However, there were some whose firms seem to have existed even before they graduated. This would have been to cases of those who inherited businesses or those who started before they entered university.

Table 3
Means and standard deviations on Extent of Career performance Among self employed University graduates in North-West Geo-political Zone, Nigeria

| Career Performance | Mean | SD | Interpretation | Rank |
|--|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| General management quality | 2.20 | 0.979 | Moderate performance | 1 |
| Ability to stand in competition | 2.19 | 0.984 | Moderate performance | 2 |
| Sales volume | 2.18 | 0.949 | Moderate performance | 3 |
| Speed in decision making | 2.17 | 0.988 | Moderate performance | 4 |
| Customer satisfaction | 2.16 | 0.953 | Moderate performance | 5 |
| Competitive strength of your business | 2.15 | 0.972 | Moderate performance | 6 |
| Confidence of other staff | 2.15 | 0.991 | Moderate performance | 6 |
| Number of customers served | 2.14 | 1.002 | Moderate performance | 8 |
| General business improvement | 2.13 | 0.936 | Moderate performance | 9 |
| Application of modern technology in business | 2.11 | 0.973 | Moderate performance | 10 |
| Clarity of management systems | 2.08 | 0.972 | Moderate performance | 11 |
| Your confidence in business | 2.07 | 0.983 | Moderate performance | 12 |
| Number of people employed | 2.03 | 0.973 | Moderate performance | 13 |
| Chances of your business survival | 2.06 | 0.955 | Moderate performance | 14 |
| Increase in number of high class customers | 1.91 | 0.926 | Moderate performance | 15 |
| General business profits | 1.89 | 0.963 | Moderate performance | 16 |
| General business revenue | 1.87 | 0.979 | Moderate performance | 17 |
| Contribution to community welfare | 1.82 | 0.889 | Moderate performance | 18 |
| Flexibility in business dealings | 1.72 | 0.871 | Moderate performance | 19 |
| Innovations into the business | 1.69 | 0.825 | Low performance | 20 |
| Overall Mean | 2.04 | 0.36 | Moderate performance | |

Source: *Primary data (2016)*

The following mean ranges and interpretations were used to interpret the means:

| Mean range | Response range | Interpretation |
|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| 3.26 - 4.00 | Very big increase | Very high performance |
| 2.51 - 3.25 | Big increase | High performance |
| 1.76 - 2.50 | Small increase | Moderate performance |
| 1.00 - 1.75 | Very small or no increase | Low performance |

Results in Table 3 further indicated that career performance was rated lowest on one aspect and that was innovations into the business, with a mean of 1.69 and a

standard deviation of 0.825, suggesting low dispersion. The overall picture on career performance suggest that the self-employed graduates were not very satisfied with the current level of their performance, since they were not able to rate any aspect high or very high. It was also important that the graduates were able to identify what is not doing well in their enterprises, an indication that they can struggle to improve.

Relationship between planning skills and career performance among self-employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria

This study intended to establish whether there is a significant relationship between planning skills and career performance among self-employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria.

Table 4: Means and standard deviations on Planning Skills Possessed by self-employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria

| Goal setting skills | Mean | SD | Interpretation | Rank |
|--|-------------|--------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| Resource mobilization | 3.44 | 0.907 | Very high | 1 |
| Stating clear vision and mission of a company | 3.33 | 0.924 | Very high | 2 |
| Setting priorities | 3.33 | 0.907 | Very high | 3 |
| Making quick and clear business decisions | 3.33 | 0.938 | Very high | 4 |
| Identifying clear and achievable business targets | 3.29 | 1.011 | Very high | 5 |
| valuating task performance | 3.29 | 1.03 | Very high | 6 |
| Sub-Total | 3.29 | 1.030 | Very high | |
| Business plan Development skills | | | | |
| Making a budge | 3.53 | 0.789 | Very high | 1 |
| Evaluating business plans | 3.32 | 0.948 | Very high | 2 |
| Making a feasibility study | 3.07 | 0.973 | High | 3 |
| Writing a clear business plan | 3.03 | 0.989 | High | 4 |
| Sub-Total | 3.05 | 0.981 | High | |
| Resource mobilization skills | | | | |
| Mobilizing the best human resources | 3.51 | 0.827 | Very high | 1 |
| Identifying the resources needed to a business task | 3.44 | 0.802 | Very high | 2 |
| Organizing resources in the different ways | 3.39 | 0.806 | Very high | 3 |
| Mobilizing financial resources | 3.28 | 0.847 | Very high | 4 |
| Sub-Total | 3.36 | 0.824 | Very high | |
| Marketing skills | | | | |
| Identifying new markets | 3.42 | 0.879 | Very high | 1 |
| Designing products in attractive ways | 3.41 | 0.853 | Very high | 2 |
| Identifying customer needs | 3.33 | 0.872 | Very high | 3 |
| Identifying & implementing winning/competitive strategies | 3.15 | 1.014 | High | 4 |
| Making favourable price negotiations with customers | 3.03 | 1.032 | High | 5 |
| Making demand and sales forecasts | 2.76 | 0.929 | High | 6 |
| Identifying competitors' strength & weakness(competitive intelligence) | 2.72 | 0.889 | High | 7 |
| Keeping record of sales, stocks, etc. | 2.55 | 0.979 | High | 8 |
| Sub-Total | 3.37 | 0.875 | Very high | |
| Customer service skills | | | | |
| Conducting customer satisfaction surveys | 3.56 | 0.806 | Very high | 1 |

| | | | | |
|---|-------------|--------------|-----------|---|
| Identifying changes in customer needs | 3.53 | 0.823 | Very high | 2 |
| Identifying customer complaints | 3.53 | 0.808 | Very high | 3 |
| Customer care skills | 3.52 | 0.823 | Very high | 4 |
| Customer relationship management | 3.51 | 0.865 | Very high | 5 |
| Identifying customer attitude/moods before answering their requests | 3.50 | 0.907 | Very high | 6 |
| Sub-Total | 3.51 | 0.865 | Very high | |
| Overall Mean | 3.32 | 0.915 | Very high | |

Source: Primary data (2016)

The following mean ranges and response modes were used to interpret the means in Table 6:

| <i>Mean range</i> | <i>Response range</i> | <i>Interpretation</i> |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 3.26 - 4.00 | Very much skills | Very high |
| 2.51 - 3.25 | Adequate skills | High |
| 1.76 - 2.50 | Inadequate skills | Low |
| 1.00 - 1.75 | Very inadequate or no skills at all | Very low |

Considering the mean responses in Table 4, it is indicated that respondents rated their planning skills to be generally very high. This indicated by an overall mean index for planning skills, which happened to 3.32, falling under very high on the interpretation scale. The very high ratings in Table 4 suggested that respondents were much contented with the skills they have, more especially on four elements of planning skills whose mean scores fall under very high and these include goal setting skills (average mean = 3.29), resource mobilization skills (average mean = 3.36), marketing skills (average mean =3.37) and customer service skills (average mean =3.51). The high level of confidence these self-employed entrepreneurs showed, indicated that, it may be possible that the training in entrepreneurship acquired from universities is felt by these graduates.

7. Testing Hypothesis

In line with this objective of the study, the researcher hypothesized that; planning skills relate positively and significantly with career performance among self-employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria. This hypothesis was tested at two levels, first using Pearson’s Linear Correlation Coefficient (Table 4) and then using Multiple Linear Regression (Table 5). The results of the correlation as indicated in Table 6, suggest that some aspects of planning skills have a negative relationship with career performance, while others have a positive relationship.

Table 5
Pearson Correlations for Planning Skills and Career performance

| Variables correlated | r-value | Sig. | Interpretation | Decision on Ho |
|----------------------------------|---------|------|---------------------------|----------------|
| GSS Vs Career performance | .224** | .000 | Significant correlation | Rejected |
| BDS Vs Career performance | .280** | .000 | Significant correlation | Rejected |
| RMS Vs Career performance | -.024 | .671 | Insignificant correlation | Accepted |
| MKS Vs Career performance | -.570** | .000 | Significant correlation | Rejected |
| CSS Vs Career performance | -.503** | .000 | Significant correlation | Rejected |
| Overall PS Vs Career performance | -.247** | .000 | Significant correlation | Rejected |

Source: *Primary Data, 2016*

Legend: GSS= Goal setting skills
Development skills
RMS = Resource Mobilisation Skills
CSS = Customer Service Skills
BDS = Business plan
MKS = Marketing Skills
PS = Planning Skills

However, the hypothesized positive correlation was not confirmed by the results as it is indicated that the planning skills possessed by the responding graduates negatively correlate with their current level of career performance

To further ascertain the results of the Pearson’s correlation, multiple linear regression was applied to help the researcher determine and confirm the direction of the predictive strength of the planning skills constructs on career performance of the graduates. Results are indicated in Table 6.

Regression analysis for Planning Skills and Career Performance

Table 6

Regression Analysis for Planning Skills and Career Performance

| Variables Regressed | Adjusted r ² | F-value | Sig. | Interpretation | Decision on Ho |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|----------|------|-----------------------|----------------|
| Planning Skills vs. CRF | .346 | 33.734 | .000 | Significant effect | Rejected |
| Coefficients | Beta | T | | | |
| (Constant) | 3.195 | 16.281 | .000 | Significant effect | Rejected |
| Goal setting skills | .038 | 1.152 | .250 | No significant effect | Accepted |
| Business Plan Dev’t Skills | .020 | .519 | .604 | Insignificant effect | Accepted |
| Resource Mobilization Skills | -.020 | -.755 | .451 | No significant effect | Accepted |
| Marketing Skills | -.322 | -6.796 | .000 | Significant effect | Rejected |
| Customer Service Skills | -.086 | -2.607 | .010 | Significant effect | Rejected |

The results from Table 6 suggest that all the elements of planning skills taken together positively and significantly affect career performance of the graduates (F=33.734, sig. = 0.000). These results indicate that all the five elements of planning skills taken together account for over 34.6% towards variances in career

performance of the graduates (adjusted $R^2=0.346$). This means that the remaining 65.4% is the contribution of other factors not included in this study.

8. Discussion

However, the postulations of the theory suggest positive relationship other than a negative one as results of this study reveal. This defeat to theory and common sense can be attributed to the type of the skills given to the graduates and their relevance vis-avis what is needed in the market. As found out by Pitan & Adedeji (2012), it seems that there is a big difference between the skills graduates give and what the employers want. This mismatch may not only affect the employers who employ those graduates, but it also affects the graduates when they establish their own ventures. This may therefore explain the unexpected negative relationship between some elements of planning skills and career performance of the graduates, suggesting that some of the skills given in this line are not necessary.

The research question intended to establish whether planning skills can significantly explain career performance among university graduates in North -west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria. The hypothesis derived from this research question tested using PLS path modelling, revealed a significant positive relationship between planning skill and career performance among the self-employed university graduates in North-west Geo-political Zone of Nigeria. This finding is not surprising because it is consistent with prior empirical studies. Specifically, the positive relationship between planning skills and career performance is consistent with the findings from Qureshi *et al.* (2016) who indicated that possession of adequate planning skills results into enhanced career performance of entrepreneurs. Likewise, Etonyeaku *et al.* (2014) found results similar to this study. They reported that planning skills, such as those related to co-ordinating business resources, significantly and positively influence career performance of Secretarial Education Graduates of Colleges of Education in Enugu State, Nigeria.

9. Conclusion

Taken together, the present study has provided additional evidence to the growing body of knowledge concerning the effect of planning skills on career performance among self-employed university graduates of north-west geo-political zone of Nigeria. Results from this study lend support to the key theoretical propositions. However, there is paucity of empirical studies drawing from human capital development perspective to establish the link between planning skills on career performance in Nigerian context. Hence, theoretical framework of this study has also added to the domain of human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Schultz, 1959; Sweetland, 1996). Further to the theoretical contributions, the results from this study provide some important practical implications to policy makers in Nigeria. In conclusion, the present study has added valuable theoretical, practical, and methodological ramifications to the growing body of knowledge in the field of entrepreneurship development.

10. Recommendations

This study was based on the prior empirical evidences and theoretical gaps identified in the literature. It was also supported and explained from human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Schultz, 1959; Sweetland, 1996), which postulates that knowledge and skills as indispensable tools of transformation. Accordingly, it is a general belief that educational and training is capable of inculcating competencies, skills and values that can stimulate performance of graduates as employers and employees and enables them to transform these organisations. Based on the research findings and discussions, the current study has made several theoretical contributions in the research linking planning skills to career performance.

This study has provided a theoretical implication by giving additional empirical evidence in the domain of human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Schultz, 1959; Sweetland, 1996). Instead of focusing other extant theories explain the antecedents of career performance, the present study drew from human capital theory to argued that knowledge and skills as indispensable tools of transformation. Thus, this study has extended the human capital theory by examining the impact of planning skills on career performance of self-employed graduates in the Nigerian context.

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Part Four
Social Psychology



Psycho-socio Factors as Correlate to Drug Abuse among Undergraduates of Ilorin University, Nigeria.

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Abstract. Drug abuse is a major public health problem all over the world. The abuse of drugs by the youths has become one of the most disturbing health related phenomena in Nigeria. This study therefore investigated the psychosocio factors as correlate to drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. Descriptive research design of survey method was adopted. The population of the study comprised all undergraduates of University of Ilorin. Multi-stage sampling technique sampling technique was used to select two hundred (200) undergraduates from the University of Ilorin. Researchers' designed questionnaire validated by 3 experts drawn from the relevant fields was used for data collection. A reliability coefficient of 0.84 was obtained through test re-test method using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. Data collection was conducted by the researchers and three trained research assistants. Person Product Moment Correlation was used to test the three postulated hypotheses. The three tested hypotheses were rejected at 0.05 alpha level of significant because their calculated r-values were greater than their critical values. It was concluded that eagerness to be pleased and accepted by one's friend; struggling to cope with day to day activities could result to drug abuse. It was recommended that undergraduates are advised to be watchful of the friend they want to make so as to be free from falling prey of drug abuse. Also, undergraduates are encouraged to avoid any strenuous activity that can affect their health as too much stress could predispose one to drug abuse.

Keywords: Drug abuse, undergraduates, friends, stress.

1. Introduction

Drug abuse is a major public health problem all over the world (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2005). The abuse of drugs by the youths has become one of the most disturbing health related phenomena in Nigeria. About 40 percent of Nigerian youth are on drug abuse (Otunba, 2016). Haladu (2003) described drug abuse as excessive and persistent self-administration of a drug without regard medically or culturally acceptable pattern. Odejide (2000) posited that a drug is said to be abused when its use is not pharmacologically necessary especially when it is used in face of legal prohibition or when socially acceptable beverage is used excessively.

Drug abuse has led to organized crimes, disruption of normal academic programmes, increased secret cult activities in Nigerian Universities, which has been of threat to lives and properties (Adeyemo, Ohaeri, Pat & Ogodo, 2016). Majority of the Nigerian youths ignorantly abused drugs such as tobacco, Indian hemp, cocaine, morphine, heroine, alcohol, ephedrine, madras, caffeine, glue, barbiturates and amphetamines for their various daily activities (Oshikoya & Alli, 2006).

The most common types of abused drugs according to NAFDAC (2000) as cited by Haladu (2003) include stimulants, hallucinogen, sedatives, tranquilizers and miscellaneous while the signs and symptoms of drug abuse include odour of drugs, identification with drug culture, signs of physical deterioration, distinct downward performance in the school, increased absenteeism, trouble with the law enforcement agencies and change of friends.

It is a fact indeed that birds of a feather do flock together. If a teen surrounds themselves with peers who experiment with or abuse drugs. For some students, self-consciousness may become worse rather than subsiding overtime, which has proven to cause many of them to turn to drug abuse as a means of placating their poor self-esteem and compensate for their lack of confidence. In other words, drug abuse is able to distract them from their self-consciousness, preventing them from being uncomfortable with themselves (Palm Beach Institute, 2015). The findings from the National Drug Agency study done in Malaysia revealed that out of 26,841 drug addicts surveyed between 2007 and 2008, 55 percent became hooked on drugs after being introduced to the substance by friends (Elements Behavioural Health, 2016).

Erica (2016) opined that part of testing peers limits often comes in the form of experimenting with things such as alcohol, drugs and sex. When someone in a group of peers begins using substances, it can become a trickle-down effect as someone else joins him or her and then another joins them. Maithya (2009) revealed that the common reasons for drug abuse among youths are mostly out of curiosity and acceptance by friends (peer pressure). A study by Kiiru (2004) showed that peer influence was responsible for youths' consumption of drugs for

the purpose of stimulating appetite for food. Peer pressure plays a major role in influencing many adolescents into drug abuse. This is because peer influence is a fact of teenage and youth life. In Nigeria, as other part of the world, one may not enjoy the company of others unless he conforms to their norms (Haladu, 2003).

Most major theories of drug abuse and addiction postulated that acute and chronic stress plays an important role in the motivation to abuse addictive substances (Rajita, 2001). Many clinicians and addiction medicine specialists suggest that stress is the number one cause of relapse to drug abuse including smoking (Jacobsen, Southwick & Kosten, 2001). Numerous studies have linked stress to drug abuse. In fact, chronic stress is a well-know substance abuse risk factor. It was believed that stress causes brain changes with the potential to lead to addiction. For example, stress in early life such as childhood trauma or prolonged stress affects development of the prefrontal lobe (part of the brain that deals with higher level thinking and impulse control) (Elements Behavioural Health, 2016).

National Institute on Drug Abuse (2016) asserted that some drugs abuse affect the brain the same way stress does and that long-term abuse of drugs makes users more sensitive to every day stress than non-users. Stress can cause changes in the brain like those caused by drug abuse. This suggests that some people who experience stress may be more vulnerable to drug abuse. Stressful events may influence profoundly drug abuse (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2016).

According to Depression Health Centre (2016), some people drink alcohol to drown their sorrows after a bad breakup, job loss or other major life stress. Problem drinking and drug abuse are more common in depressed individuals than in the general population. Men diagnosed with major depression are nearly three times more likely to develop a depression on alcohol, while women with depression are over four times more likely to become alcohol-abused (Futures Palm Beach, 2016). Depressive disorders often cause acutely uncomfortable feelings such as overwhelming sadness, hopelessness, numbness, isolation, sleep disorders, digestive and food-related disorders. It is tempting, if medications are not being prescribed or used properly, for people suffering from depression to self-medicate. This can compound the depression and make it for worse. A drink or two, a line of cocaine or two might temporarily relieve some symptoms, but reverse is the case when the chemical leaves the body brings depression to new level (Zwolinski, 2015).

2. Statement of the Problem

Drug abuse has become an epidemic in the Nigerian society, the rate at which the spread of the drug abuse is growing is so alarming, it continued to grow on daily basis exponentially and unabated, more and more people especially youths are getting into the act of drug abuse as a result of social, economic and family problems. The negative consequences of drug abuse results in various forms of

antisocial behaviour by drug abusers which include but not limited to school drop outs, armed robberies and other unwholesome activities.

Drug abuse had wrecked so much havoc in the lives of users, family and the society at large, many youths have been lured into drug and many antisocial behaviour due largely to unfettered freedom in the school environments, this has led many youths astray and find themselves in midst of criminals and cultists on the campuses, constantly we hear of riots and rival cult reprisal attacks and killings in Nigeria campuses, that have led to the untimely termination of lives of many undergraduates and future leaders.

Many youths that have tried with drug usually find it difficult to adjust to normal life thereafter and this is one major reason why so many undergraduates have abandon their studies due to maladjustment or negative adjustment disorder which leads to drop outs from study, some of these problems is what prompted the researcher to go into the study. There seem also to be an increasing prevalence of drug abuse among University students despite the efforts of concerned bodies to curb this menace. University students are the most susceptible today use among different youth groups in Nigeria because most of them live outside the watch of their parents or guardian. Upon this premises, the researcher investigated the psycho-socio factors as correlate to drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin.

3. Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the research.

- (i) Is there any relationship between peer influence and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin?
- (ii) Is there any relationship between stress and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin?
- (iii) Is there any relationship between depression and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin?

4. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study.

- (i) There is no significant relationship between peer influence and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin.
- (ii) There is no significant relationship between stress and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin.
- (iii) There is no significant relationship between depression and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin.

5. Methodology

This study was carried out with the use of descriptive research of survey method. The study population comprised all undergraduates of University Ilorin. Multistage sampling technique comprising of simple random, proportionate and convenience sampling techniques were used to select two hundred (200) undergraduates. Researcher’s structured questionnaire that was validated by three (3) experts from the relevant fields was used for data collection. The reliability of the instrument was carried out using test re-test method. The correlational analysis data generated was done using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC). A reliability co-efficient of 0.84 was obtained. The researchers with the help of three trained research assistants sought the verbal consent of the respondents and administered the instrument. Data entry, processing analysis was done with the use of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21.0. The three postulated research hypotheses were tested with the use of inferential statistics of Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) at 0.05 alpha level.

Table 1:

Target Population of Students per Faculty

| S/N | NAME OF FACULTY | POPULATION OF UNDERGRADUATE | SAMPLE SIZE (0.96%) |
|-----|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | Agriculture | 3,171 | 32 |
| 2 | Art | 4,621 | 46 |
| 3 | CIS | 1,343 | 13 |
| 4 | Education | 7, 013 | 70 |
| 5 | Physical Sciences | 3,930 | 39 |
| | Grand Total | 20,078 | 200 |

Source: *Unilorin Academic Support Service (2016).*

6. Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between peer influence and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin

Table 2: Person Product Moment Correlation Analysis of Peer Influence as Correlate to Drug Abuse among Undergraduates of University Ilorin.

| Variable | N | \bar{x} | SD | Df | Cal r-value | Crit value | Dec. |
|----------------|-----|-----------|------|-----|-------------|------------|------------|
| Drug Abuse | 200 | 42.96 | 7.48 | 198 | 0.680 | 0.138 | Ho Rej. |
| Peer Influence | 200 | 14.78 | 2.75 | | | | |

Table one above shows that the calculated r-value is 0.680 while the critical value is 0.138 at 0.05 alpha level of significance with the degree of freedom of 198. Since the calculated r-value of 0.680 was greater than the critical value of 0.138, the null hypothesis was rejected. It implies that eagerness to be pleased and accepted by one's friend could lead to drug abuse.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between stress and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin

Table 3: Person Product Moment Correlation Analysis of Stress as Correlate to Drug Abuse among Undergraduates of University Ilorin.

| Variable | N | \bar{x} | SD | Df | Cal r-value | Crit value | Dec. |
|------------|-----|-----------|------|-----|-------------|------------|------|
| Drug Abuse | 200 | 42.96 | 7.48 | 198 | 0.869 | 0.138 | Ho |
| Stress | 200 | 13.075 | 3.48 | 198 | 0.869 | 0.138 | Rej. |

Table one shows that the calculated r-value is 0.869 while the critical value is 0.138 at 0.05 alpha level of significance with the degree of freedom of 198. Since the calculated r-value of 0.869 was greater than the critical value of 0.138, the null hypothesis was rejected. It implies that, struggling to cope with day to day activities could result to drug abuse.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between depression and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin

Table 4: Person Product Moment Correlation Analysis of Depression as Correlate to Drug Abuse among Undergraduates of University Ilorin.

| Variable | N | \bar{x} | SD | Df | Cal r-value | Crit value | Dec. |
|------------|-----|-----------|------|-----|-------------|------------|------|
| Drug Abuse | 200 | 42.96 | 7.48 | 198 | 0.794 | 0.138 | Ho |
| Depression | 200 | 14.043 | 3.26 | 198 | 0.794 | 0.138 | Rej. |

Table one above shows that the calculated r-value is 0.794 while the critical value is 0.138 at 0.05 alpha level of significance with the degree of freedom of 198. Since the calculated r-value of 0.794 was greater than the critical value of 0.138, the null hypothesis was rejected. It implies that, struggling to cope with day to day activities could result to drug abuse.

hypothesis was rejected. It implies that overwhelming sadness could lead to drug abuse.

7. Discussion of Findings

The result obtained from hypothesis one shows that there was a significant relationship between peer influence and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. The finding justified the report of National Drug Agency study done in Malaysia revealed that out of 26,841 drug addicts surveyed between 2007 and 2008, 55 percent became hooked on drugs after being introduced to the substance by friends (Elements Behavioural Health, 2016). The finding also confirmed Maithya (2009) who revealed that the common reasons for drug abuse among youths are mostly out of curiosity and acceptance by friends (peer pressure).

The result of the tested hypothesis two revealed that there was a significant relationship between stress and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. This corroborates the assertion of National Institute on Drug Abuse (2016) that stressful events may influence profoundly drug abuse. The finding is also in line with Jacobsen, Southwick and Kosten (2001) who reported that many clinicians and addiction medicine specialists suggest that stress is the number one cause of drug abuse including smoking. The finding equally justified Rajita (2001) who affirmed that most major theories of drug abuse and addiction postulated that acute and chronic stress play an important role in the motivation to abuse addictive substances.

The result obtained from the tested hypothesis three revealed that there was a significant relationship between depression and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. The finding is line with the finding of Depression Health Centre (2016) that some people drink alcohol to drown their sorrows after a bad breakup, job loss or other major life stress. The finding also justified the report of Futures Palm Beach (2016) that those with depression are over four times more likely to become alcohol-abused. The finding equally established the report of Zwolinski (2015) who observed that some people with depression do take a drink or two, a line of cocaine to relieve the symptoms such as overwhelming sadness, hopelessness, numbness and isolation.

8. Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. There was significant relationship between peer influence and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. It implies that eagerness to be pleased and accepted by one's friend could lead to drug abuse.
2. There was significant relationship between stress and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. It signifies that struggling to cope with day to day activities could result to drug abuse

3. There was significant relationship between depression and drug abuse among undergraduates of University Ilorin. It implies that overwhelming sadness could lead to drug abuse.

9. Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. Undergraduates are advised to be watchful of the friend they want to make so as to be free from falling prey of drug abuse.
2. Undergraduates are encouraged to avoid any strenuous activity that can affect their health as too much stress could predispose one to drug abuse.
3. Undergraduates are advised to perform physical activities whenever they felt unhappy.

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Analyzing the Socio-Psychological Effects of the Nigerian Civil War

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Abstract. Using the Nigerian Civil War as a case study, this paper argues that wars that have taken place in the post-colonial space confirm for some, the notion that places like Africa are still too rife with ancient tribal animosities to create stable and viable states, thus some members of the international community have been slow to respond even when the facts of people's suffering (such as in Rwanda during the Rwandan Genocide) are fully known. Chillingly, the view that people deserve to lie in the graves they dig for themselves influences some policymakers, while donor- and disaster-fatigue makes others wary of giving as generously when they think that the wound being treated is somehow self-inflicted.

1. Introduction

Conflict refers to some forms of friction, disagreement, discord within a group when the beliefs or actions of one or more members of the group are either resisted by or unacceptable to one or more members of another group. It can arise between members of the same group known as intra-group conflict or it can occur between members of two or more groups and involve violence, interpersonal discord and psychological tension known as inter-group conflict.

Ethnic conflict is defined as an episode of sustained violent conflict in which national, ethnic and religious or other communal minorities challenge governments to seek major changes in status (Bate et al., 2003) Ethnic conflict is also an armed conflict between groups. It is worthy to know that the root causes of ethnic conflict do not involve ethnicity but rather institutional, political, and economic factors.

The Nigerian Civil War, also known as the Biafran War, July 6, 1967 – January 13, 1970, was a political conflict caused by the attempted secession of the southeastern provinces of Nigeria as the self-proclaimed Republic of Biafra. Created as a colonial entity by the British, Nigeria was divided between a mainly Muslim north and a mainly Christian and animist south. Following independence in 1960, three provinces were formed along tribal lines, the Hausa and Fulani (north), Yoruba (south-west), and Igbo or Ibo (south-east). Tribal tensions increased after a military coup in 1966 which resulted in General Aguiyi-Ironsi, an Igbo, taking power as President. This was followed by a

northerner-led counter coup a few months later. Aguiyi-Ironsi was killed and widespread reprisals were unleashed against the Igbo. Fearing marginalization within the state, on May 30, 1967 the Igbo-majority province declared its independence as the Republic of Biafra. Initially, its forces pushed back the Nigerian army but after a year of fighting, a stalemate developed. Nigeria then blocked food and supplies from entering Biafra, which resulted in a humanitarian crisis of huge proportion. Images of the suffering reached the global community via the media, attracting a large relief effort. Some of the founders of Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors without Borders) took part, later establishing the agency as a response to the tragic war. Biafra surrendered on January 13, 1970. This was one of the first post-World War II tragedies that the media took into living rooms across the globe and it gave impetus to the development of humanitarian responses to complex emergencies, whether caused by natural calamity or by human hand.

2. Causes of the conflict

The conflict was the result of economic, ethnic, cultural and religious tensions among the various people of Nigeria. Like many other African nations, Nigeria was an artificial structure initiated by the British which had neglected to consider religious, linguistic, and ethnic differences. When Nigeria won independence from Britain in 1960, the population of 60 million people consisted of nearly 300 differing ethnic and cultural groups. More than fifty years ago, Great Britain carved an area out of West Africa containing hundreds of different groups and unified it, calling it Nigeria. Although the area contained many different groups, three were predominant: the Igbo, which formed between 60-70 percent of the population in the southeast, the Hausa-Fulani, which formed about 65 percent of the people in the northern part of the territory; and, the Yoruba, which formed about 75 percent of the population in the southwestern part.

The semi-feudal and Islamic Hausa-Fulani in the North were traditionally ruled by an autocratic, conservative Islamic hierarchy consisting of some 30-odd Emirs who, in turn, owed their allegiance to a supreme Sultan. This Sultan was regarded as the source of all political power and religious authority.

The Yoruba political system in the southwest, like that of the Hausa-Fulani, also consisted of a series of monarchs (*Obas*). The Yoruba monarchs, however, were less autocratic than those in the North, and the political and social system of the Yoruba accordingly allowed for greater upward mobility based on acquired rather than inherited wealth and title.

The Igbo in the southeast, in contrast to the two other groups, lived in some six hundred autonomous, democratically-organized villages. Although there were monarchs in these villages (whether hereditary or elected), they were largely little more than figureheads. Unlike the other two regions, decisions among the Igbo were made by a general assembly in which every man could participate.

The different political systems among these three groups of people produced highly divergent sets of customs and values. The Hausa-Fulani commoners, having contact with the political system only through their village head who was designated by the Emir or one of his subordinates, did not view political leaders as amenable to influence. Political decisions were to be obeyed without question. This highly centralized and authoritarian political system elevated to positions of leadership persons willing to be subservient and loyal to superiors, the same virtues required by Islam for eternal salvation. One of the chief functions of the traditional political system was to maintain the Islamic religion. Hostility to economic and social innovation was therefore deeply rooted.

In contrast to the Hausa-Fulani, the Igbo often participated directly in the decisions which affected their lives. They had a lively awareness of the political system and regarded it as an instrument for achieving their own personal goals. Status was acquired through the ability to arbitrate disputes that might arise in the village, and through acquiring rather than inheriting wealth. With their emphasis upon achievement, individual choice, and democratic decision-making, the challenges of modernization for the Igbo entailed responding to new opportunities in traditional ways.

These tradition-derived differences were perpetuated and, perhaps, even enhanced by the British system of colonial rule in Nigeria. In the North, the British found it convenient to rule indirectly through the Emirs, thus perpetuating rather than changing the indigenous authoritarian political system. As a concomitant of this system, Christian missionaries were excluded from the North, and the area thus remained virtually closed to Western education and influence, in contrast to the Igbo, the richest of whom sent many of their sons to British universities. During the ensuing years, the Northern Emirs, thus were able to maintain traditional political and religious institutions, while limiting social change. As a result, the North, at the time of independence in 1960, was by far the most underdeveloped area in Nigeria with a literacy rate of two(2) percent as compared to 19.2 percent in the East (literacy in Arabic script, learned in connection with religious education, was higher). The West enjoyed a much higher literacy level being the first part of the country to have contact with Western education in addition to the free primary education program of the pre-independence Western Regional Government. In the South, the missionaries rapidly introduced Western forms of education. Consequently, the Yoruba were the first group in Nigeria to become significantly modernized and they provided the first African civil servants, doctors, lawyers, and other technicians and professionals.

In Igbo areas, missionaries were introduced at a later date because of British difficulty in establishing firm control over the highly autonomous Igbo villages. However, the Igbo people took to Western education zealously. Furthermore, most Igbo eventually adopted the religion of the Christian colonialists. By the 1940s they had transformed themselves into one of the most

educated, wealthiest, and politically unified groups in Nigeria and presented a serious challenge to Yoruba predominance in the civil service and the professions. Moreover, severe population pressure in the Igbo homeland combined with an intense desire for economic improvement drove thousands of Igbo to other parts of Nigeria in search of work.

3. Conflicts during the colonial era

The British political ideology of dividing Nigeria during the colonial period into three regions North, West and East exacerbated the already well-developed economic, political, and social competition among Nigeria's different ethnic groups. For the country was divided in such a way that the North had slightly more population than the other two regions combined. On this basis the Northern Region was allocated a majority of the seats in the Federal Legislature established by the colonial authorities. Within each of the three regions the dominant ethnic groups, the Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba, and Igbo, respectively, formed political parties that were largely regional and tribal in character: the Northern People's Congress (NPC) in the North; the Action Group in the West (AG): and the National Conference of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC) in the East. Although these parties were not exclusively homogeneous in terms of their ethnic or regional make-up, the later disintegration of Nigeria results largely from the fact that these parties were primarily based in one region and one tribe. To simplify matters, these can be referred to as the Hausa, Yoruba, and Igbo-based; or Northern, Western and Eastern parties.

During the 1940s and 1950s the Igbo and Yoruba parties were in the forefront of the fight for independence from Britain. They also wanted an independent Nigeria to be organized into several small states so that the conservative and backward North could not dominate the country. Northern leaders, however, fearful that independence would mean political and economic domination by the more Westernized elites in the South, preferred the perpetuation of British rule. As a condition for accepting independence, they demanded that the country continue to be divided into three regions with the North having a clear majority. Igbo and Yoruba leaders, anxious to obtain an independent country at all cost accepted the Northern demands.

4. The Military Coup

Claims of electoral fraud were the ostensible reason for a military coup on January 15, 1966, led by Igbo junior Army officers, mostly majors and captains. This coup resulted in General Johnson Aguiyi-Ironsi, an Igbo and head of the Nigerian Army, taking power as President, becoming the first military head of state in Nigeria. The coup itself failed, as Ironsi rallied the military against the plotters. Ironsi then instituted military rule, alleging that the democratic institutions had failed and that, while he was defending them, they clearly needed revision and clean-up before reversion back to democratic rule. The coup, despite its failure, was perceived as having benefited mostly the Igbos because all but one of the five coup plotters were

Igbos, and Ironsi, himself an Igbo, was thought to have promoted many Igbos in the Army at the expense of Yoruba and Hausa officers. On July 29, 1966, the Northerners executed a counter-coup. This coup was led by Lt. Col. Murtala Mohammed. It placed Lt. Col. Yakubu Gowon into power. Ethnic tensions due to the coup and counter-coup increased and led, in September 1966, to the large-scale massacres of Christian Igbos living in the Muslim north.

The discovery of vast oil reserves in the Niger River delta, a sprawling network of rivers and swamps at the southernmost tip of the country, had tempted the southeast to annex the region in order to become economically self-sufficient. However, the exclusion of easterners from power made many fear that the oil revenues would be used to benefit areas in the north and west rather than their own. Prior to the discovery of oil, Nigeria's wealth derived from agricultural products from the south, and minerals from the north. The north, up until around 1965, had had low-level demands to secede from Nigeria and retain its wealth for northerners. These demands seemed to cease when it became clear that oil in the southeast would become a major revenue source. This further fueled Igbo fears that the northerners had plans to strip eastern oil to benefit the North.

5. The Break-away

The military governor of the Igbo-dominated southeast, Colonel Odumegwu Ojukwu, citing the northern massacres and electoral fraud, proclaimed with the southern parliament the secession of the south-eastern region from Nigeria as the Republic of Biafra, an independent nation on May 30, 1967. Although, there was much sympathy in Europe and elsewhere, only four countries recognized the new republic.

Several peace accords especially the one produced at Aburi, Ghana (the Aburi Accord) collapsed and a shooting war followed. Ojukwu managed at Aburi to get agreement to a confederation for Nigeria, rather than a federation. He was warned by his advisers that this reflected a failure to understand the difference on the side of Gowon, and that it would be revoked. When it was, he regarded this as a failure of Gowon and the Military Government to honor their agreements, and that he was acting in accord with the agreement. His advisers, meanwhile, felt that Gowon had enacted as much of Aburi as was politically feasible and that Gowon had acted in the spirit of Aburi.

6. The Civil War

The Nigerian government launched a "police action" to retake the secessionist territory. The war began on July 6, 1967 when Nigerian Federal troops advanced in two columns into Biafra. Nigeria's army offensive was through the north of Biafra led by Col. Shuwa and designated as 1 division. The division was made up of mostly northern officers. The right-hand Nigerian column advanced on the town of Nsukka which fell on July 14, while the left-hand column made for Garkem, which

was captured on July 12. At this stage of the war, other regions of Nigeria (the West and Mid-West) still considered the war as a confrontation between the north (notable Hausas) and the east (notable Igbos).

However, the Biafrans responded with an offensive of their own when on July 9, the Biafran forces moved west into the Mid-Western Nigerian region across the Niger River, passing through Benin City, until they were stopped at Ore just over the state boundary on August 21, just 130 miles east of the Nigerian capital of Lagos. The Biafran attack was led by Lt. Col. Banjo. They met little resistance and the Mid-West was easily taken over. This was due to the arrangement and agreement between Federal government and the East that all soldiers should be returned to their regions to stop the spate of killings in which Igbos soldiers had been major victims. The soldiers that were supposed to defend Mid-West were mostly mid-west Igbos and were in touch with their eastern counterpart. Gen. Gowon responded by asking then Col. Muritala to form another division (2 division) to expel Biafrans from mid-west, defend Biafra's west and attack Biafra from the west as well. Col. Muritala later became military head of state. As Nigerian forces were to retake the Mid-West, the Biafran military administrator declared the Republic of Benin on September 19.

Although Benin City was retaken by the Nigerians on September 20, the Biafrans succeeded in their primary objective by tying down as many Nigerian Federal troops as they could. Gen. Gowon also launched an offensive from Biafra's south from the delta to riverine area using the bulk of Lagos Garrison command under Col. Adekunle (black scorpion) to form 3 division which latter changed to the 3rd marine commandos. Recruitment into the Nigeria Army increased with Biafra's offensive to the west mostly among other southern ethnics especially Yoruba and Edo people. Four battalions of the Nigerian 2nd Infantry Division were needed to drive the Biafrans back and eliminate their territorial gains made during the offensive. But the Nigerians were repulsed three times and lost thousands of troops as they tried to cross the Niger during October.

However reorganization of the Nigerian forces, the reluctance of the Biafran army to attack again, and the effects of a naval, land and air blockade of Biafra led to a change in the balance of forces.

The Swedish eccentric, Count Carl Gustaf von Rosen, also led a flight of MiniCOINs in action; his BAF (Biafran Air Force) consisted of three Swedes and two Biafrans.

The Nigerians then settled down to a period of siege by blockading Biafra. Amphibious landings by the Nigerian marines led by Major Isaac Adaka Boro captured the Niger Delta cities of Bonny, Okrika and Port Harcourt on July 26, and the port of Calabar on October 18 by elements of the Nigerian 3rd Marine Commando Division. In the north, Biafran forces were pushed back into their core Igbo territory, and the capital of Biafra, the city of Enugu, was captured by

Nigerian forces belonging to the 1st Infantry Division on October 4. The Biafrans continued to resist in their core Igbo heartlands, which were soon surrounded by Nigerian forces.

7. Stalemate:

From 1968 onward, the war fell into a form of stalemate, with Nigerian forces unable to make significant advances into the remaining areas of Biafran control. But another Nigerian offensive from April to June 1968 began to close the ring around the Biafrans with further advances on the two northern fronts and the capture of Port Harcourt on May 19, 1968. The blockade of the surrounded Biafrans led to a humanitarian disaster when it emerged that there was widespread civilian hunger and starvation in the besieged Igbo areas. The Biafran government claimed that Nigeria was using hunger and genocide to win the war, and sought aid from the outside world. A Nigerian commission, including British doctors from the Liverpool University School of Tropical Medicine, visited Biafra after the war and concluded that the evidence of deliberate starvation was overplayed, caused by confusion between the symptoms of starvation and various tropical illnesses. While they did not doubt that starvation had occurred, it was less clear to what extent it was a result of the Nigerian blockade or the restriction of food to the civilians (to make it available to the military) by the Biafran government.

Many volunteer bodies organized blockade-breaking relief flights into Biafra, carrying food, medicines, and sometimes (according to some claims) weapons. More common was the claim that the arms-carrying aircraft would closely shadow aid aircraft, making it more difficult to distinguish between aid aircraft and military supply aircraft. It has been argued that by prolonging the war the Biafran relief effort (characterized by Canadian development consultant Ian Smillie as "an act of unfortunate and profound folly"), contributed to the deaths of as many as 180,000 civilians.

The Nigerian government also claimed that the Biafran government was hiring foreign mercenaries to extend the war. Nigeria also used 'mercenaries', in the form of Egyptian pilots for their air force MiG 17 fighters and Il 28 bombers. The Egyptians conscripts frequently attacked civilian rather than military targets, bombing numerous Red Cross shelters.

Bernard Kouchner was one of a number of French doctors who volunteered with the French Red Cross to work in hospitals and feeding centers in besieged Biafra. The Red Cross required volunteers to sign an agreement, which was seen by some (like Kouchner and his supporters) as being similar to a gag order, that was designed to maintain the organization's neutrality, whatever the circumstances. Kouchner and the other French doctors signed this agreement. After entering the country, the volunteers, in addition to Biafran health workers and hospitals, were subjected to attacks by the Nigerian army, and witnessed civilians being murdered and starved by the blockading forces. Kouchner also witnessed these events,

particularly the huge number of starving children, and when he returned to France, he publicly criticized the Nigerian government and the Red Cross for their seemingly complicit behavior. With the help of other French doctors, Kouchner put Biafra in the media spotlight and called for an international response to the situation. These doctors, led by Kouchner, concluded that a new aid organization was needed that would ignore political/religious boundaries and prioritize the welfare of victims. They created Médecins Sans Frontières in 1971 (*Doctors without Borders*).

In June 1969, the Biafrans launched a desperate offensive against the Nigerians in their attempts to keep the Nigerians off-balance. They were supported by foreign mercenary pilots continuing to fly in food, medical supplies and weapons. Most notable of the mercenaries was Swedish Count Carl Gustav von Rosen who led five Malmö MFI-9 MiniCOIN small piston-engined aircraft, armed with rocket pods and machine guns. His force attacked Nigerian military airfields in Port Harcourt, Enugu, Benin City and Ughelli, destroying or damaging a number of Nigerian Air Force jets used to attack relief flights, including a few Mig-17s and three out of Nigeria's six Ilyushin Il-28 bombers that were used to bomb Biafran villages and farms on a daily basis. Although taken off-guard by the surprise Biafran offensive, the Nigerians soon recovered and held off the Biafrans long enough for the offensive to stall out. The Biafran air attacks did disrupt the combat operations of the Nigerian Air Force, but only for a few months.

8. End of War

The Nigerian federal forces launched their final offensive against the Biafrans on December 23, 1969 with a major thrust by the 3rd Marine Commando Division (the division was commanded by Col. Obasanjo, who later became president twice) which succeeded in splitting the Biafran enclave into two by the end of the year. The final Nigerian offensive, named "Operation Tail-Wind," was launched on January 7, 1970 with the 3rd Marine Commando Division attacking, and supported by the 1st Infantry division to the north and the 2nd Infantry division to the south. The Biafran town of Owerri fell on January 9, and Uli fell on January 11. The war finally ended with the final surrender of the Biafran forces in the last Biafra-held town of Amichi on January 13, 1970. Only a few days earlier, Ojukwu fled into exile by flying by plane to the republic of Côte d'Ivoire, leaving his deputy Philip Effiong to handle the details of the surrender to Yakubu Gowon of the federal army.

9. The Consequences of the Conflict

The war cost Nigeria a great deal in terms of lives, money, and its image in the world. During the war, there were 100,000 military casualties and between 500,000 and two million civilians' deaths from starvation. It has been estimated that up to three million people may have died due to the conflict, most from hunger and disease. Reconstruction, helped by oil money, was swift; however, the old ethnic and religious tensions remained a constant feature of Nigerian politics. Military

government continued in power in Nigeria for many years, and people in the oil-producing areas claimed they were being denied a fair share of oil revenues. Laws were passed mandating that political parties could not be ethnically or tribally based; however, it was hard to make this work in practice.

The Igbos felt that they had been deliberately displaced from government positions, because their pre-war posts were now occupied by other Nigerians (mostly Yoruba and Hausa-Fulani). When Igbo civil servants left to join similar posts in Biafra, their positions had been replaced; and when the war was over the government did not feel that it should sack their replacements, preferring to regard the previous incumbents as having resigned. This, however, has led to a feeling of an injustice. Further feelings of injustice were caused by Nigeria, during the war, changing its currency so that Biafran supplies of pre-war Nigerian currency were no longer honored and then, at the end of the war, offering only N£20 to easterners on exchange of their Biafran currency. This was seen as a deliberate policy to hold back the Igbo middle class, leaving them with little wealth to expand their business interests.

On May 29, 2000, *The Guardian of Lagos* reported that President Olusegun Obasanjo commuted to retirement, the dismissal of all military persons who fought for the breakaway state of Biafra during the Nigerian civil war. In a national broadcast, he said that the decision was based on the principle that "justice must at all times be tempered with mercy."

Speaking to the BBC 30 years after the war, Chief Emeka Ojukwu said that "When the civil war ended, the government promised the Ibo people that there would be no victors and no vanquished." "The authorities," he continued, "were desperate to avoid a repetition of the ethnic tensions which preceded the war." Himself pardoned in the mid-1980s, he remained concerned that since the war, "Ibos have been largely excluded from power," which "could cause instability in the future".

10. Conclusion

The suffering in Biafra during the Nigerian Civil War led to the development of international humanitarian agencies designed to respond to complex emergencies anywhere in the world.

During almost thirty months of fighting between the Federal Government and Biafran secessionists, the conflict received more attention from the west than any other previous African 'emergency.' From the standpoint of the international humanitarian sector, Biafra served as one of the first conflicts where issues of more contemporary complex emergencies began to develop. Biafra taught the international community how to better provide and coordinate aid and assistance to those affected by a complex emergency. From these lessons came the beginnings of

a framework for several issues, including: dealing with internally displaced persons (IDPs), negotiating humanitarian access and repatriation of unaccompanied children. However, in spite of Biafra's importance, the world seems to have little recollection of this conflict and the lessons learned.

On the other hand, this war and others that have taken place in the post-colonial space confirm for some, the notion that places like Africa are still too rife with ancient tribal animosities to create stable and viable states, thus some members of the international community have been slow to respond even when the facts of people's suffering (such as in Rwanda during the Rwandan Genocide) are fully known. Chillingly, the view that people deserve to lie in the graves they dig for themselves influences some policymakers, while donor- and disaster-fatigue makes others wary of giving as generously when they think that the wound being treated is somehow self-inflicted.

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Perceived Contributions of Leisure Activities to Societal Development of Indigenous People of Kwara Central Zone, Nigeria.

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Abstract. Judicious utilization of leisure hours is crucial to productivity of work force in any community. This paper examined the perceived contributions of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of Kwara central zone, Nigeria. The descriptive design was used for the study comprised people of Kwara central zone. Accidental Sampling Technique was used to select one thousand and twelve (1012) respondents across the Local Government Areas that made up Kwara central zone at various indigenous recreational. Questionnaire developed by the researchers on Likert 4-point scale; Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree was adopted for the study. A Co-efficient of 0.72 was obtained from the pilot testing of the questionnaire carried out in Kwara south zone. The three hypotheses formulated were tested and analyzed using inferential statistics of chi-square (X^2) at 0.05 alpha level. Finding showed that all the three hypotheses were significant indicating that; general well-being crime prevention and economic development were perceived as contributions of leisure activities to societal development. Therefore, it was recommended among others that government, corporate organizations and philanthropists should assist in the provision of leisure activities and programmes that will bring about good health and fitness of community members.

Keywords: Leisure, Society, Indigenous.

1. Introduction

The cultural richness of Africans opened a wide avenue for recreation after day's thrill. Recreation as well as physical exercises being under taken by an average man during cultural festivals like dance, acrobatic and gymnastic displays are often done

for enjoyment and refreshment. Omoruan (1996) opined that, in traditional African society, the child jumps, climbs a tree or mountain, rides a horse or donkey, dances or sings and also performs balancing acts because his siblings or elders do such. Every child discovers his lines and their uses. Thus, through playing games, sports and traditional religious festivals, the African child develops physical, emotional, aesthetic and social assets, which will serve him good stead when he grows. Kim, Chun and Heo (2016) said that leisure-time physical activities to experience psychological benefits which may contribute to quality of life and successful aging.

In Nigerian, despite the fact that our ancestors were mainly wanderers, who were predominantly rural with few urban areal settlements, the community life was relatively peaceful, social relationship was symbolic and there was less stress. There were lots of avenues for releasing tension and relaxing through traditional festivals, moonlight stories, meeting at the village square. They did hunt, dance, wrestle, fishing, swim and play various type of games during their leisure become well adjusted (Ipinmoroti, 2004).

The fast growing amount of leisure time in Nigeria also underscores the need for recreational pursuit. Critcher Bramham and Tomlinson (2001) believed that, it is through the leisure of the society that citizens express their real personalities, more so, it is the major determinant of their life -consciousnesses a basis for adoption of value and attitude that influence their behaviour in order aspect of life. Critter, et al (2001) further argued that, the result of increased leisure that is not properly utilized can manifest in various societal problems ranging from idleness, violence, alcoholism, drug abuse and other related vices.

George and McCullick (1999) buttressed that delinquency, crime, rioting and other anti-social acts may be the result of frustration and boredom but in most instances they are the result of emotional instability. The only way other than by heredity, to have a strong stable nervous system is through vigorous exercises and recreation during leisure hours.

Meanwhile, judicious utilization of leisure hours provides an opportunity for everyone in the society to satisfy their basic human needs for creative self-expression, improves general health, physical, emotional, mental and social. Recreation as an antidote to the difficulties of youth life experiences should make them develop good citizenship qualities and encourage democratic principles (Odumuh, 2004). Also, Kim, Yamada Heo and Han (2014) found from their study through the participants that engagement in leisure time physical activities offered them opportunities through which to establish a sense of friendship with other participants.

In his submission, Folawiyo (2001) asserted that, leisure pursuits as stimulation to physical activity that is enjoyable, exciting and which contribute to good muscle tone, improved blood circulation and provide satisfaction of basic psychological

needs, chances for success and the development of sense of belonging. Akorede and Adewole (2005) supported that, vigorous activities during leisure, promote the development of body ingredients like muscular strength, muscular endurance, power, flexibility, agility and co-ordination.

However, indigenous people do spend their leisure on choice of activities like participation in sports, game, music, reading, watching film and other arts. Mull, Bayless, Ross and Jamieson (1997), highlighted these cultural programming as; art activities that focus on creating personally aesthetic objects such as painting, wood work, or macramé. Dance activities; such as folk, square, or ballet dancing that focus on rhythmic movement pattern. Drama activities; like story telling or performing skits that result into expression.

Mull, et al (1997) mentioned further literacy, mental and linguistic activities focusing on mental challenges such as reading, working puzzles or writing. Pertinently, musical activities involving vocal and instrumental expression as part of leisure activities engaged in by indigenous people.

Therefore, the contributions of leisure activities to societal development in enhancing mental, asocial, economic and physical wellbeing of every individual cannot be*over emphasized. Contrarily, it is equally important to examine why some people developed deviant behaviour to leisure activities. It is therefore a worthwhile venture, assessing perceived contributions of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of central zone of Kwara States.

2. Hypotheses

- (i) General wellbeing of the body will significantly be perceived as contribution of leisure activities to social development of indigenous people of Central Zone of Kwara State.
- (ii) Crime prevention will significantly be perceived as contribution of leisure activities to social development of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone.
- (iii) Economic development will significantly be perceived as contribution of leisure activities to social development of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study. This method is most appropriate when one is studying large population that involves the use of questionnaire on a selected sample which permits inferences and generalization to the entire population. (Thomas & Nelson, 2001).

3.2 Population

The population of this study combined all people of local government areas under Kwara Central Zone (Ilorin West, Ilorin East, Ilorin South, Asa, and Moro Local Government Areas).

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

Accidental Sampling Technique was used to select one thousand and twelve (1,012) respondents found in indigenous recreation centers (Pakata Round-about Recreation centre, Ilorin West, Tegbesun Recreation Centre, Ilorin-West, Ile-film recreation centre, Ilorin East, Sabo line, Ilorin East, Ogbodonroko Asa, Alapa Market square, Asa, Elekoyanga center Ilorin South) from each Local Government Areas that made up Kwara Central Zone.

3.4 Research Instrument

The self-developed and validated 4-point modified Likert type Scale questionnaire with weight allotment of Strongly Agree, Agree, Strongly Disagree, Disagree were used for the study. Section "A" was on demographic data of the respondents while section "B" was on contributions of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone.

3.5 Data Collection and Analyses

Data were collected with the aid of two trained Research Assistants and analysed through the use of frequency counts, percentages and inferential statistics of chi square (X²) item analysis at 0.05 level of significance.

4. Results

Ho1: General wellbeing of the body will significantly be perceived as contribution of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone.

Table 1: X² item Analysis Table on General Well Being of the Body as Contribution of Leisure Activities

| S/N | ITEMS | <i>X</i> | S.D | X ² | ASSP.SIG | DECISION |
|-----|--|----------|--------|----------------|----------|----------|
| 1 | Participation in leisure activities keeps my muscles in tone | 3.5362 | .71662 | 295.342 | .000 | Accepted |
| 2 | Leisure activities increase my mental alertness | 3.3882 | .71799 | 219.000 | .000 | Accepted |
| 3 | Leisure activities help ease accumulated tension and fatigue | 3.4539 | .75202 | 237.579 | .000 | Accepted |

N= 1,012, d f=9, @ P ≤ 0:05.

Table 1 revealed that items 1, 2, and 3 recorded X of 3.5362, 3.3882, and 3.4539 respectively. SD of 0.71799, 0.71799 and 0.75202 respectively. X² of 295.342, 219.000, and 237.579 respectively with df of 9, all have assumption significance of 0.000 which were less than 0.05 meaning that the hypothesis of significance difference between general wellbeing of the body as contribute of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous of people of Kwara Central Zone was accepted. This means that participation in leisure activities contribute to the general wellbeing of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone. This is line with the view of Uguru-Okorie (1988) in Babatunde (2004) that medical scientists have found that leisure activities are required to control hypertension and other coronary heart diseases. Money, Okpako an Ezomoh (2004) buttressed that a life-long habit of taking balance diet in conjunction with a sensible programme of physical and leisure activities are indispensable to good health and physical fitness.

Ho2: Crime Prevention will significantly be perceived as contribution Leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of Kwan Central Zone.

Table 2: X² Item analysis table on crime prevention as contribution of leisure activities.

| S/N | ITEMS | X | S.D | X ² | ASSP.SIG | DECISION |
|-----|--|--------|--------|----------------|----------|----------|
| 4. | Judicious use of leisure hours help prevent crime in the society | 3.3586 | .79170 | 300.638 | .000 | Accepted |
| 5. | Juvenile delinquency can be curbed through leisure activities | 3.4934 | .69412 | 261.184 | .000 | Accepted |
| 6. | Psychological related behaviour i.e. frustration, annoyance, stress can be curbed through leisure activities | 3.3322 | .79071 | 176.079 | .000 | Accepted |

N=1,012, df=9, @ P ≤ 0.05

Table II showed that items 4, 5 and 6 got X of 3.3586, 3.4934, and 3.3322 respectively. S.1) of 0.79170, 0.69412, and 0.79071 respectively X² value of 300.638, 261.184, and 176.079 respectively with df of 9 all at 0 0.05 alpha level and assumption significance of 0.000. Thus, since .000 was less than 0.05. the hypothesis of significance difference between crime prevention and leisure activities was accepted connoting that participation in leisure activities do prevent crime among indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone of Kwara State. This result was congruent to the findings of Odeyemi and Akinremi (1997) that the major part of leisure activities provided in U.S prisons includes sports and other physical activities to meet the inmates need for free time pursuits. Hence, participation in these activities provides check for despairs, frustration and destructive behaviour. Dike (2004) supported that involvement in recreational activities such as sports impact the youth positively and help them to imbibe the societal norms, be self-disciplined, strong character and good citizenship.

Ho3: Economic development will significantly be perceived as contribution of leisure activities to societal development of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone of Kwara State.

Table 3: X2 Item analysis table on economic development as contribution of leisure activities. Economic Development

| S/N | ITEMS | X | S.D | X ² | ASSP.SIG | DECISION |
|-----|---|--------|--------|----------------|----------|----------|
| 7 | Recreational equipment and facilities can be hired out to the users | 3.4901 | .68451 | 257.658 | .000 | Accepted |
| 8 | Community festivals and carnivals can serves as tourist attractions | 3.3618 | .79228 | 190.474 | .000 | Accepted |
| 9 | Proceed made can be used for community developmental projects | 3.3597 | .79274 | 183.931 | .000 | Accepted |

N= 1,012 df=9 @ P≤ 0.05

It was revealed in the table III that the items 7,8 and 9 recorded X 3.4901, 3.3618 and 3.3597 respectively, S.D. of .68451, .79228 respectively X² of 257.658, 190.474 and 183.9331 respectively with df of 9 at 0.05 alpha level all had assumption significance of 0.000. However, since 0.000 was less than 0.05 the hypothesis of significance difference between economic development and leisure activities is was accepted. Referring to the fact that participating in leisure activities promoting and contributing to economic status of indigenous people of Kwara Central Zone. This result buttressed the submission of Ibraheem (2004) that Nigeria is endowed with wide variety of tourist attraction which if properly managed will generate foreign exchange, promote tourism based run enterprises, generate employment, and accelerate rural and urban integration and cultural exchange. Besides this, Ajala (2004) asserted that the work of some involves helping others utilize their leisure time, such occupations as life-guards, waitresses and cooks in restaurants, musician producing and repairing items used primarily for leisure.

5. Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn. With the increase awareness of importance of an active lifestyle among those indigenous people, participation in leisure activities is seen as laying the foundation in young and old people for long-term health and improves quality of life. Participation in leisure activities is also believed to be curbing anti-social vices in the community. Nevertheless, services and occupation from recreation or leisure activities can economically empower individual and community as a whole.

Recommendations

1. Government, cooperate organizations and philanthropists should assist in the provision of leisure activities and programmes that will bring about good health and fitness of community members.
2. Continuous Provision of recreational equipment and facilities to maintain high moral standards among community members.
3. Maximization of recreation sectors and tourist sites towards the attainment of its economic and social interaction, especially in Kwara State.

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Part Five
Educational Management



Role Conflict and Academics Staffs’ Effectiveness in Selected Tertiary Institutions in Osun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Role is vital in any social organization. Academic staffs of various tertiary institutions, like others members of any giving organization, experience conflicting roles and this simply means that they are faced with two or more inconsistent patterns of role expectations being attached to a single position in the system. This paper looked into influence of role conflict on academic staffs’ effectiveness in selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria with particular reference to Osun state. Four hypotheses were formulated to guide the study; all the four state owned higher institutions in Osun State were used for the study. One hundred and forty academic staffs and twenty heads of department were selected using stratified random sampling technique from the existing department as respondents to the role conflict questionnaire (RCQ) and academic staffs’ effectiveness questionnaire (ASEQ). The data were analyzed using Pearson product moment Correlation coefficient (r) statistics. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Out of the four hypotheses raised; two were accepted while two were rejected. Based on the findings, recommendations were made to ensure that academic staffs face less stress and are made more effect in the discharge of their roles most especially in community services and production of high quality publishable academic papers.

Keywords: Role, Conflict, Academic Staffs, Effectiveness

1. Introduction.

The university system is a complex organization in which its employees are bound to have diverse expectations of themselves and from their colleagues in the course of carrying out their organizational roles and responsibilities. Role conflict, as defined by Cohen (1991), is incongruence of role expectations and a situation whereby an individual is expected to perform two or more different roles. Role conflict happens when a person faces different and incompatible expectations

arising from the social status which he/she occupies in an organization. The role a person plays in any social organizational setting is not created by him/her but defined by the organization through written and unwritten law and customs. Roles are inescapable and every individual has certain role to play in a given organization. The term 'role' comes from Sociology and it is the pattern of actions expected of a person in relations to the position, office and status he/she holds within the organization (Keith, 1980).

Roles can be defined as expectations about a social behaviour as well as functions carried out by an employee for an organization, or positions occupied by an employee in an organization. In an organisational context therefore, roles refers to "expectations employees have of each other"

Holt (1990) stated that role conflict can lead to ethical dilemma since the role that is required of an incumbent is expected to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually inclusive, contradictory or inconsistent. Disland and Latif (2011); Tsang, 2010 and Schulz, 2013) posited that role conflict is a major stressor that brings in dysfunctionality on both the individuals and organizations if not well managed. Some of the negative outcomes of role conflict include; tension, lack of confidence, a feeling of hopelessness, anxiety and depression, decreased job satisfaction, distrust in the organization, and ill-relationship with members of role set and superior officers, poor performance, which in turn affects the organization's overall performance.

2. Reviewed Literatures

A few studies had been carried out on role conflict and academic staffs' effectiveness in higher educational institutions in Nigeria. Most of the studies, however, were mostly based on administrative effectiveness (Dubrin, 1988, Oduwaiye 1998 and Awoyemi, 2000).

Bako, (2014) in her study titled role ambiguity and role conflict amongst university academic and administrative staffs: Nigerian as a case study; revealed that academic staffs perceived role ambiguity significantly higher than the administrative staffs, but no significant difference was recorded in their perception of role conflict. The findings further revealed that educational qualification and gender had a significant impact on role perception of the academic staffs, but did not have any significant relationship with the administrative staffs' perception of role.

In another study, Tang and Chang (2010) studied the effects of role conflict and role ambiguity on employee creativity. With survey data from 202 employees of Taiwanese companies, the study report concluded that role conflict has a negative effect while role ambiguity can have a positive effect on creativity. The research

also suggests that most participants are unaware of role conflict and its effects on themselves or their fellow team members.

Gormley and Kennerly (2010) studied the influence of work role and perceptions of climate on faculty organizational commitment. The result of their study revealed that role ambiguity and role conflict have negative influence on organizational commitment. This finding runs contrary to Ajayi, (1998) and Mullins (1991) whose study revealed that extra work might not yield negative effect on the part of both the individual and the organization. The results of Vijaya & Hemamalini (2011) study of impact of organizational climate, role ambiguity and role conflict on organizational commitment among faculties in engineering colleges, showed that role ambiguity and role conflict significantly affected the commitment of faculty members to work negatively. Onyemah (2008) indicated that role ambiguity and role conflict affect job performance while Duzie (2012) associated role conflicts with the assumed resentment between the professional and academic administrators which have resulted in impeding the attainment of goals of university education. Similarly, some literature have recorded the existence of role ambiguity and role conflict among the academics and administrators of universities (Dilshad & Latif, 2011; Winefield, 2000;) and it was established that academics experience higher occupational stress than other staffs (Winefield, et al 2003).

On academic staffs effectiveness, Dreeben (1970)'s view was reviewed for this study and the following areas were considered important in measuring academic staffs effectiveness within the context of this paper.

- Students' academic performance.
- Research effectiveness.
- Publication effectiveness.
- Community service effectiveness.

3. The Problem

Since role conflicts are naturally expected and inescapable; academic staffs in tertiary institutions are into diverse roles and responsibilities. Academic staffs within tertiary institutions are been adjudged by four (4) thematic areas: Teaching, Community service, Publications and Research. Each of these thematic areas are with expected roles and responsibilities and it is expected of every academic staffs to perform these roles, such as lecturing, students' registration, participation in extracurricular activities like sports, attending seminars, workshops and conferences, publications and carrying out some research works. In undertaking these simultaneous activities, there exists a sort of incompatible demands expected from the roles which are sources of stress and tension. A times; lecturers are required to interact outside the school environment and some of these external expectations often differ considerably from internal expectations required of them and most times incompatible. Due to these contradictory roles, conflict arises leading to personal stress and discomforts, and causing role strains on the lecturers.

The present economic depression which has culminated into recession in Nigeria has made many of the academic staffs to also extend their frontiers of teaching and research into other tertiary institutions as adjunct lectures, engagement in small scale business, and consultancy. Based on this premise, this study tried to investigate whether these conflicting roles have any influence on academic staffs effectiveness using Osun state owned tertiary institutions as a case study.

4. Purpose and Scope

The study sought to ascertain whether members of the academic staffs in Osun State owned higher institutions experience role conflict in the performance of their duties and whether their effectiveness is been influenced by role conflict. The study covered the four state-owned higher institutions in Osun State, namely Osun State College of Education, Ilesha; Osun State College of Education, Ila- Orangun, Osun State College of Technology, Esa-Oke and Osun State Polytechnic, Iree.

5. Methodology

The study is a descriptive survey research of ex-post facto. This is a method in which groups with qualities that already exist are compared on some dependent variables. In this study, the independent variable is role conflict while the dependent variable is the academic staffs' effectiveness. Out of the existing higher institutions of learning in Osun State, the four owned by the state government were used for the study. Stratified random sampling technique was used for the selection of all the academic staffs using departments and ranks of staffs as strata. For the Heads of Departments, simple random sampling was used by means of balloting for all departments in each institution, making a total sampling of one hundred and sixty academic staffs including Heads of Departments and some Deans of Schools. Thirty five academic staffs and five Heads of Departments were selected in each of the institutions.

To obtain adequate information on the problems of the study, two questionnaires; role conflict questionnaire and academic staffs' effectiveness questionnaire were constructed. Fifteen items were drawn on role conflict questionnaire, which was to elicit responses on some conflicting roles experienced by the academic staffs. The second questionnaire was on the academic staffs' effectiveness. The items were based on four indicators: research, community service, publication and students' academic performance and these were used in measuring their effectiveness. Items were drawn on three of them while the academic performance of the students was determined from the five years results of the final year Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) and National Diploma (ND) between 2010/2011 - 2014/2015 in the institutions.

The validity of the questionnaires was determined by two experts in the field of Educational Management with some slight changes made in one of the selected

indicators. In determining the reliability of the questionnaires, it administered on ten academic staffs and two Head of Departments of two of the higher institutions in the state that were not included in the study using a test- re-test method. The data obtained were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Method. Correlation Coefficient of 0.81 and 0.89 for RCQ and ASEQ were used respectively. Hence the questionnaires were adjudged to be reliable. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher.

6. Hypotheses

Four hypotheses were raised to guide the study and in testing the hypotheses raised; Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics was used.

Ho1- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ research effectiveness in Osun State owned higher institutions.

Ho2- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ community service effectiveness in Osun State owned higher institutions.

Ho3- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ publication effectiveness in Osun state owned higher institutions.

Ho4: -There is no significant relationship between role conflict and students’ academic performance in Osun State owned higher institutions.

As for the students’ academic performance, the results obtained were stratified according to classes of grades A, B, C, D, and E and these classes of grades were rated 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The weighed scores were taken and collated and the average of all the weighted scores was then computed. From the processed data, inferences were drawn using 0.05 significance level for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses.

7. Results

Ho1:- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ research effectiveness in Osun State owned higher institution

Table 1

Relationship between role conflict and Academic staffs Research Effectiveness

| Variables | No of Cases | Mean | S.D. | Df | Calculated r Value | Critical r Value | Decision |
|------------------------|-------------|---------|--------|-----|--------------------|------------------|---------------|
| Role Conflict | 140 | 38.3429 | 3.0529 | 139 | .0996 | | Ho1 Accepted. |
| Research Effectiveness | 140 | 16.1143 | 1.2413 | | | 0.1946 | |

The result in Table 1 shows that the calculated r. value (0.0996) is lower than the critical value of r (0.1946) at 0.05level of significance. Therefore, there is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ research effectiveness.

Ho2:- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ community service effectiveness.

Table 2

Relationship between Role Conflict and Academic Staffs Community Service Effectiveness

| Variables | No of Cases | Mean | S.D. | Df | Calculated R- Value | Critical Value | Decision |
|---------------------------------|-------------|---------|--------|-----|---------------------|----------------|---------------|
| Role Conflict | 140 | 38.3429 | 3.0529 | 139 | .2825 | | Ho2 Rejected. |
| Community Service Effectiveness | 140 | 15.7929 | 0.8179 | | | 0.1946 | |

Table 2 shows that the calculated r value of 0.2825 is higher than the critical r value of 0.1946 at 0.05 alpha level and 139 degrees of freedom. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected, which implies that there is a significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ community service effectiveness.

Ho3- There is no significant relationship between role conflict and academic staffs’ publication effectiveness in Osun State Owned Higher Institutions

Table 3

Relationship between Role Conflict and Academic staffs’ publication effectiveness

| Variables | No of Cases | Mean | S.D. | Df | Calculated R Value | Critical Value | Decision |
|---------------------------|-------------|---------|--------|-----|--------------------|----------------|----------------|
| Role Conflict | 140 | 38.3429 | 3.0529 | 139 | 0.3224 | | Ho 3 Rejected. |
| Publication Effectiveness | 140 | 15.9071 | 0.3776 | | | 0.1946 | |

In Table 3, the calculated r value is (0.3224) at 0.05 level of significance and 139 degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This implies that there is significant relationship between Role conflict and academic staffs’ publication effectiveness in Osun State owned higher institutions.

Ho4: -There is no significant relationship between role conflict and students’ academic performance in Osun State owned higher institutions.

Table 4

Relationship between role conflict and students academic performance

| Variables | No of Cases | Mean | S.D. | Df | R Value | Critical Value | Decision |
|------------------------------|-------------|--------|--------|-----|---------|----------------|---------------|
| Role Conflict | 140 | 4.8305 | 3.0529 | 139 | 0.0826 | | Ho4 Accepted. |
| Student Academic Performance | 140 | 3.703 | | | | 0.1946 | |

Table 4 shows that the calculated of r-value (0.0826) is lower than the table value (0.1946) at 0.05 level of significance and 139 degrees of freedom. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that there is no significant relationship between role conflict and students academic performance

8. Discussion of Results

Table1 shows that in conducting research, members of academic staffs may see it as a positive challenge and also as means of acquiring more knowledge and discovering new areas in their fields. This result runs contrary to Gormley and Kennerly (2010) whose study result indicated that role ambiguity and role conflict have negative influence on individual and organizational commitment. The findings agree with Mullins (1991) on the definition of role conflict, that roles performed are sometimes neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory. Ajayi, (1998) also corroborates the finding when he opined that extra work might not yield negative effective. From the result in Table 1, it seems that academic staffs of Osun state owned tertiary institutions go about their varied roles especially in respect of research effectively rather than allow a negative effect to set in.

Result from Table 2 shows that academic staffs were unable to integrate with their immediate locality, which is supposed to be their primary external constituency. Among the means of integrating themselves are through co-curricular activities, sports etc., attending seminars, conferences and workshops. The result shows that academic staffs experienced difficulties in engaging in outside programmes aside from the school internal programmes. This finding supports Duzie (2012); Tang and Chang (2010) whose study reports concluded that role conflict has a negative effect on employees’ performance in any given organization.

The result in Table 3 indicates that members of academic staffs experienced difficulties in publication of qualitative and quantitative works due to conflicting roles. The finding corroborates Winefield’s, (2003) report that academics experienced higher occupational stress hence low productivity when compared with other staffs. It may also be that their works were not found publishable or as a result

of inadequate fund to enable them publish. In addition, it may be that college of education and polytechnics systems attach less importance to publications as this is not a pre-requisite for promotion unlike in the University system.

From Table 4, the result shows that members of academic staffs do discharge their teaching activities efficiently; this has positive impact on the students' performance. It is generally believed that academic staffs serve as a key variable in students' academic achievement. From the result, it seems that academic staffs were committed to their primary assignments despite various assigned roles within and outside the institutions. This finding corroborates Mullins' (1991) on the definition of role conflict, that roles performed are sometimes neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory.

9. Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of this study clearly show that academic staffs in Osun State tertiary institutions were able to cope in the areas of research and teaching effectively despite varied roles. Research is seen as a means of acquiring knowledge especially in their areas of specialization, though not all research works are published. In the area of publication, it entails a lot a work, such as compilation, writing, editing, the need of a external person to assess, thorough monitoring and a times a lot of fund may be required, hence it takes a lot of time and energy and this might account for the null hypotheses accepted.

The academic staffs were not able to cope in the areas of community services and publications effectively as a result of conflicting roles as tested by the raised hypotheses.

Based on these conclusions, the following recommendations are hereby made:

- There should be adequate number of academic staffs employed and spread out within the various existing departments to handle various segments of programmes available since more specialists' hands will foster competence, effectiveness and efficiency in role performance. This might give them ample opportunity towards publications.
- Osun State government should adequately fund their higher institutions so that the institutions' administrators will find it easier to sponsor their academic staffs to conferences and related educational advancement programmes. Sponsorship to conferences and research grants should be provided to enable them improve themselves and carry out quality and publishable research works and at the same time assist them in networking to build a strong community relationship.

Putting these measures in place will go a long way to reduce the stress and tension experienced by some of these academic staffs during the course of performing their roles. Reduced stress of academic staffs translates into improvement in their academic standards as they work in a relaxed atmosphere.

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Principals' Participative Management Style and Conflict Resolution Skills as predictors of Teachers' Job Commitment in Public Secondary Schools

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Abstract. The clamour for teachers' job commitment as one of the key elements in education is arguably becoming an increasingly important factor in the 21st century in Nigeria, therefore, this escalating demand calls for the need to critically focus on variables that can influence their commitment. Thus, this study investigated principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills as predictors of teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested to guide the study. A descriptive research design was employed in this study. The population for the study consisted of the 3,109 teachers in the 135 public secondary schools in the six local government areas in Ijebu division of Ogun State. A sample of six hundred and forty five (645) respondents was selected for this study using multi stage sampling procedure and simple random sampling technique. Three (3) standardized instruments were used for data collection, namely: Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) and Teacher Involvement and Participation Scale, Version 2 (TIPS2) and they were analysed using regression analysis. Findings from the study revealed that there was significant influence of principals' participative management style on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. Also, there was significant influence of principals' conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. Finally, there was significant influence of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. Based on these findings, it was recommended that the education board at the state level should provide and strengthen policy framework that will effectively ensure that all teachers is allowed to take part in all aspects of school management. It was suggested that the Ministry of Education should organize extensive in-service development programme and/or encourage the principals to go for short courses in educational management with

specific emphasis on leadership skills and styles and conflict management in schools.

Keywords: participative management style, conflict resolution skills, job commitment, public secondary schools, ogun state.

1. Introduction

Teachers' job commitment has been the focus of a considerable body of research in past decades. In respect to this, the teacher has become the focus of attention because of their unique roles in the actualization of the educational objectives. It is daily becoming increasingly clear that no nation can rise or develop without the right calibre of teachers (FGN, 2013). Teachers are nation builders since majority of the members of a particular society will pass through their moulding hands (Okeke, 2004). Hence, the need for competent and committed teachers as a pre-requisite that will enhance the efforts being made by all concerned to solve the prevailing challenges confronting our educational system has been well amplified by Fafunwa (1976) as cited in Adesina (2007).

Firestone and Pennell (1993) points out that teachers' commitment has since 1980's become a topic of interest in education discourse. The word has been interchangeably used to mean quality teachers or dedicated teachers (Abd Razak, Darmawan, & Keeves, 2010).

Becker (1999) defines commitment as the investment in a particular career, in this case, teaching. Lortie (1995) regards commitment as the willingness an individual enacts in investing personal resources to the teaching task. Nias (1991) looks at teacher commitment like an organizational commitment, which is conceptualised as being multidimensional. Joffress and Haughey (2001) wrote that teachers' commitment is a crucial factor to an effective school, teacher satisfaction, and retention. They claimed that low levels of teachers' commitment results into decreased students' achievement tests.

Adeyemo (2001), however, observes that it is not uncommon to hear people's remark that the present day teachers are not as good or committed as their yester-years counterparts. Also, Elliott and Creswell (2001) argue that teachers' commitment and engagement have been identified as amongst the most critical factors in the success and future of education. It contributes to teachers' work performance, absenteeism, burnout, and turnover as well as having an important influence on students' achievement.

Some teachers see their commitment as part of their professional identity, it defines them and their work and they gain satisfaction and "a lot of enjoyment from this" (Elliott & Crosswell, 2001). Even in the current educational climate of constant reform and increased accountability, some teachers are able to find space to

manoeuvre within an increasingly restricting work environment and are creating spaces and ways to maintain their professional commitment (Day, 2004). What Drucker (2002) refers to as the “current knowledge economy” which has necessitated a re-conceptualisation of the nature of both teaching and learning. Being reframed as “knowledge workers” has seen some teachers continue to flourish in spite of the current challenges, while others are overwhelmed by the new demands of teaching. This latter group of teachers considers the requirements of teaching to be burdensome, requiring great personal investment and view it as a job with the capacity to colonise their personal lives (Nias, 1989).

Day, Elliot and Kington (2005) argues that there are different forms of commitment to teaching. According to them, the nature and intensity of commitment to teaching depends on factors derived from personal and professional lives. Commitment is a word they use to distinguish those who are caring, dedicated, and who take their job seriously from those who put their own interest first. The professionally committed teachers take their job seriously and they get enjoyment from it (Elliott & Crosswell, 2001). Tyree (1996) observes that teachers who are committed are those who see their students’ welfare; they care for, responding to, and meeting students’ needs. They strived to improve on their practice and look at pedagogies and research. They also talk and listen to their children, at the same time they work as a team with others and their head of school (in this case, the principal), appropriately prepared for their lessons, and are reflective practitioners. Another view shared by committed teachers is that teaching is not just a job. Teachers invest their personal time even outside school contact hours. They have made teaching as a lifestyle. They often contemplate on their class programs and students while engaging in a range of personal activities like in shower, shopping, or watching television (Tyree, 1996).

Teachers’ commitment has been studied in relation to teacher preparations. Choi and Tang (2009) indicate that a teacher who is highly dedicated to student affairs evaluates/assesses the acquisition of subject matter well and prepares well for the lessons. Fox (1964) illustrates characteristics of a committed teacher as one who prepares well the content he/she is going to teach. Tella, (2008) defines quality teaching as teaching that maximizes learning for all students. It entails engaging pupils as active learners to induce positive, comprehensive changes in their pre-existing knowledge, skills, and attitudes. These are achieved by committed teachers who are able to prepare well their lessons by taking into consideration learners’ experiences, abilities, interest, motivation and skills. Armstrong, Henson, and Savage (2009) points out that in order to provide quality learning experience for all students, lessons must be well planned and prepared effectively. They describe responsibilities and characteristics of the 21st century committed teachers as: matching instructions and programs to learner’s characteristic, conducting task analysis to identify an appropriate beginning point, and a logical sequence for instruction, specifying learning intentions. Lessons should be well prepared to suit the learners’ capabilities and interests. Lessons must stimulate learners to want to

learn the new information. Armstrong et al. (2009) further confirms that as one plans for a group of learners he/she needs to engage in what is called “task-analysis activities.”

However, there are multiple objects of commitment for a teacher and teachers’ commitment objects may also change across different life and career phases and in different contexts (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). The enthusiasm and commitment demonstrated by teachers at the beginning of their careers, is often followed by a time experimentation, after which time teachers can experience a period of frustration and self-doubt, often followed by stages of conservatism and eventual disengagement (Huberman, 1993). In view of this, there is need to examine principals’ participative management style and conflict resolution skills as part of the variables which may result to change in teachers’ commitment across different life and career phases and in different contexts.

Teachers as stakeholders in education are entitled to participation in decision making at school level. An extensive body of research has shown that participative management – is a joint decision making or shared influence in decision making by a superior and his or her employees offers a variety of potential benefits to the overall school organization and to its employees (Day, Elliot & Kington, 2005). Participative management challenges traditional practices and encourages autonomy, openness to new suggestions or ideas, and novel objectives (West, 2002). A participative management environment involves an increase in social and mental demands, such as job meaningfulness, responsibility for others and collaboration (Stevens & Ash, 2001). Weihrich, Cannice and Koontz (2008) opines that one of the most important human activities is management. Ever since people began forming groups to accomplish aims they could not achieve as individuals, management has been essential to ensure the coordination of individual efforts. As society has come to rely increasingly on group effort, and as many organized groups have become large, the task of managers has been rising in importance. Participative management gives employees more responsibility for organizational performance, planning and organizing decisions more effectively, thus inherently signaling that the organization recognizes that employees can make important contributions to it (Stevens & Ash, 2001).

Working in a participative management environment tends to foster more interaction among team members and requires individuals who have robust social skills (Lawler, 1992). It has the potential to balance the involvement of managers and their subordinates in information-processing, decision-making, or problem-solving endeavors (Wagner, 1994). A participative management environment helps teachers discover new opportunities and challenges and enables them to learn by acquiring, sharing, and combining knowledge (Edmondson, 1999). High levels of conscientiousness are characterized by a general tendency to be involved in work, entailing a greater likelihood of obtaining satisfying formal and informal work rewards (respect, sense of personal accomplishment) (Organ & Lingl, 1995).

Robbins and Coulter (1996) opines that participative/democratic management describes a leader who tends to involve subordinates in decision making, delegate authority, encourage participation in deciding work methods and goals, and use feedback as an opportunity for coaching. Participative management, in fact, promotes a sense of we feeling among the employees and enable to own the decisions taken by the managers. Participative (or participatory) management, otherwise known as employee involvement or participative decision making, encourages the involvement of stakeholders at all levels of an organization in the analysis of problems, development of strategies, and implementation of solutions. Mullins (2008) states that the democratic style is where the focus of power is more with the group as a whole and there is greater interaction with the group. The leadership functions are shared with members of the group and the manger is more part of a team. The group members have a greater say in decision making, determination of a policy, implementation of systems and procedures. Employees are invited to share in the decision-making process of the firm by participating in activities such as setting goals, determining work schedules, and making suggestions. Other forms of participative management include increasing the responsibility of employees (job enrichment); forming self-managed teams, quality circles, or quality-of-work-life committees; and soliciting survey feedback. Participative management, however, involves more than allowing employees to take part in making decisions. It also involves management treating the ideas and suggestions of employees with consideration and respect. Wehrich et al (2008) say that democratic or participative leader consults with subordinates on proposed actions and decisions and encourages participation from them. This type of leader ranges from the person who does not take action without subordinates' concurrence to the one who makes decisions but consults with subordinates before doing so.

Participative management practices are commonly perceived as offering a variety of potential benefits for the organization and for workers mental health and job satisfaction (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Kim, 2002). Nevertheless, such an environment, which is marked by shared decision making and a high level of interaction and cooperation among teachers and between teachers and principals (Blase & Blase, 1994), may actually be harmful for some, as it generates additional pressure and perceived stress due to added challenges, responsibility and accountability.

However, Khaparde , Srivastava and Meganathan (2004) research indicates that successful schools adopted participative management system in running day-to-day activities of the schools, gave people autonomy but also made them accountable for successful completion of the tasks, followed democratic methods of taking decisions, gave priority to the welfare of students, maintained supportive relationship with teachers, attempted to establish linkage with parents, set up higher and higher goals for themselves and the schools, adopted innovative pedagogical methods and evaluation devices, and recognized good work of the teachers. The results have implications for other schools where some of these devices can be tried out to improve their performance.

Participative management enhances control appraisal because if teachers are involved in the decision-making process, they are likely to feel that they have control over work processes and outcomes (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). From a motivational approach, Locke and Latham (1990) suggest that participation in decision making enhances involvement and commitment, leading to a sense of ownership of school objectives and missions. This sense of ownership motivates individuals to broaden their roles to improve school functioning (Evers, 1990). Also, teachers' participation can enhance a sense of fairness and trust in the organization because teachers can defend their own interests and because they get information on the making of decisions to which they would not otherwise be exposed (Sagie, Zaidman, Hamburger, Te'eni, & Schwartz, 2002). This sense of fairness and the signal to teachers that principals trust them lead to more favorable attitudes toward school, which in turn increases role breadth (Morgeson, Johnson, Campion, Medsker, & Mumford, 2006). These favorable attitudes toward school may further reduce conflict among and within teachers.

Conflict has been observed to be in existence in all human organizations including the school system. It could be described as all forms of opposition, disagreement, friction between two or more parties and it manifests in the forms of arguments, protests, demonstration, aggression and other destructive behaviours. While conflict occurrence have been observed to be inevitable and ubiquitous in human organizations, the strategies for managing it have remained topical issues and matters of concern to individuals, groups and scholars (National Open University of Nigeria, 2009). Amason (1996) describes conflict as a form of socialization. He stressed that people in organizations have both personal and role preferences about the organizations' actions and policies. Oyebade (1994) describes conflict as inevitable.

In relating conflict with the society, Fayeye (1994) asserts that, the conflict perspective assumes that social behaviour is best understood in terms of conflicts, or tension among competing groups. Sociologists and other social scientists have come to see conflict not merely as a class phenomenon, but as part of everyday life in all societies. It is, therefore, obvious that in every culture, organization or social group, individuals that form such a social unit will struggle from their respective channels to achieve one goal or the other. One person is bound to suffer, while one person will benefit, and an individual will attempt to dominate at the expense of others "competition" and conflict place confusion on people's understanding and perception that they are taken as a similar concept.

However, conflict exists whenever it is impossible for others to carry out their desired action. Hence, Bens (1997) reports that conflict is the tension that is experienced when a group of people feels that their needs or desires are likely to be denied. His argument was in consonance with the contention made by Owens (1995) who postulated that conflict occurs whenever incompatible activities occur

while Abdu- Raheem (2004) argues that it could mean strife, controversy, discord of action and antagonism. Thus, in a related survey, Adeyemi (2010) found that in the Nigerian school system, conflict occurs from time to time. He argues that conflict is the art of coming into collision, clash or be in opposition with one another. His argument was in agreement with Canavan and Monahan (2001) that conflict situation is one in which the parties involved are unable to iron out their differences.

Several types of conflicts identified in the schools according to Abubakar (2005) are student-staff conflict, student-student conflict, student-principal conflict and community- school conflict.

Communication barriers, role ambiguity, unclear expectations or rules, unresolved prior conflicts, conflicting interests, disagreement on task and content issues are some of the factors that can lead to conflict situations in schools. At the same time, competition for scarce resources, differences in values and inconsistencies among educators and learners may also bring about discord (Calitz, Fuglested & Lillejord, 2002). In the same view, Albert (2001) state that conflicts may be caused by competition for inadequate resources, contradicting value system, psychological needs of group and individuals, manipulation of information and perception. Conflict is part of a school because teachers have varying ideas about issues, they have different backgrounds and their experiences are different. These differences can cause so much damage to the school if they are not well managed; hence the importance of conflict resolution strategies to schools administrators. School' administrators are managers and they should be able to manage conflict effectively rather than suppress or avoid them.

In addition, Van der Westhuizen (1991) opines that conflict situations may develop in any organisation such as schools where the management task of the principal is centred and directed. In most instances conflict is perceived to have negative and unsolvable implications and is therefore regarded as something unpleasant and disadvantageous to the parties involved.

Omboko (2010) indicates that conflicts in schools may reduce strengths and resources such as social support and integration among teachers and all those involved in education which ultimately increase problems in schools among students. Thus, conflicts not only threaten school functioning, but may trigger a chain of other educational and social problems which include abuse of office, disagreement, quarrels, hostility and violent fights which may have a negative impact on the successful running of the school.

Researchers have established some relationships that exist between participative management style and conflict management skills. According to Mc Gregor (1960), some proponents of participation give the impression that it is a magic formula. He proposes that it will eliminate conflict and disagreement and come close to solving

all management challenges. Without the degree of participation in the decisions, which are of immediate importance to them, workers seldom develop a sense of loyalty and attachment to an organization, its function and purposes. When workers feel a sense of alienation they often respond to their situation by adopting an aggressive and hostile attitude to the exercise of managerial authority (Clarke, Fatchett & Roberts, 1972).

Clarke et al (1972) further argues that the more a worker is enabled to exercise over his task, the more lightly he is to adopt a co-operative attitude and a positive commitment to achieving the goals of the enterprise without conflict and breakdown of normative pattern of relations between management and workers. Therefore, this study intends to find out the influence of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division, Ogun State, Nigeria.

2. Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

3. Statement of the Problem

Researchers have observed that it is not uncommon to hear people's remark that the present day teachers are not as good or committed as their yester-years counterparts. Despite several efforts of the government and other stakeholders in the education sector to enhance the professional advancement of teachers in order to increase their commitment, not much seems to have been achieved. Hence, this study intends to provide a new research ground in the area of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills as predictors of teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

4. Hypotheses

Ho1: There is no significant influence of principals' participative management style on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Ho2: There is no significant influence of principals' conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Ho3: There is no significant influence of principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

5. Methodology

A descriptive research design was employed in this study. The population for the study consisted of the three thousand one hundred and nine (3,109) teachers in the one hundred and thirty five (135) public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. The sample for this study was six hundred and forty five (645) teachers of public secondary schools through multistage sampling procedure and simple random sampling technique. At the first stage, three (3) local government areas were selected from the six (6) local government areas in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria through simple random sampling technique. At the second stage, disproportionate stratified sampling procedure was used to select 61.1% of schools from Ijebu East local government area, 64 % from Ijebu-Ode and 64 % from Odogbolu respectively. These amounted to eleven (11) public secondary schools from Ijebu East, sixteen (16) from Ijebu-Ode and sixteen (16) from Odogbolu to form a total of forty three (43) public secondary schools. At the third stage, fifteen (15) teachers were selected through simple random sampling technique from each of the forty three (43) public secondary schools to arrive at a sample of six hundred and forty five (645) respondents. The samples of six hundred and forty five (645) respondents represented a total of 21 % of the entire population while the forty three (43) public secondary schools represented 33 % of the entire public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

6. Instrumentation

6.1 Organizational Commitment Scale

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) is a 24-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1996). The scale has been used internationally and locally by researchers (e.g Adams, 2007; Yavuz, 2010). It is divided into three (3) segments which are: Affective commitment scale (e.g, I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization), continuance commitment scale (e.g, I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one line up) and normative commitment scale (e.g, I do not believe that a person must be loyal to his or her organization). The items are measured on a likert type scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The cronbach's alpha for the three (3) segment of the scale are 0.78, 0.73 and 0.77 respectively. The instrument was revalidated and a correlation coefficient of 0.91 was obtained indicating that the instrument is reliable for the study.

6.2 Teacher Involvement and Participation Scale, Version 2 (TIPS2)

Russell Teacher Involvement and Participation Scale, Version 2 (TIPS2) is a 10-item scale developed by Russell (1992). It was used to measure the level of teachers' perceptions of their present level of participation in school decisions (e.g, Teachers have major input into decisions made in my school). The TIPS2 is on a 5-point scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The cronbach's alpha

for the scale is 0.9572. The instrument was revalidated and a correlation coefficient of 0.78 was obtained indicating that the instrument is reliable for the study.

6.3 Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II (ROCI-II)

Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory – II (ROCI-II) is a 28-item scale developed by (Rahim, 1983). It was used to measure the perception of the participants to their superior’s typical behaviour when resolving conflicts in the workplace (e.g, The principal try to investigate an issue with the subordinates to find a solution acceptable to them). The ROCI-II is on a 5-point scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The cronbach’s alpha for the inventory is 0.81. The instrument was revalidated and a correlation coefficient of 0.96 was obtained indicating that the instrument is reliable for the study.

7. Data Analysis

In analyzing the result, Regression Analysis was used. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

8. Results

8.1.Hypothesis One

There is no significant influence of principals’ participative management style on teachers’ job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Table 1: ANOVA result of the influence of principals’ participative management style on teachers’ job commitment.

| | Model | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig (P). |
|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| R=.086 ^a | Regression | 219.211 | 1 | 219.211 | 4.746 | .030 ^b |
| R Square=.007 | Residual | 29374.507 | 636 | 46.186 | | |
| Adjusted.R ² =.006 | Total | 29593.718 | 637 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Teachers’ Job Commitment

b. Predictor: (Constant), Principals’ Participative Management Style.

As shown in the table 1 above, principals’ participative management style contributes 0.6% (R = .086; R² = .007; Adj. R²= .006; F_(1,636) = 4.746; P< .05) to teachers’ job commitment. Therefore, it can be concluded that principals’ participative management style have a significant influence on teachers’ job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. Hence, the null hypothesis one is rejected.

8.2. Hypothesis Two

There is no significant influence of principals’ conflict resolution skills on teachers’ job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Table 2: ANOVA result of the influence of principals’ conflict resolution skills on teachers’ job commitment.

| | Model | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| R=.253 ^a | Regression | 1894.828 | 1 | 1894.828 | 43.508 | .000 ^b |
| R Square=.064 | Residual | 27698.890 | 636 | 43.552 | | |
| Adjusted.R ² =.063 | Total | 29593.718 | 637 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Teacher’ Job Commitment

b. Predictor: (Constant), Conflict Resolution Skills

The Results in table 2 reveals that principals’ conflict resolution skills influence accounts for 6.3% (R = .253; R² = .064; Adj. R²= 063; F_(1,636) = 43.508; P< .05)of the variance in teachers’ job commitment. Thus, it can be concluded that principals’ conflict resolution skills have a significant influence on teachers’ job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. Hence, the null hypothesis two is rejected.

8.3. Hypothesis three

There is no significant influence of principals’ participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers’ job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Table 3: Model Summary of the Multiple Regression Analyses for the combined influence of principal’s participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers’ job commitment.

| Model | Source | Sum Of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig |
|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|---------|
| R=.268 ^a | Regression | 2132.211 | 2 | 1066.106 | 24.652 | .000(a) |
| R Square=.072 | Residual | 27461.507 | 635 | 43.246 | | |
| Adjusted.R ² =.069 | Total | 29593.718 | 637 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Teachers Job Commitment.

b. Predictors: (Constant), Principals’ Participative Management Style, Conflict Resolution Skills.

The results in Table 3 reveals that with the two predictor variables (principals’ participative Management Style and Conflict Resolution Skills) entered into the regression model at once, there was a significant prediction of teachers job commitment (R =.268; R² = .072; Adj. R²= .069;F_(2, 635) = 24.652; P< .05). This shows that principal’s participative management style and conflict resolution skills accounted for 6.9 % of the variance in the teachers’ job commitment. This implies

that there is a significant combined influence of principal's participative management style and conflict resolution skills on teachers' job commitment in Ijebu division of Ogun State, Nigeria. Therefore, null hypothesis three is rejected.

9. Discussion

Hypothesis one tested the significant influence of principals' participative management style on teachers' job commitment. The result of the analysis reveals that principals' participative management style significantly influenced teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. With respect to this outcome, the nature of the relationship between principals' participative management style and teachers' job commitment could be explained from the point of view that people are more committed to actions where they are involved in the relevant decision-making. This implies that when people make decisions together, the social commitment to one another is greater and thus increases their commitment to the decision and creating a sense of fairness in the subordinates. This position corroborates the finding of Locke and Latham (1990) that participation in decision making enhances involvement and commitment, leading to a sense of ownership of school objectives and missions. It is also supported by the findings of Morgeson, Johnson, Campion, Medsker, and Mumford (2006) which stated that teachers' participation can enhance a sense of fairness and trust in the organization because teachers can defend their own interests and because they get information on the making of decisions to which they would not otherwise be exposed. This sense of fairness and the signal to teachers that principals trust them lead to more favorable attitudes toward school, which in turn increases role breadth.

Hypothesis two reveals that principals' conflict resolution skills significantly influenced teachers' job commitment in public secondary schools in Ijebu division of Ogun State. It is worthy to note that conflict occurs in schools as a result of many factors which include but not limited to competition for inadequate resources, communication barriers, disagreements about goals or contradicting value system, unclear expectations or rules, psychological needs of group and individuals, manipulation of information and perception. These factors does not only threaten school functioning, but may trigger a chain of other educational and social problems which can further reduce teachers' commitment to the job. The result support that of Uchendu, Anijaobi-Idem and Odigwe (2013) that there is a significant relationship between principals' conflict management in terms of teacher-teacher conflict (TTC), teacher-student conflict (TSC), principal-teacher conflict (PTC) and organisational performance. The finding contradict that of Adeyemi (2009) which shows that conflicts have not been effectively managed by principals of schools because of their inability to effectively utilize the strategies for resolving conflicts.

Hypothesis three reveals that there is a significant combined influence of the two predictor variables on teachers' job commitment. It is very essential to point out

that some proponents of participation give the impression that it is a magic formula that eliminate conflict and disagreement and come close to solving all management challenges. That is, without the degree of participation in the decisions, which is of immediate importance, workers seldom develop a sense of loyalty and attachment to an organization, its function and purposes which may triggers misunderstanding and reduce their commitment. This position corroborates the finding of Clarke Fatchett and Roberts (1972) that the more a worker is enabled to exercise over his task, the more lightly he is to adopt a co-operative attitude and a positive commitment to achieving the goals of the enterprise without conflict and breakdown of normative pattern of relations between management and workers.

10. Conclusion

The success of the school to a large extent depends on the ability of the principal who is responsible for academic as well as administrative functioning of the system. The place which a principal acquires is inherent in the position itself rather than being attached to the one who occupies the position, although the principal can, through effective participative management style and conflict resolution skills, greatly enhance his own prestige and public esteem for his position. Thus, as a matter of fact, teachers' reaction to the principals' participative management style and conflict resolution skills are crucial factors that must be critically looked into.

11. Recommendations

The education board at the state level should provide and strengthen policy framework that will effectively ensure that all teachers is allowed to take part in all aspects of school management. Also, the Ministry of Education should organize extensive in-service development programme and/or encourage the principals to go for short courses in educational management with specific emphasis on leadership skills and styles and conflict management in schools.

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Effect of Computer- Based Multimedia Presentation on Senior Secondary Students' Achievement in Agricultural Science

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Abstract. The study was carried out to determine the use of computer-based multimedia presentation on Senior Secondary School Students' Achievement in Agricultural Science. The study was a quasi-experimental, pre-test, post-test control group research design type, using intact classes. A sample of eighty (80) Senior Secondary School One (SS II) students was selected from two secondary schools in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area. The instrument for data collection was a 20-item multiple choice Agricultural Achievement Test (AAT) developed by the researchers for the purpose of measuring students' achievement in agricultural science. The instrument was validated by experts and subjected to reliability test and this yielded a reliability value of 0.85. The achievement tests were administered to the two groups before and after the treatment and the scores so obtained were analyzed by t-test statistical method. A self developed procedural instrument named "Computer - based multimedia maize breeding packages (CBMBP)" was used to teach the experimental group, while conventional method was used to teach the control group. In the study, three research hypotheses were tested. The result of the study revealed that the computer-based multimedia presentation was found to be more effective than the conventional method because significant difference exists in the mean achievement scores of students taught using the computer-based demonstration mode compared to those taught using the conventional method. It was recommended that recruitment of competent ICT teachers, adherence to the application of appropriate instructional technologies to capture and sustain students' interest, creation of good learning environment with adequate improvised instructional materials in all secondary schools will enhance achievement and good success in vocational subjects. Ministries of education, curriculum developers should outline appropriate ICT-based instructional approach that could be used by teachers to teach any topic highlighted in the agricultural science curriculum.

Keywords: Computer-Based Instruction, ICT, Senior Secondary Students, Agricultural Science Achievement.

1. Background to the study

Agriculture plays important roles in the economy development of all nations especially Nigeria and other developing countries (Adekoya & Olatoye, 2011). The importance of agriculture includes: Provision of food, employment for the working population, source of foreign exchange, generation of income for farmers, provision of materials for shelter, provision of facilities for recreation and tourism, provision of raw materials for industries and market for industrial goods (Apantaku, 2004; Iwena, 2002). There has been a drastic reduction in the standard of performance by students in science and technology at all levels of education in Nigeria (Emaikwu, 2012). The poor performance of students in science subjects has assumed a dangerous dimension. In the light of this, science educators need to seek suitable ways of tackling the current mass failure if they are to prevent the drifts of students to arts and social science subjects (WAEC Reports, 2008). The relevance and importance of agricultural science among the science subjects and its importance to economic development cannot be overemphasized. There is need for proper teaching of the subject in secondary schools so that students' scores in internal and external examinations will be high, thereby making the candidates' entrance into higher institutions easier (Akeem, 2007). The inadequacy of conventional teaching methods to improve students' interest, achievement and retention has become a source of concern to many educators. Therefore, teachers should be well equipped with the necessary 21st century skills needed for use in teaching school subjects if students' are to learn maximally (Nowak, Watt, Walther, 2004; Olori, 2010; Onabanjo, 2006).

The mode by which teacher presents instruction affect response from the students and determines whether they are interested, motivated and involved in a lesson in such a way as to engage in a good learning (Mtsem, 2011). What constitutes the 21st century skill for teachers is the use of appropriate technology, content and pedagogy in the classroom. Mishra and Koehler (2008) argue that teachers need to develop technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) in order to be successful users of technology in their teaching. Thompson and Mishra (2007) argued that capable teachers must be able to flexibly incorporate new resources including technology into their knowledge of subject pedagogy in ways that enhance learning.

Abdulhamid (2010) submitted that studies have showed that the performance of the students in agricultural science and practical agriculture in high schools respectively is not encouraging. Ikot (2008) noted that the poor performance of students in agricultural science examinations may not be unconnected with non-utilization of suitable instructional technologies. Many teachers go to classes to

teach agricultural science and practical agriculture as liberal arts without any material to assist them or the learners. Learning is facilitated when the learners make use of at least three of the sense organs namely: seeing, hearing and touching (Nsa, 2012; Oke, 2002). Instructional technologies are the devices developed or acquired to assist or facilitate teachers in transmitting organized knowledge skills and attitudes to the learners within an instructional situation (Nwachukwu, 2006).

Teachers use different instructional technologies to motivate learning. In a study to determine the effects of instructional materials utilization on performance of Junior Secondary Students' in Practical Agriculture in Ikot-Abasi Local Government Area, Ikot (2008) adopted a quasi-experimental design using the population of 1995 students and the intact class sample size of 225 students. The findings showed that there was significant difference between the performance of students taught with filmstrip and those taught without filmstrip. Abass, Bimbo and Ojo (2012) in a study to determine the effects of Animated Agricultural Science instructional packages on Attitude and performance of Junior Secondary school Students in South West Area, Nigeria, discovered that the animated Agricultural Science Instructional packages significantly influenced the academic performance of the selected students. Osokoya (2007) in a study to determine the effects of video-taped instruction on Secondary School students' achievement in History discovered that there was significant difference between the mean scores of students taught history with video-taped instructional packages and those taught with the conventional lecture method.

Computer-based multimedia presentation is the delivery of multimedia content by means of a computer to achieve learning goals through desired outcomes (Hillis, 2008; Yang, 2009). Multimedia is the ability of a system to communicate information simultaneously through multiple media: text, still images, graphics, photos, animated images, movies and sound. The emergence of new technologies has resulted in increased use of multimedia for teaching and learning in education (Omoniyi, 2005). Multimedia technologies have always fascinated educationists because of its strengths to communicate difficult concepts in simple ways. With the availability of more and more sophisticated computers with multimedia capabilities, the potentialities to use multimedia have also grown tremendously. Computer-based instruction brings with it several potential benefits as a teaching/learning medium. These include self-paced learning, self-directed learning, the exercising of various senses and the ability to represent content in a variety of media.

Various studies on learning styles have shown that when learners can learn in a way that suits them, improvements in the effectiveness of the learning process normally ensue (Wabuye, 2006). Alabi (2011), in a study that investigated the influence of multimedia on students attitude towards learning reported that multimedia presentation encouraged learning as they provided a stimulating environment and promoted enthusiasm. A multimedia based learning environment helps reserved students who are afraid to make mistakes in a classroom situation (Benedict,

2010). The use of computer- based multimedia presentation in carrying out instruction is an innovation in educational technology (Libin Yang, 2005). This mode of technology utilizes computer as a medium of presentation in form of text, pictures, graphics, tables and animations. The most important advantage of using computer as a demonstrator is that demonstration and illustration whether simple or complex can be placed under the control of the students, to be repeated, interrupted, slowed down, or even reversed at will (Adesanya, 2004). With the help of computer-based multimedia presentation, the teacher can make the content of the course lively and vivid to arouse the attention of the students (Olori, 2010).The figure below gives illustration of a computer based demonstration.

Computer-based multimedia presentation is not without its problems because with self-access programmes, learners can be left on their own too much and may feel overwhelmed by the information and resources available (Khoo, 2008; Rosenberg, Sander & Posluns, 2005).On the other hand, there may be too much direction from the computer if classroom methods are transferred to the computer. It must be noted that while various CBI models exist, not all CBI programmes offer all the benefits of CBI. Sometimes what is theoretically advocated is not implemented in practice, either due to lack of knowledge or technological unfeasibility (Aly, Elen, Willems, 2004).

The figure 1, 2 and 3 below illustrate the topics on "the maize breeding processes" as presented with power point multimedia.

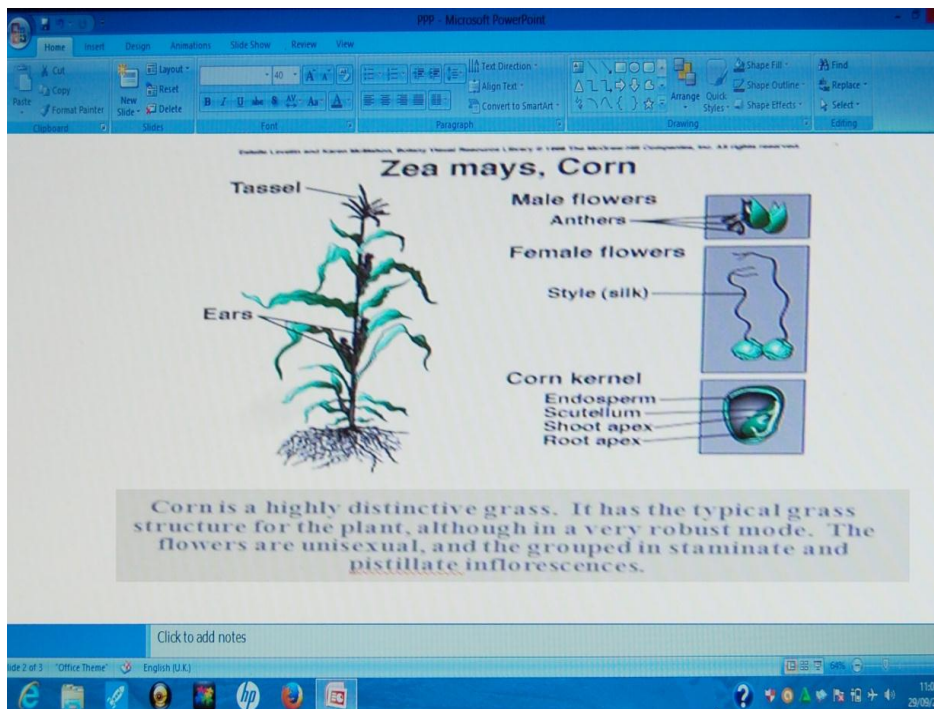


Fig 1: Development stages in maize

Source: *Estelle Levetin & Karen Mc Mahon(1996)*

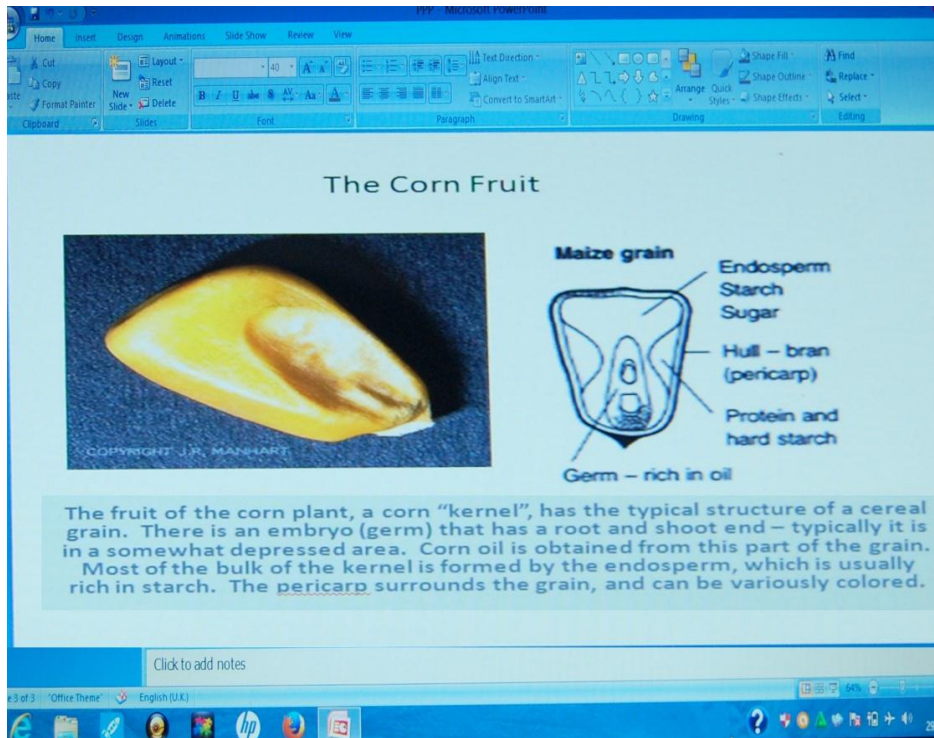


Fig 2: Corn fruit

Source: *Estelle Levetin & Karen Mc Mahon(1996)*

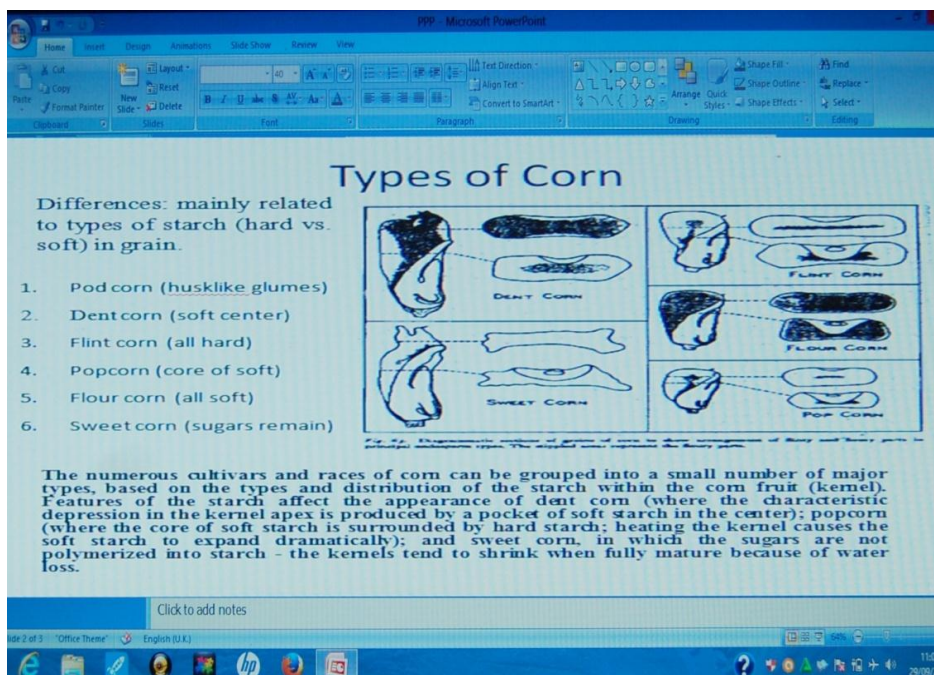


Fig 3: Types of Corn

Source: *Estelle Levetin & Karen Mc Mahon(1996)*

2. Statement of the problem

Several studies have showed that chalk and talk method of teaching Agricultural Science in Nigeria Secondary Schools has not been effective in developing the vocational skills necessary for agricultural development as stated in the National policy on Education. It is also known that agricultural science is taught in the classroom theoretically without practical demonstration of facts. As a result of poor instructional presentation, students see the subject as difficult, hence they develop negative attitude towards it. One of the factors militating against students' achievement in the subject is lack of relevant instructional media.

However, despite the availability of ICT-based instructional packages in the market, many teachers hardly use them in the classroom. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the impact of Computer-based multimedia presentation on senior secondary school students' achievement in Agricultural science.

3. Purpose of the study

The study sought to determine the effect of computer-based demonstration mode on the achievement of students taught agriculture .It also sought to determine the difference in the achievement of students taught with computer-based multimedia presentation and those taught with conventional method.

4. Hypotheses

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

H₀₁ There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of the two groups of students before receiving the treatment in agricultural science.

H₀₂ There is no significant effect of computer-based multimedia presentation on students' means achievement scores in agricultural science.

H₀₃ There is no significant difference in students' means achievement scores in Agricultural Science when taught using computer-based multimedia presentation and conventional method.

5. Methodology

5.1 Design

A quasi-experimental pre-test, post test, control group design was adopted for this study. This design was adopted to determine the effects of computer-based multimedia presentation on students' performance. The performance of the pretest

was used to compare the previous knowledge of the groups involved in the study. The post-test was used to assess the knowledge gained after the lessons.

5.2 Sample and sampling technique

All Senior Secondary School Two (SSII) Agriculture Students in Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria constituted the participants for the study. The sample size for the study was 80 students purposively selected at intact classes level in two schools that had 40 students per class. The selection of the school used for the experimental group was based on purposive sampling technique. The school have introduced their Basic 7 to 9 students to computer studies and application, the school have adequate supply of computer system where average of two students could be assigned to a functional computer system, the school have at least one computer instructor and there is availability of electricity and an alternate source of power in case of power failure.

5.3 Instrumentation

The procedural instrument used in the study is the "Computer - based multimedia maize breeding packages (CBMBP)" used for the experimental group (See fig: 1-3 above).It was adapted from Estelle Levetin & Karen Mc Mahon (1996) maize reading processes in agricultural science.

The measurement instrument called 'Agriculture Achievement Test' (AAT) was self developed by the researcher and it consisted of 20 multiple choice test items based on the topics in this study (maize husbandry).

5.4 Validation

The "Computer - based multimedia maize breeding packages (CBMBP)" were given to experts in educational technology for compliance with instructional materials design principles. The Agricultural Achievement Test (AAT) was validated by experts in Educational Evaluation and Agricultural Science, The experts ensured both face and contents validity of the instruments. The inputs that they made were incorporated in order to update the final copy of the instrument. It was further subjected to test-retest and from the students' response a reliability coefficient of 0.85 was established using the Kuder Richardson (KR 20) method.

5.5 Treatment Procedure

The study lasted for four weeks. In the first week, permission was obtained from principals of the selected schools. In the second week, pre-test on AAT was administered to the two intact classes selected, while the pre-test examination lasted for one hour. One of the researchers, an experienced agricultural science teacher administered the instructional packages to the experimental group. The instructional package on CD - Rom was installed on the systems at the computer laboratory by

one of researchers who is an educational technology expert. The package for teaching the experimental group named: "Computer - based multimedia maize breeding packages (CBMBP)" consisted of computer programmed text, pictures and graphical illustration on maize husbandry. In the third week, all the groups were treated for one week of three lesson periods of 40 min each. In the experimental group, students were taken to the computer laboratory where they had hands on experience with the package. Two students were assigned to a functional computer. Lesson plan was used to treat the control group where the usual Agricultural Science Teacher was given out facts. In the fourth week, post-test of the AAT was administered to the two groups, while the test lasted for one hour.

5.6 Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed with t-test statistical method to compare the means of the students' scores.

6. Results

Hypothesis one: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of the two groups of student before receiving the treatment in agricultural science.

Table 1: Two-tailed t-test statistics of pre-test for Conventional and Treatment Groups

| Groups | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Df | t-cal | t \leq 0.05 |
|------------------|----|-------|-----------|----|-------|---------------|
| Conventional (A) | 40 | 9.80 | 3.46 | 78 | 1.84 | 1.99 |
| CBMP (B) | 40 | 8.63 | 2.06 | | | |

Table 1 above shows that there is no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) in the previous knowledge of the two groups of the senior secondary school students in agricultural science prior to the application of the two teaching methods. The value of t-calculated is less than the t-tabulated. The result shows that the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis two: There is no significant effect of computer-based multimedia presentation on students' mean achievement scores in agricultural science.

Table 2: t-test statistics for Pre-Test and Post-Test of Students taught Agricultural Science using Computer-Based Multimedia Presentation.

| Groups | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Df | t-cal | t \leq 0.05 |
|----------------|----|-------|-----------|----|-------|---------------|
| CBMP Pre-Test | 40 | 8.63 | 2.06 | 78 | 16.98 | 0.99 |
| CBMP Post-Test | 40 | 16.45 | 2.06 | | | |

Table 2 above shows that Computer-Based Multimedia Presentation significantly influenced ($P < 0.05$) students' performance in agricultural science with the value of t-calculated greater than the t-tabulated. This result shows that the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis three: There is no significant difference in students' mean achievement scores in agricultural science when taught using conventional and Computer-Based Multimedia Presentation

Table 3: t-test statistics for the Post-Test of Students taught Agricultural Science using the Conventional and Computer-Based Multimedia Presentation.

| Groups | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Df | t-cal | t _{0.05} |
|----------------------------|----|-------|-----------|----|-------|-------------------|
| Conventional Post-Test (A) | 40 | 13.18 | 2.05 | 78 | 6.31 | 1.99 |
| CBMP Post-Test (B) | 40 | 16.45 | 2.06 | | | |

Table 3 shows that there is significant difference ($P < 0.05$) in students' achievement scores in agricultural science when taught using Computer-Based Multimedia Presentation. This result shows that t- calculated is greater than t- tabulated value, thus the null hypothesis is rejected. Hence, computer-based multimedia presentation proves more effective in facilitating students' achievements and understanding than the conventional method.

7. Discussion

The results in table one reveal that there was no significant difference in the achievement of the two groups of students prior to the application of the treatment. This could be ascribed to the fact that the students are of the same background and also to the fact that agricultural science teachers in the selected schools have been using the appropriate teaching methods which they acquired during training. This result was supported by Adekoya and Olatoye (2011) that correct use of an appropriate presentation mode is critical to successful teaching and learning.

The result in table two reveals significant impact of computer-based multimedia presentation on students' achievement in agricultural science. This could be attributed to the fact that computer-based multimedia presentation enables students to be actively involved in the lesson. This is supported by Apantaku (2004) which posited that active participation of learners does assist them to acquire practical skill and knowledge through interaction and visual perception. The result corroborates the earlier findings of Alabi (2011) and Wabuyele (2006) who revealed that skills are best learnt through practices rather than mere listening. Active involvement of the students in the practical agricultural science lesson has led to tremendous improvement in their achievement in the subject.

The result in table three reveal the superiority of the computer-based multimedia presentation over the conventional method of instruction. The computer-based multimedia presentation significantly enhanced students' achievement in agricultural science and it was found to be more effective than the conventional strategy. This could be ascribed to the fact that skills are best learnt through practices rather than mere listening. This result pointed to the earlier view of Khoo (2008) who reported that computer-based instruction is generally effective in teaching sciences, mathematics and mechanics as well as subject areas within vocational and technical education. Abass, Bimbo and Ojo (2010) reported that computer-based instruction was more effective than discussion method in enhancing students' achievement in agricultural science. This result also corroborates the earlier findings of Olatoye and Adekoya (2010) who reported that demonstration method of teaching was more effective in raising students' achievement in agricultural science and Adekoya and Olatoye (2011) observed that there was significant effect of demonstration method of teaching on students' achievement in agricultural science compared to the conventional method.

8. Conclusion

The result of this study has provided an empirical basis that Multimedia -Based presentation is an appropriate teaching strategy capable of improving the achievement of students in agricultural science. It is therefore evident that the use of ICT-Based teaching enhanced students' achievement in real sense than the conventional method. Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that there was a significant effect of Computer-base multimedia on the mean achievement scores of students taught agricultural science.

9. Recommendations

In view of the findings in this study, the following recommendations are proffered:

- For effective teaching of agricultural science, attention should be given to qualified teachers to handle the teaching. Hence, recruiting, preparing and training teachers with ICT knowledge should be the central strategies for improving schools because teachers are instrumental in translating subject contents into teachable classroom lessons.
- Individual teacher should ensure adherence to the application of appropriate teaching methods based on topics with different instructional technologies to capture and sustain student's interest.
- Ministries of education, curriculum planners and developers should outline appropriate Computer -base demonstration mode for use by teachers to teach any topic highlighted in the agricultural science curriculum.
- Good learning environment with adequate instructional materials should be put in place in all secondary schools and technical colleges to enhance achievement and good success in vocational subjects.

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Part Six

Human Rights



A Critical Appraisal of the World Trade Organization’s Observance of Human Rights.

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Abstract. Organizations are formed for specific purposes and the World Trade Organization is no exception in this regard as it was formed for the specific purpose of improving the standard of living of citizens in its member states by establishing legally binding rules which enable easy flow of trade.

However, in the pursuit of the fulfillment of these purposes, the World Trade Organization has been saddled with balancing these purposes with the fulfillment of human rights which have taken the center stage since 1947 especially by the coming into being of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It must be noted that trade and human rights cannot stand aloof of each other as many trading agreements touch on human rights whether positively or negatively and thus leaves no doubt that there is a symmetric relationship between both fields.

This article thus seeks to evaluate the relationship between the World Trade Organization and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights with a view to determining whether the World Trade Organization has deliberately or inadvertently violated same in the discharge of its functions.

1. Introduction

It has been noted that ‘Money speaks sense in a language all nations understand’. The imperativeness of money (in practical sense, economic stability) being the product of trade among nations cannot be over emphasized. Over time, it has become somewhat settled that a country’s ability or otherwise to improve the standards of living of its citizens has been hinged on its ability or willingness to trade successfully with other nations. It is the intention to trade successfully and ensure trade liberalization that brought to life the World Trade Organization. It is in furtherance of the fore-going that the activities of the World Trade Organization

and its relationship with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights are brought to the fore.

The World Trade Organization which came into force in 1995 has as its main aim, the improvement of the 'standards of living' of citizens of its member states by establishing legally binding rules which enable easy flow of trade. The WTO, as a trade organization seeks to achieve trade liberalization through a variety of actions; with such actions including the removal of trade barriers and ensuring all the main participants in the global trading system are aware of the applicable rules while also serving as a forum for trade negotiations amongst its Members including their multilateral trade relations in matters dealt with under the various agreements annexed to the WTO Agreement, and for settling trade disputes.

It must be noted that the World Trade Organization is one of the most important bodies in the international realm. It is probably the most efficient international body in terms of implementing its law which is evidenced by the production of far-reaching case law, thus shaping world jurisprudence.

The purpose of this paper is to appraise the relationship (if any) between the World Trade Organization and human rights and see if any adherence is done by the former to the latter. It must be noted that human rights adherence usually takes the back-burner of relevance in the operation of international organizations (especially ones formed for specific purposes not related to human rights). This paper thus seeks to evaluate how the World Trade Organization adheres with human rights principles (if it does) and where it expressly breaches same in the course of achieving its purposes.

It is imperative to note that a lot of furor has been generated about the World Trade Organization and human rights especially the lack of sensitivity shown by the former towards the latter, the atmosphere of secrecy and lack of transparency that characterize its dispute settlement. This article thus would evaluate the recognition and adherence of the World Trade Organization to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights if any.

The legitimacy of the World Trade Organization is not connected to its origin or status but to its relationship with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The World Trade Organization is a legitimate organization going by the voluntary membership which it promotes but in so far as it violates the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, its legitimacy is called into question. This is the focus of this work.

2. Brief Overview of Human Rights

The term ‘human rights’, like all definitions that touch on law, is not capable of a single and all-encompassing definition. It must be noted that the term ‘human rights’ has different meanings for different people around the world and that “each country is free to set its own human rights objectives, policies and strategies.”

Human rights can be defined as rights that belong to an individual as a consequence of being human.’ It has also been noted that four aspects of human rights make it important namely to wit, (1) Human rights are rights of individuals in society. (2) Human rights are universal in that they belong to every human being in every human society. (3) Human rights are rights and (4) Human rights are claims upon society.

The development of human rights on the international plane had a significant facet by the coming into being of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which was adopted on 10th December, 1948. It was adopted by Resolution 217 (III) and has 30 articles covering the most important fundamental human rights.

The universality of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is not in doubt as it applies to all whether or not the individual government has ratified it. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is not binding legally on countries but countries are obliged to adhere to same. The Declaration, has been argued, is not, and does not purport to be a statement of law or of legal obligation.

The argument of the non-binding character of the provisions of the Declaration has seemed to have waned over time. It has been noted that ‘Given the prima facie non-binding character of the Declaration, the immediate question arises as to the practical relevance of the consideration of the instrument. The most direct answer to the question is that notwithstanding the hortatory character of the Declaration over a period of time, its substantive provisions have become binding on all states.’

This is due to many reasons, chief of which include:

1. That the Declaration is an authoritative interpretation of the meaning of human rights as prescribed within the United Nations Charter. This argument is substantiated both by the travaux preparatoires of the Declaration and from its text.
2. The Declaration is part of customary International law which consists of two key ingredients, that is, State practice and the belief that such a practice amounts to law (opinion juris).
3. The Declaration binds States with its “jus cogens” character.

The rights which the Declaration contains range from civil and political rights to social, economic and cultural rights and to group or social rights (solidarity rights). A reproduction and evaluation of the Declaration is not per se the focus of this

article but an evaluation of its provisions as they touch on trade. As a matter of fact, many provisions of the Declaration provide for economic rights that can be said to touch indirectly on trade. Such provisions include Articles 22 (Right to social security), 23 (right to work), 24 (right to rest and leisure), 25 (right to decent standard of living), 4 (freedom from slavery or servitude, etc) which if adhered to strictly, would enhance international trade.

3. An Overview of the World Trade Organization

The importance of the World Trade Organization in trade affairs cannot be over-emphasized. It is beyond doubt that the WTO matters a lot as far as trade is concerned, as it is the primary instrument of neo liberal globalization to further economic globalization in international trade. It seeks to achieve the liberalization of trade through a range of actions chief of which include the removal of trade barriers and the provision of rules to bind all participants in trade. In this chapter, a cursory analysis of the WTO would be embarked upon with particular focus centred on its history, principles, purposes and its mode of operation.

The foundation of the World Trade Organization can be traced back to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) of 30th October, 1947. This Agreement provided for the rules that governed global trading from 1947 to 1994. GATT was intended to be a provisional trading arrangement, a stop-gap pending the coming into existence of the international Trade Organization (ITO) as the main international trade institution and a specialized agency of the United Nations. Incidentally, GATT was never ratified thus ensuring that the ITO never came into existence though GATT continued as an ad hoc international trading organization.

Trade Organizations characterized the period during which GATT existed, several of which laid the precedent for the important Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations which led to the formation of the World Trade Organization. It has been rightly noted that the overall characterization of this history is that the institutions have developed bottom up, rather than top down because the original concept of an International Trade Organization (ITO), developed between the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference and the 1948 Havana Conference, failed to materialize. The International Trade Organization never came into being. The GATT was originally designed as a subordinate part of the International Trade Organization and the GATT was to be dependent on it for all of the institutional backups, such as a secretariat and dispute settlement processes elaborated at length in the Havana Charter. That plan failed, and therefore the GATT, despite its meager language, was left in place to fill gap this gap over time which it never really did.

The Final Act embodying the Results of the Multilateral Trade Negotiations of the Uruguay Round was signed at Marrakesh, Morocco on 15th April, 1994 by most of the representatives of the 124 governments and European communities that had participated in the negotiations thereby giving birth to the WTO by the Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization (WTO Agreement).

The WTO Agreement takes into effect the establishment of the WTO structure and other agreements to which other member states are bound to subscribe. The original GATT of 1947 has been incorporated into the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade of 1994. It must be noted however that at the onset, the WTO focused largely in trade in goods with little attention to services, intellectual property, dispute settlement and so on.

4. Human Rights and Trade

The question that comes to the fore is whether there is any correlation or relationship between human rights and trade. This is not unconnected to the fact that civil and political rights have gained more prominence over economic, social and cultural rights. People are mostly concerned about rights to life, liberties to do certain things without much attention given to the rights relating to the economic, social and cultural spheres of their life, the former to which trade belongs.

Initially, trade and human rights have been considered as separate from each other. As noted by ZAMAN, “Historically, trade and its humanitarian aspects have been considered as completely separate agenda within the broader paradigm of development though both trade and human rights aspire in their own ways after human welfare.”

However, it must be noted that trade and human rights are inseparable as trade has enormous effects on human rights. It has been argued by some scholars that expediting trade without considering its human aspects is not sufficient to ensure sustainable development. Ex facie, it can be assumed that efficient trade as envisaged and contemplated by the World Trade Organization leads to economic growth and social development, better life and positive attitude towards human rights and human values.

The United Nations, commenting on the linkage between the law of trade and human rights rightly observed that, ‘the realms of trade, finance and investment are in, no way exempt from human rights obligations and principles.’ Thus, it must be conceded that in the course of trade, adherence to human rights principles must take the fore especially as one cannot be diffused from the other.

5. The World Trade Organization and Human Rights

Many a criticism has been levied against the WTO a being very insensitive to human rights especially as it relates to observance of its principles in its activities. This is not unconnected to the fact that the WTO is not ipso facto a human rights organization. However, it seems settled that all state and non-state actors are obligated to adhere to human rights.

The question that this segment would seek to answer is, how does the WTO violate human rights? According to Thomas Pogge, human rights violations involve both the non-fulfillment of a human right and a certain causal responsibility of human

agents for its non-fulfillment. Thus, a simple analysis of the criticisms of the WTO as regards its non-compliance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights would cut across two segments, to wit: Non-fulfillment and Actual violation. To the critics of the WTO, these are what the WTO is guilty of.

As regards non-fulfillment, it can be said that if the WTO is guilty of non-fulfillment of human rights, it would cover Henry Shue's triad of Basic rights which connotes to avoid depriving, to protect from deprivation and to aid the deprived.

Actual deprivation would involve conscious acts of non-adherence to human rights in a bid to advance the interests of the WTO. Thus, it is common place for writers to conclude that by non-fulfilment and actual deprivation, the WTO has turned out to be an illegal institution as far as human rights are concerned.

For the purpose of this work, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and how the WTO violates same would be considered. The reason for this is not far-fetched as the UDHR is the focal point of human rights all over the world. Thus, an analysis of the relationship of the WTO and human rights in this work would be done by considering how the WTO violates the UDHR (representative of human rights).

It must be argued that some of the most forceful critics premise their argument on the basis that the WTO system of rules makes it harder for member states to meet their obligations to respect, protect and advance human rights as delineated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights-the code of human rights developed by the members of the United Nations.

The fast growth of the global economy has been met by a corresponding increase in human rights awareness. In the same vein, an increase in the activities of the WTO has also opened up its non-committal stance to human rights. Such violations include violations of core labour standards, non-committal stance towards the rights of indigenous people amongst others. These issues would be addressed in ensuing paragraphs.

6. Article XX of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade

The interpretation of Art XX of GATT by the Dispute Settlement body has led to the World Trade Organization's reputation of failing to respect human rights, environmental or social standards. The example of the case of Thailand - Restrictions on Importation of an Internal Taxes on Cigarettes readily comes to mind. It must be noted that Art. XX and similar provisions in other WTO agreements, such as Art XXIII GPA does not contain a human rights or social clause. Some human rights violations could however be covered by the existing specific exceptions as contained in the Articles. The legal bases for the implementation of social or human rights standards through trade measures could

be the public morals exception, the protection of human, animal or plant life or health exception, the prison labor exception, or measures relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural resources. As noted by Zagel, whereas paras (a) and (e) have hardly been applied or mentioned in any reports of the Dispute Settlement institutions, paras. (b) and (g) have often been invoked to justify environmental or public health measures. Art. XX para. (e) encourages measures relating to the products of prison labor, and covers measures directed at goods produced by prison labor. The exception could probably be extended to workers' situations which are similar to enslavement as noted by Francioni. Another potential legal basis is the public morals exception contained in para (a) which could be interpreted as prohibiting e.g. pornographic material produced under the serious mistreatment of women or even children. Other gross violations of human rights could similarly be covered by para. (a). Both exceptions could serve as justification for trade restrictions on goods related to a violation of these standards.

The point being made in essence is that all these sanctions and rights to place trade restrictions are discriminatory and are in flagrant breach of the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights particularly Article 7. It has been noted that general sanctions against a country for its human rights violations will most likely be qualified as an arbitrary and unjustifiable discrimination.

Despite the potential of Article XX, a major restriction in the ability of governments to depart from their WTO obligations under a general exemption with the aim of enforcing human rights obligations is conditional on the preamble or '*chapeau*' of Article XX. The *chapeau* states that the measures taken should not "constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination between countries where the same conditions prevail". This means that a country cannot ban a tradable good because it utilized forced labour from another country without applying the ban to all like-products (similar goods) from all countries.

This no doubt is a major drawback in the adherence of the World Trade Organization in its bid to adhere with and take into effect the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

7. The Rights of the Indigenous People

The non-protection of the human rights of Indigenous peoples is a major criticism of the World Trade Organization as its emphasis is on States and trans-national interests to the neglect of the indigenous people. This is absolutely a grey area especially when the activities of the UN human rights system are considered in the protection and enforcement of indigenous human rights. Examples of the UN's activities in this sphere abound in the proclamation of the International Decades of the World Indigenous Peoples; Programme of activities for the International Decade of the World's Indigenous People, Second International Decade of the World's Indigenous People, a Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, an annual Working Group on Indigenous Populations, a Commission on Human Rights

working group elaborating a Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples and Fundamental freedom of Indigenous Peoples

As noted by Megan Davis, 'The malleable nature of sovereignty as it relates to the implementation of international trade rules is particularly vexing given that many contemporary violations of Indigenous human rights have been the direct result of International trade rules and agreements and the conduct of multilateral trade institutions and transnational corporations'

It has been noted that globalization of the production and consumption of few elite countries, corporations and individuals is a threat to the continued existence of diverse and sustainable Indigenous livelihoods. Complaints of indigenous people have ranged from exploitation of lands and resources, severe damage on environmentally sensitive areas, destruction of traditional lands to disruption of cultural practices. Developmental projects embarked upon by countries with the backing of the WTO have inflicted severe damage on environmentally sensitive areas, seriously disrupted biodiversity and pre-existing eco-systems and devastated the lives of Indigenous communities.

Another criticism is that the WTO encourages policies hampering on indigenous human rights by not doing anything to stop such policies when they are implemented by member countries. On agriculture, the WTO has hampered the lives of Indigenous peoples as the subsidies it has placed 'had led to artificially cheap agricultural products, leading to the loss of livelihood of thousands of Indigenous peoples and farmers''

Indigenous women have also not been left out in these human rights violations. The same thing can also be said of Indigenous knowledge especially traditional knowledge and intellectual property which have mostly been hampered. This has been noted in the Report of the Working Group on Indigenous Populations in its twenty-third session. As noted by Davis, Indigenous people believe that the acquisition and protection of Intellectual property for monetary benefit is inimical to the Indigenous knowledge.

8. Labour Related Rights

Another key area where there are human rights concerns about the activities of the WTO is labour. Labour standards and trade have had a strong link throughout the 20th Century as made apparent in the earliest multilateral treaties on labour and trade. Examples of this can be found in the first multilateral labour treaty adopted in 1906 which prohibited the manufacture, sale and importation of matches containing white phosphorus, a highly toxic-chemical.

It is beyond doubt with anyone who has had the most minimal contact with or acquiescence of International trade labour that gross violations of labour and human rights accompany international trade and investment.

The WTO, which no doubt is the leading international trade body has come under increased scrutiny by human rights groups for its failure to prevent any and all cases of perceived trade-related labor exploitation in developing countries across the world. Apparently disagreeing with this point, it has been noted that what human rights groups have intentionally overlooked is that developed countries have attempted to establish a concrete link between trade and core labor standards, but this has been rebuffed by developing countries who claim that the imposition of improved labor standards amounts to nothing more than veiled protectionism which of course is discriminatory. This link argument cannot stand in the face of overwhelming cases of trade labour exploitation in developing countries epitomized by the gulf between developing and developed countries.

It must be highlighted that the WTO does not have many provisions touching on labour standards. As a matter of fact, the only labour standard currently in the WTO Charter is embedded in Article XX (e), permitting member nations to prohibit imports of goods produced by prison labour.

Another example can be seen in the Waiver Concerning Kimberly Process Certification Scheme for Rough Diamonds issued by the WTO General Council in 2003. The Kimberly Process certifies diamonds not originating from countries in which illegal trade in diamonds is funding gross human rights violations. The waiver allows WTO members participating in the Kimberly process to prohibit imports of uncertified diamonds due to the human rights violations of labourers in diamond mines and the role played by diamond profits in human rights violations.

The basic right which has been the WTO's Achilles heel is the right to human dignity especially as it concerns labour. Gross violations like forced labour and human trafficking abound in the world. Workers are induced to migrate based on false pretences on a daily basis and the WTO has done little or nothing to stem this tide. On the issue of child labour, Brown rightly noted that "Labour standards that prohibit the employment of children without addressing the root causes of poverty and credit constraints pose a risk of unintended consequences."

9. Accession Policies

Another example of how the WTO vitiates human rights principles can be seen in its accession policies for new members. Alan Sykes noted certain criticisms of the World Trade Organization which cannot be overlooked. He noted that such criticisms include admission into the World Trade Organization of nations violating human rights such as China. Aaronson on her part has rightly argued that the World Trade Organization like its predecessor, the GATT does not have human rights/democracy criteria for accession into the WTO. The condition seems to be full autonomy of a state in its trade policies. The right to set down terms of membership is determined by World Trade Organisation members who in the exercise of this right have successfully pressed for changes within States though it must be noted that these changes are not strictly trade-related.

Aaronson claimed to have examined the accessions of countries like Armenia, Cambodia, Saudi Arabia, Macedonia, Nepal, and Vietnam from January 2003 to April 2007 as well as the China accession documents in a bid to ascertain if existing WTO members expressed concerns about the potential acceding country's human rights practices. She found that each of these States had difficulty protecting human rights prior to its accession.

An example can be seen in the attempt by Saudi Arabia to accede to the WTO. Saudi Arabia's adherence to the rule of law during deliberations on the accession was on the front-burner as members of the WTO Working group asked questions ranging from the rights of Saudis and non-Saudis to participate in various elements of the economy. They also urged the country to publish notices of proposed measures related to trade and to provide an opportunity for 'interested persons' to provide comments and views on such measures prior to their adoption and implementation. In essence, what the Saudis were being asked was more information about political participation in trade issues. Saudi Arabia agreed to establish an official website for trade policymaking and to 'provide a reasonable period for members, individuals, associations and enterprises to provide comments to the appropriate authorities before such measures were adopted'.

When deliberations started for the accession of China, a major furore arose. It came to the fore that China had used three zones (special economic China zones) to experiment with market-based, outward-oriented policies. In many of these zones, the Chinese government ignored or flouted its own labor laws. Members of the WTO expressed concern albeit rightly that China would attract investment from countries that have more stringent workers' rights standards. They also noted that China lacked an impartial judiciary, an effective and transparent social and environmental regulatory system, and a strong central government capable of enforcing the law. All these, no doubt are tied to human rights which the Universal Declaration of Human Rights protect.

The provisions of the WTO Agreement were made applicable to the entire customs territory of China including special economic zones and other areas where special regimes for tariffs, taxes and regulations are established. The agreement also calls on China to 'apply and administer in a uniform, impartial and reasonable manner all its laws, regulations and other measures of the central government as well as local regulations, rules and other measures pertaining to or affecting trade China shall establish a mechanism under which individuals and enterprises can bring to the attention of the national authorities cases of non-uniform application.'

The agreement requires China to notify the WTO about 'all the relevant laws, regulations and other measures relating to its special economic areas'. Finally, it obligated China to ensure that 'those laws, regulations and other measures pertaining to and affecting trade shall be enforced'.

The major criticism of the WTO is that its members generally did not use the accession deliberations with the new entrants, particularly China to push new entrants to change their human rights practices and attitudes. However, members have pressed for broad changes (such as improvements in the rule of law and greater transparency) that could facilitate human rights improvements over time. Thus, the China accession document did not address labor laws explicitly, but it reveals that members recognized that the failure to enforce human rights laws, whether labor law or intellectual property law, could distort trade.

Moreover, the US action on Vietnam's accession could signal that some countries would be willing to use the opportunity posed by accession to obtain an acceding state's commitment to improve human rights governance.

WTO members not only decide which country can join the WTO, they can also decide to deny WTO benefits (known as non-application) to a potential member. Article XXXV of the Agreement allows members to deny application of WTO benefits to a new member, so long as they do so before the WTO Ministerial Council approves the member's accession agreement. If countries use non-application under the WTO, they must use it for all of the WTO agreements.

In principle, members are free to use this process to punish WTO applicants for their human rights practices but this has not been the case. In practice, only the United States, Peru, and El Salvador have ever used the provision. The United States is the only WTO member to use non-application as a strategy to punish other countries for human rights violations, but it has generally done so on a temporary basis. The United States relies on non-application to deny trading privileges to terrorist nations or former members of the Soviet bloc.

As noted by Sykes, a limitation of the WTO as it relates to human rights is that the rules of the WTO system can interfere with the ability of its members to punish human rights violators by restricting trade with them. In his words: Sanctions are most likely to be effective when they pertain to matters of modest importance, and when the sanction has the potential to inflict large losses on the target.

10. Open Trade Policy and Human Rights

Open trade which is one of the hallmarks of the World Trade Organization has been said to encourage production of goods in areas of lax environmental standards thus culminating in environmental degradation. Similarly, competitive pressures that result from open trade cause regulators to lose control over local regulating matter thus throwing to the backburner matters such as social welfare standards, environmental standards and worker protection legislation.

Open trade also, according to Sykes, breeds irregularity in the distribution of income as developed countries, as a result of more technology and resources earn more income than the less developed and under developing countries.

Dispute settlement inherently favors stronger countries in the WTO. It is a resource-intensive process to commence and contest, and ultimately the enforcement of a finding of violation relies on the penalty of sanctions on trade. For a small trading nation, sanctions do not pose a credible threat as it does to big countries.

11. Rights Relating to Agriculture

Trade liberalization in agriculture can create export opportunities in agricultural exporting countries and promote growth and development. This seems to be the widespread belief as regards the impacts of the World Trade Organization on agriculture. However, as noted by the United Nations,

From the above, it can be gleaned that the WTO has not done enough to protect the rights of the small farmers who mostly plant food crops for subsistence. **Article 22** of the UDHR for rights to social security and through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each member state. Now, when the small farmer does not have the capacity to compete because of his meager resources, can it be said that his human right to economic growth and free development of his personality are protected? The answer to this query in my opinion is an emphatic no. This no doubt would go a long way in hampering the supposed legality of the WTO vis a vis the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

12. Equal Statuses and Rights of Members

A major goal of the WTO is to provide equal trade rights to its members and foster equal trade. This is however not the true position of things in practice as the developed countries have wielded and enjoyed more advantage over and above the developing countries.

This is in stark neglect of the provisions of Article 23 of the UDHR which provides for equal statuses of citizens irrespective of any criterion.

13. Medicine and Health Related Rights

The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights significantly constrains the policy options available to states in regulating the manufacture, trade, and distribution of essential medicines. Section 5 of TRIPS imposes an obligation on states to offer patent protection for any pharmaceutical product or process, regardless of where it was devised for twenty years. This can be said to offer freedom against discrimination. Although TRIPS does not stipulate the criteria for patentability, little flexibility exists with respect to pharmaceuticals. The rule against discrimination as to the field of technology precludes patent laws that discriminate as a matter of fact or law against certain kinds of pharmaceuticals, with the exceptions being drugs for diagnostic, therapeutic, surgical methods, or biological processes as non-patentable subjects. The Agreement also mandates

owners of pharmaceutical patents the enjoyment of exclusive rights to make, use, or trade the drug.

On Medicine and Health, the WTO has also impacted albeit negatively on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The contribution of Zagel cannot be discountenanced in this area as he has cited many instances of non-adherence to human rights by the WTO in the field of health. In his words, 'For instance, the right to health was encroached upon by the Thai Cigarettes case, the Hormone Beef case and the Asbestos case, as well as by the TRIPS agreement which impedes poor people from access to affordable medicine, namely generic drugs, which are produced, imported or sold without respecting existing intellectual property rights as protected under the TRIPS agreement.'

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights also had this to say about the World Trade Organization and intellectual property related human rights:

"Intellectual property protection—particularly patent protection—should lead to more investment in innovation, including in pharmaceutical research, which is necessary for the promotion of the right to health. At the same time, it may result in an overly commercial approach to innovation and a concentration of control over the dissemination of drugs and other technology in the hands of relatively few corporations. In so doing, the protection of intellectual property might lose sight of its overall developmental objectives. In particular, highly priced drugs could become unaffordable for poor people and have negative implications for the enjoyment of the right to health and other human rights"(Underlining is mine for emphasis)

Now, if drugs becomes unaffordable to the poor and certain segments of the society, can that not be said to inhibit the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights particularly Article 25.1 which provides that everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services. Article 12 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights is also instructive in this regard.

Other human rights which the WTO seemingly infringe upon are not limited to the following:

1. The Organization is fundamentally undemocratic in the sense that its rules are mostly made by and for corporations who have inside access to negotiations and who control the organization. Developing countries mostly do not get to participate in the decision making of the WTO
2. It limits policy space. This is usually brought to the fore when the application of WTO rules raises human right concerns.

3. The WTO also destroys the environment in the sense that they dismantle hard-won local and national environmental protections which are mostly attacked as barriers to trade.
4. The WTO by its rules, is increasing insecurity especially with its free trade policy which apparently is not working for the majority of the countries of the world.
5. The WTO is increasing hunger, hurts the poor and small countries in favor of the richer and more powerful countries.
6. The WTO also undermines local level decision making and national sovereignty by its provisions binding all countries to treat all corporations equally, etc.

14. Conclusion

The foregoing has revealed, without any shred of controversy that the WTO indeed is not at home when it comes to adherence with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other human rights instruments. This no doubt, as the title of the essay suggests, makes the WTO attain a status of illegality that places a question mark over its continued existence and its humanitarian front. If it is agreed that trade is an important sphere of man, and that no man is an island on his own, then there is need for a realization of the fact that better trade would only be accomplished and achieved if there is strict adherence to human rights, in this case the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

It is conceded that while the WTO has ensured trade liberalization, its stance towards the UDHR has been a cause for concern which has no doubt affected its acceptability. In truth, the WTO cannot pay lip service to the UDHR for as Howse and Mutua have argued, the objectives of trade liberalization as set out in the WTO Agreement can only be achieved in the context of respect for human rights. The growing number of sectors covered by multilateral trade and investment agreements in an era of rapid economic globalization has enlarged the potential for new human rights abuses that are not adequately covered under existing international human rights standards. Thus, there is great need for WTO to work in this direction to ensure that it ceases to have that 'illegal' status that it has for itself.

In conclusion, it has been established that a relationship between international human rights and international trade law exists and that the latter has the means to promote the former by using a venue such as the WTO.

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The WTO thus needs to avoid paying lip service to adherence to the UDHR and other similar human rights covenants as a synergy between both would go a long way in ensuring trade liberalization which the WTO tries to foster.

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Resolving Maternal-Foetal Conflict for the Protection of Foetal Rights in Nigeria: An Appraisal

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Abstract. Most pregnant women go to great extents to give birth to healthy babies; however, not all pregnant women are ready to do whatever is necessary to have healthy babies. Some of these pregnant women disobey their doctors' advice despite knowing the potential harm that may come to the foetus as a result of such disobedience; some pregnant women also take excess alcohol and in fact smoke shisha, tobacco, cigarette during pregnancy. What could then be legally done when there is a conflict of interests and rights between the pregnant woman and her foetus as a result of such pregnant woman's actions or choices? Should the pregnant woman's rights override the foetus rights? Or should the foetus rights override the pregnant woman's rights? Some States, particularly the United States of America, have come up with using laws to regulate pregnant women actions so as to protect the fragile foetus. However, in Nigeria, there is yet to be any express recognition of maternal-foetal conflicts as it occurs between a pregnant woman and her foetus which she intends to bring to term. Hence, limited regulations/laws are put in place to protect the foetus in the occurrence of such conflicts between a pregnant woman and her foetus in Nigeria. Therefore, adopting the doctrinal and explanatory research methodology as well as statutory interpretation/case analysis, the article seeks to answer the above questions and establish the occurrence of maternal-foetal conflicts other than abortion in Nigeria. The article goes further to analyse both international and Nigeria legal frameworks on foetal protection. It also identifies the practices adopted in other jurisdictions to protect the foetus and recommends the adaption of such practices in Nigeria to protect the foetus. Albeit, the foetus rights should only overweigh the pregnant woman's rights after balancing both the rights of such foetus and pregnant woman's rights as any unfavourable tilt in favour of the foetus against the mother may drive away pregnant women with the greatest need of help.

Keywords: Maternal-Foetal Conflict, Foetal Rights, Resolution, Rights and Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Pregnancy is a unique occurrence in medical ethics because of the absolute requirement to access the foetus only through intervention on the pregnant woman. When pregnant, most women go to great lengths to ensure that their babies are born as healthy as possible. They give up alcohol, caffeine, tobacco and illegal drugs and any habit that might be detrimental to the baby's health. They see a medical professional at regular intervals, maintain healthy diets, and generally follow the medical advice given them. Pregnant women may even consent to experimental procedures on themselves and on their foetuses in the hope that their children would be born healthy. However, not all pregnant women behave in ways that are conducive to bearing healthy children. Some pregnant women deliberately behave so recklessly despite knowing the potential damage that might occur to their foetus. This attitude may come in form of refusing medical treatments, going against medical advice, smoking shisha and consuming excess alcohol. Thus, leading to a conflict of interest between the foetus and its mother.

In the contemporary days, one of the challenges faced while making laws is the conflict of rights between a mother and her child or foetus (unborn child), as the case may be. The relationship between a pregnant woman and her foetus is unique. This is because within the same body, there exist the mother and one other potential person (the foetus) both having similar and sometimes separate interests giving the mother and foetus a biological, psychological, moral, and legal connection that is unique. The issue is thus protecting the foetus against its mother's actions or protecting the rights of the mother over that of the foetus. The conflict is referred to as 'maternal-foetal conflict'. This paper thus focuses on maternal-foetal conflicts arising when the foetus is wanted and desired to be carried to term. The paper also analyses the available foetal protection laws and policies both under Nigeria legal system and international law. A brief analysis of foetal protection practices particularly in USA is given to show the gaps in Nigeria. It concludes with recommendations on the imperative of adequate protection for the life of the unborn child.

In order to achieve the objectives of this paper, it is pertinent to examine the idea of maternal-foetal conflicts.

2. The idea of Maternal-Foetal Conflicts

The idea of maternal-foetal conflicts includes the meaning of maternal-foetal conflicts, instances leading to such conflicts and a brief historical background on maternal-foetal conflicts.

Maternal- foetal conflict occurs when a pregnant woman's interest, as she defines the interests conflict with the interest of her foetus, as defined by the woman's physician.

To Mair, maternal-foetal conflict is an emotive phrase that suggests unmotherly feelings and a grotesque perception of the struggling foetus. Maternal-foetal conflict applies to a number of situations where there appears to be a conflict of

interests between a pregnant woman and the unborn child she carries in her womb. This is a situation where there is a clash between the conduct of the woman and the well-being of the foetus as presented by medical opinion.

Maternal-foetal relationship is described as the 'not-one-but-not-two' model. This model is dominant in Canada and in the United Kingdom emphasizes the shared needs and inter-dependence of the woman and her foetus, whose relationship is seen as characterized by connectedness, mutuality, and reciprocity. The dependency relations between a mother and her foetus are important both for the foetus and also for the mother.

Hence, maternal-foetal conflict can be defined as a term used to identify those situations in which there is discordance between the interests of a pregnant woman and the foetus she is carrying. The term is used to describe a medico-legal dilemma that arises when a mother wishes to carry out an activity that is potentially harmful to her foetus. Maternal-foetal conflict arises because the pregnant woman and the foetus are physically linked in such a way that what affects one may affect the other as well.

A brief historical background of maternal-foetal conflict sheds more light on the premise.

3. Brief Historical Background

Although a great deal of attention that has been paid to maternal-foetal conflicts can be traced as far back as the 1970s, availability of foetal rights can be traced as far back as 5th BC when the Hippocratic Oath was formulated by the father of Medicine, Hippocrates, to guide medical practitioners in their practice. As part of its contents, it was expressly stated that '*...I will not give to a woman an abortive remedy...*' The inclusion of this sentence in the Oath implies that conflicts between a pregnant woman and her foetus were also in existence then. Thus, the inclusion of the above quoted statement is to prevent medical practitioners from aiding such abortive practices. The Physician Oath which was an upgrade of the Hippocratic oath also has as part of its contents that '*...I will maintain the utmost respect for human life from the time of conception; even under threat...*'. This also suggests that as at 1948 when the Physician Oath was formulated, there seems the need to prevent conflicts between the pregnant woman and her foetus.

The popular case drawing attention to maternal-foetal conflict is the case of *Roe v Wade* which came before United States Supreme Court for determination in 1973. This case can be regarded as the locus classicus on maternal-foetal conflicts. In this case a pregnant single woman brought a class action challenging the constitutionality of the Texas criminal laws, which prohibited procuring or attempting an abortion except for the purpose of saving the mother's life. The appellant argued she was unable to obtain a legal abortion in Texas and could not afford to travel to another jurisdiction, where it was legal under safe conditions. While holding that a woman's privacy right under the Fourteenth Amendment's Due Process Clause applied to her decision about whether to have an abortion, the court also regarded foetal rights separate from those of the woman. The Court's

assertion that states may have a *compelling interest* in the potentiality of human life allowed states to balance the interests of the pregnant woman and the foetus, often pitting the two against each other. Further, the Court set up the possibility that in protecting this compelling interest, states could violate a woman's fundamental liberties as a state may have legitimate interests in protecting the pregnant woman's health and the *potentiality of human life*. Thus, in a single ruling the Court simultaneously secured a woman's constitutional right to an abortion but making it conditional and also granted the state a 'compelling interest' in regulating abortion to preserve and protect maternal health. Although the Court asserted that it need not resolve the difficult question of when life begins, the extension of rights to the foetus grants it, at least, limited personhood status protected by the compelling state interest standard. The Court further held the interest grows in substantiality as the woman approaches term and, at a point during pregnancy, each becomes compelling.

The court in balancing the right of a woman to decide she wants abortion and the two legitimate interests of the state-protecting the woman's life and protecting the potentiality of human life approved of a balancing test by tying state interest to the third trimester of pregnancy. It therefore holds that the decision in *Roe v Wade* founded the legal arguments for both the defence of the rights of pregnant women and that of state intervention to protect the foetus.

Although the facts in *Roe v Wade* were on abortion, the decision of the America court however spilled to other areas. The decision of the court is fundamentally referred to in any situation involving conflict of interests between a foetus and the pregnant woman not only in America where it was decided but also in other jurisdictions.

4. Instances Giving Rise to Maternal-Foetal Conflicts

The instances that may give rise to maternal-foetal conflicts includes lifestyle issues or choices and medical treatment refusal issues, maternal brain death issues and an aspect of abortion. These instances of maternal-foetal conflict arise most often from choices detrimental to the foetus made by the pregnant woman. These choices are usually based on religious or ethical motivation, fear of needles, fear of death, and self-destructive habit. Maternal-foetal conflict instances are illustrated below using relevant occurrences in Nigeria; both judicial and statutory authorities of other jurisdictions. The discussion here is limited to lifestyle issues and medical issues.

A. LIFESTYLE CHOICES AND ISSUES

Conflict between a foetus and its mother may arise as a result of the voluntary lifestyle choices of the pregnant mother. Such conflicts focus on abuse of substances, including illegal drugs and alcohol, that are harmful to the foetus and independently illegal (for example, abuse of controlled substances) and those that are harmful but not illegal (for example, consumption of alcohol, smoking of cigarette, shisha and tobacco)

In Nigeria, a recent study reveals that there are more than 13million active cigarette smokers, 1.5million of which are women. It is argued that smoking constitutes higher risks to pregnant women. He said it could lower the amount of oxygen available to a pregnant woman and her baby, increase a baby's heart rate, increase the chances of miscarriage and stillbirth, and increase premature birth and low birth rate.

Unfortunately, despite warnings from doctors, some pregnant women belief taking tobacco, india hemp, or Marijuana benefits the foetus. For example, in March 2011, a pregnant woman – Fumilayo Adebayo -was arrested and sent to Kirikiri prison in Lagos State for smoking and selling of Marijuana. She claims to be taking the substance because it was good for her and the baby. Commenting on the statement of the accused, Tawak described the accused as an ignorant woman who does not know the health implications of hemp smoking on her unborn child. He went further to state that drugs containing nicotine reduces placenta diffusion of food and other nutrients needed by the unborn baby. Hence, it may lead to retard growth of the baby.

In United States, some pregnant women who have tested positive for cocaine use were subsequently held in jail, so as to prevent the mother from subsequent use of cocaine during her pregnancy. Thus in *U.S. V Vaughan*, Brenda Vaughan pleaded guilty to forging about \$700 worth of cheque, a crime that normally receives probation for the first offense. But Ms. Vaughan was pregnant and tested positive for cocaine when she appeared for her sentencing hearing. The court sentenced her to jail, in order to keep her away from cocaine and to give her foetus a chance to be born non-addicted to the drug. She was released after twelve weeks, shortly before the birth of her child. In New York City particularly, the presence of cocaine in a newborn's system and a mother's admission of drug use is enough justification for New York City to ask for a Family Court hearing on child neglect.

Moreover, harmful consumption of alcohol also constitutes danger to the healthy development of the foetus. It becomes a maternal-foetal conflict when such pregnant woman is addicted and could not stop taking alcohol during pregnancy. In 2004, it was stated the alcohol drinking rate was 34.9% in males and 23% in females in Nigeria. The rate of heavy and hazardous drinking among drinkers was however higher among women (36.1%) than men (27.8%). This indicates that though the proportion of women consuming alcohol may be lower than men; among the women who do consume alcohol, the proportion of harmful drinking is higher in women than in men. Furthermore, a recent study carried out in the South-South Nigeria revealed that out of a total of 221 subjects, 131 (59.28%) had taken alcohol during pregnancy which was described as higher than the proportion recorded in several developed countries. Also from the study, it was revealed that 114 (51.58%) knew of the harmful effects of alcohol on the foetus of whom 71(62.29%) were told by the health professional. This indicates the occurrence of

maternal-foetal conflict is at an alarming rate in Nigeria. In fact, some pregnant women take alcohol despite knowing the detrimental consequence to the foetus.

The danger of using drugs during pregnancy is clearly illustrated in the case of *People V Stewart* where Pamela Stewart was advised by a doctor that the placenta supporting her near-term foetus had become detached, and that she should seek immediate medical assistance should she start bleeding. She was further advised to abstain from street drugs and sexual intercourse with her husband. She allegedly had sex with her husband, took amphetamines and started bleeding twelve hours before she arrived at the hospital and subsequently gave birth to a severely brain-damaged son, who died less than two months later. She was charged with child abuse in the case under the California Penal Code. Unfortunately, California state judge later dropped the charges on the grounds that the statute was not intended to penalize women for conduct during pregnancy. Thus, an innocent life was lost due to the deliberate pernicious actions of the mother.

Nigeria unlike in some countries, like USA has no statute in place to prevent, deter or punish the use of drugs or smoking substances harmful to the foetus during pregnancy. Besides, the refusal of medical treatment is also an instance of maternal-foetal conflicts.

B. MEDICAL TREATMENT REFUSAL ISSUES

Conflicts of this nature usually involve situations where a medical treatment or procedure is advised by the physician on the mother for the benefit of the foetus or its safe delivery and such mother refuses. Such refusal may be based on religious grounds, fear, and avoidance of scars from surgical operations. It is settled that everyone has the right to make an informed choice; if competent to do so, to accept or forgo medical treatment. In Nigeria, a doctor who disregards such opinion of the patient on a medical procedure will be liable to the tort of assault and battery as well as infringement of the fundamental human right as preserve by section 37 and 38 of the 1999 constitution of Nigeria. Section 37 of the Constitution guarantees right to privacy as section 38 guarantees the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion. However, while recognizing the woman's right to accept or reject medical treatment, courts have held that such a right is not absolute, recognizing four interests that may involve the state as *parens patriae*:

Preserving life, Preventing suicide, Maintaining the ethical integrity of the medical profession and Protecting third parties (foetus included).

Hence, the right to consent to medical treatments ought to be limited when any of the circumstances stated above occurs. This was illustrated in *Medical and Dental Practitioners Disciplinary Tribunal v Okonkwo* where a woman of 29-year-old who though having delivered of her baby died days later as a result of refusal of blood transfusion on religious grounds, which was necessary after delivery complications. The doctor having been found guilty of a breach of the doctor's duty to save life by holding on to the patient, because the correct treatment could not be administered due to obtain consent. On appeal to the Court of Appeal, the court was of the view

that the real question was whether a medical practitioner should administer the medical measure refused by the patient, without the patient's informed consent. The court held that the combined effect of Section 34, Section 35 and Section 36(1) of the 1979 Constitution, all preserved by Section 37 and 38 of the 1999 Constitution dealing with the freedom of privacy, conscience and freedom of expression respectively, was that an adult of sound mind has a right to choose what medical treatment made available to him he could accept or refuse. It is worthy to note that the court of appeal in giving the decision did not mention any exception to where medical measure can be administered despite patient refusal. This was corrected by the Supreme Court which held that the limits of these freedoms, as in all cases, are where they impinge on the rights of others or where they put the welfare of the society in jeopardy. In summary, an individual should be left alone to choose the course of his life, unless a clear and compelling overriding state interest justifies the contrary. This decision of the court may therefore allow for the compulsory administration of medical treatments to a pregnant woman to save her foetus where she refuses such treatments. As rightly observed by court, there is however a dearth of local authorities in this area of law in Nigeria.

Fear as a cause of refusal of medical treatment by a pregnant woman is well illustrated in the US case of *Re Unborn Baby Kenner* where an obese woman had refused to consent to a caesarean section because she was afraid even after her labour slowed and the foetal heart rate decelerated, and her physicians diagnosed foetal distress. The University of Colorado Hospital had to obtain a court order to perform a caesarean section on an obese woman refusing to consent to the operation.

Also in *Raleigh Fitkin-Paul Morgan Memorial Hospital v. Anderson* a pregnant woman had refused blood transfusion based on religious reasons. The woman been a Jehovah-Witness had expressly stated that she should not be given blood transfusion even where needed to save her life and her unborn child. The above clearly illustrates maternal-foetal conflict, where a woman refuses medical treatments or procedures which are clearly beneficial and at the same time having minimal effects on her.

It is pertinent to examine both Nigerian laws and International laws to see whether foetus is protected or not. That is, whether Nigerian legal system recognizes the existence of foetal rights at all and also whether international conventions or laws subscribed to by Nigeria recognize foetal rights?

5. The Various Legal Frameworks on Foetal Protection

It is important to look at the legal frameworks on foetal protections under international laws and the legal frameworks on foetal protections under Nigeria law.

5.1 Legal Frameworks on Foetal Protections under International Laws

There have been various conventions and declarations on the protection of life including that of the unborn child (foetus). However, some of the provisions of these Conventions, Covenants and Declarations are sometimes misinterpreted to deny the unborn child the right to life. The following will however be analyzed base on the provision of Article 31 (1) of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties which provides a general interpretative rule for interpretation of treaties which also impliedly applies to Conventions and Declarations. It provides that ‘a treaty shall be interpreted in good faith in accordance with the ordinary meaning to be given to the terms of the treaty in their context and in the light of its object and purpose.’ Such context is to include the preamble of the Treaty, Covenant or Declaration as the case may be. This is because the Preamble usually contains the set purposes, aims and objectives of the Treaty. The International Laws as discussed below include; Universal Declaration of Human Rights, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and Convention on the Rights of the Child.

A. UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS OF 1948

The Declaration in its Preamble recognizes the rights to be subsequently provided for in the Declaration to be applicable as ‘equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family...’ The phrase ‘inalienable rights’ indicates that such rights cannot be separated or denied from a foetus being a member of the human family. The Declaration then went further in its Article 3 to provide that ‘everyone has the right to life...’ since it has been recognized that a foetus is a member of a family; it therefore falls under ‘everyone’ who is to enjoy the right to life.

Article 5 also provides that ‘no one shall be subjected to...cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment...’ This Article in application to a foetus indicates that a foetus must not be subjected to deliberate harmful actions even if done by its mother. These harmful actions which constitute inhuman and degrading treatment includes taking of excess alcohol which may result in Foetal Alcohol Syndrome. Foetal Alcohol Syndrome is a condition of newborn babies that results from the toxic effects of the foetus of maternal alcohol abuse. Other diagnoses resulting from maternal alcohol abuse include the alcohol related neuro development disorder and alcohol related birth defects, such as cleft palate. Inhuman and degrading treatment is depicted lified in *People v Stewart* where the pregnant woman contrary to the doctor’s advice had sexual intercourse and took amphetamines which led to the birth of a brain-damage son.

Article 7 provides that all are equal before the law and are entitled without discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination. This article indicates that the foetus like any other member of the family which the Declaration apply to is entitled to equal

protection to all rights provided for under the Declaration without any discrimination. Thus, the right to life and right against inhuman and degrading treatment apply indiscriminately to the foetus. The argument that a foetus is not a person is therefore a discrimination which will not hold water under this Article.

Finally, Article 30 provides that nothing in the Declaration is to be interpreted as implying that any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein. Thus, it is contrary to the provision of the Declaration for States to make laws or policies exempting the unborn from the protection of the rights provided in the Declaration.

An analysis of related provisions of the Declaration has shown that the unborn are not excluded from the protection of the declaration, rather like any other member of the family to which the Declaration applies to; the right of the unborn children are strictly guarded. The Declaration's only defect is its failure to expressly include the unborn as a beneficiary of the rights provided for. It should be noted that while drafting the Declaration it was debated whether to expressly include the 'unborn' or 'foetus' in its provisions, but it was however left undecided. The fact that the matter was not however put to vote does not mean that one can conclude that the rights of the unborn child are not covered by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

B. INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS OF 1966

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights also provides for foetal protection. Article 6 (1) provides that 'every human being has the inherent right to life. This right shall be protected by law. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his life'. 'Every human being' in this context is to be construed as including the unborn as there was no clause excluding the unborn from the protection of right to life. Paragraph 5 of the same Article further provides that no sentence of death should be imposed for crimes committed by a pregnant woman. This paragraph obviously predispose that the Covenant is interested in protecting the foetus from suffering for the punishment which is a repercussion of its mother's criminal actions.

Article 7 also protects against degrading treatment or punishment. Finally, Article 4(2) expressly provides that Article 6 & 7 among others should not be derogated from in any circumstances even in time of public emergency which threatens the life of the nation and the existence of which is officially proclaimed.

It is reasonable to deduct from the articles analyzed above that the ICCPR does not take any human's life for granted including that of the unborn. This is particularly showcased in Article 6(5) where it explicitly exempted pregnant women from death penalty sentences. In fact, from this particular paragraph it is illogical to assume the unborn is to be exempted from the rights provided for in the covenant.

C. CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD OF 1989

The Convention on the Rights of the Child has as parts of its Preamble a significant affirmation of the rights of the unborn child which provides thus;

‘Whereas the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth, [and] whereas the need for such special safeguards has been...recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the statutes of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children...the General Assembly...calls upon...national Governments to recognize these rights and strive for their observance by legislative and other measures progressively taken....’

Hence, the rights of a child to legal protection are recognized before and after birth as ‘before birth’ logically refers to when a person is yet unborn.

Article 1 of CRC defines a child as ‘every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the laws applicable to the child majority is attained earlier’. The phrase ‘every human being below the age of eighteen years’ defining who a child is clearly does not exclude the unborn as it does exclude human beings who are 18 years old and above. There is in fact a link extending from the Preamble through Articles 1 and 6. In the Preamble, it is ‘the child’ that needs ‘appropriate legal protection before as well as after birth.’ In Article 1 ‘the child’ is ‘every human being below the age of eighteen years’ and in Article 6 it is ‘every child’ who in paragraph 1 ‘has the inherent right to life’ and in paragraph 2 it is ‘the child’ who’s ‘survival’ States Parties ‘shall ensure to the maximum extent possible.’ Under all these circumstances by necessary implication, it is indeed the unborn as well as the born children being referred to.

Thus, although articles 1 & 6 didn’t expressly mention the unborn as falling under the canopy of a ‘child’, the combined effect of article 1 & 6 taken together with that of the preamble provides a solid protection of the unborn child under the convention. Also, from the readings of CRC, it is unambiguous that there is a clear preference for life of the unborn as well as that of the born.

International laws as examined above protect the rights of the unborn although such protections are mostly impliedly provided for rather than express provision. There are however some challenges that if addressed will go a long way in expressly settling controversies as to whether the unborn is entitled to right to life or not. Some of these challenges and recommendations include:

1. The draftsmen of International Conventions or Covenants seem to deliberately avoid the express addition of the unborn child as an object under its protection. It is humbly submitted that an express declaration in the provisions of the laws that an unborn should not be excluded from the

protection of the rights as provided under international laws will show clearly that the unborn is protected.

2. A lot of States are signatories to these International Laws but most are yet to ratify or domesticate it. Nigeria is an example of such States. Domesticating these laws and policies will aid the protection of the foetus.
3. Ignorance of the provisions of international laws on the part of the citizens of signatory States needs more publication and public education to enlighten people that the unborn is recognized under international as a human being and as such has the rights every human has which include the right to life.
4. Imposition of stringent punishments for harming the unborn might be of help in protecting the unborn.
5. Also, any international human right law that does not recognize the right to life of unborn children should be declared null and void.

Having examined the International provisions for the protection of unborn children, it is further necessary to examine available foetal protection laws in Nigeria.

5.2 Legal Frameworks on Foetal Protections Under Nigeria Law.

There are statutes in Nigeria that although do not expressly provide for foetal rights protection, impliedly, these laws recognise foetal rights. On the other hand, statutes which expressly recognize these foetal rights protection are mostly ignored hence the scarcity of cases on conflicts involving foetal rights. Such Nigerian laws include: the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Child's Right Act, Criminal Code and Penal Code Act.

A. THE CONSTITUTION OF THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA, 1999

The constitution of Nigeria is supreme to every law in the country. It is the *fons et origo* of all laws in Nigeria. Every other law inconsistent with it will be null and void to the extent of its inconsistency while the constitution will prevail. The constitution provides that:

“Every person has a right to life and no one must be deprived intentionally of his life save in execution of the sentence of a court in respect of a criminal offence of which he has been found guilty in Nigeria.”

Every person here can be impliedly extended to include the unborn. Unfortunately, since there is no express mention of the unborn as being included among the objects of the rights guaranteed by the constitution, it can be argued by the opponents of foetus rights that a foetus does not enjoy this right to life until when delivered / viable. Viability implies the potential of the foetus to survive outside the uterus after birth, natural or induced, when supported by up-to-date medicine. Hence, the

Constitution cannot solely be relied on to establish the recognition of foetal rights in Nigeria.

B. CHILD'S RIGHTS ACT, 2003.

The Nigeria Child's rights Act interestingly provides for certain provisions recognizing foetal rights. The definition of a child as defined by section 277 of the Act is:

"...any person below the age of eighteen years which thus includes the unborn."

Since it does not explicitly exclude the foetus as it excluded persons of or above eighteen years of age, it can be concluded that the section intended foetus to be included among the objects of the rights guaranteed by the Act.

Section 1 provides that:

"In every action concerning a child, whether undertaken by an individual, public or private body, institutions or service, court of law, or administrative or legislative authority, the best interest of the child shall be the primary consideration."

Thus, the mother should put the best interests of the foetus first in any decision she makes; the State should put the interest of the foetus first in making legislations affecting the unborn and the court should put the interest of the foetus first in giving judgement on cases involving an unborn.

Furthermore, Section 2(1) provides that:

"A child shall be given such protection and care as is necessary for the well-being of the child, taking into account the rights and duties of the child's parents, legal guardians, or other individuals, institutions, services, agencies, organizations or bodies legally responsible for the child."

Under this section a balancing of rights of the child with other third parties (the mother included) interests and rights is provided for. Hence, the mother's interest is to be balanced with the foetus.

In addition, Section 3(1) provides that:

"The provisions in Chapter IV of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999, or any successive constitutional provisions relating to Fundamental Rights, shall as if those provisions are expressly stated in this Act."

Thus, a child born or unborn has the right to life, right to dignity of persons among other rights and these rights should be respected in the same way adult rights are.

Also, Section 17(1), (2) and (3) of the Act provides that:

“ (1) A child may bring an action for damages against a person for harm or injury caused to the child wilfully, recklessly, negligently or through neglect before, during or after the birth of that child.

(2) Where the father of an unborn child dies intestate, the unborn child is entitled, if he was conceived during the lifetime of his father, to be considered in the distribution of the estate of the deceased father.

(3) Where the mother of an unborn child dies intestate before the child is delivered, the unborn child is entitled, if he survives his mother, to be considered in the distribution of the estate of the deceased mother.”

From the above, it is observed that section 17(1) in particular shows that the state is interested in whatever causes harm to a child either wilfully, recklessly, negligently or through neglect even at the time it was a foetus and unborn. Hence, a child is allowed to bring an action for any of such harmful actions done to it during and after birth. Section 17(2) and (3) also recognizes the right of a child to the properties of his/her parents who die intestate as long as such child is already conceived at the time of the parent's death. This is certainly a foetal right.

Section 40 provides that:

“Any person or law securing the protection of the child, whether born or unborn, shall continue to apply and such is to be adopted for the protection of the child by the Child's Rights Act, notwithstanding that the provision has not been specifically provides for by the Act”.

This stipulates that the unborn is an object of the Child's Rights Act and protecting the unborn rights is so critical that any provision of a law protecting the unborn, although not included in the Child Right's Act is to be applied.

It is rather unfortunate that despite the express recognition of the unborn rights under the above sections of Child's Rights Act, Nigerians have failed to take legal cognizance of it.

C. CRIMINAL CODE ACT & PENAL CODE ACT

The Criminal Code and Penal Code provide for foetal rights through provisions against abortion. Section 228 of the Criminal Code provides that:

“Any person who, with intent to procure miscarriage of a woman whether she is or is not with child, unlawfully administers to her or causes her to take any poison or other noxious thing, or uses any force of any kind, or uses any other means whatever, is guilty of a felony, and is liable to imprisonment for fourteen years.”

Thus, the unlawful termination of a foetus is protected by the State. Hence, in *R v. Idiong and Umo*, the two defendants had been previously convicted of murder on the grounds that the 1st accused had obtained the services of the second accused, a native doctor, to give native medicine to cause an abortion. The abortion resulted in the woman's death. Therefore the 1st accused became party to the crime. The West African Court of Appeal however found that the 2nd accused had acted innocently believing that the medicine would relieve pain that the dead woman suffered from a retained placenta. He gave an abortifacient for expulsion of the placenta. He was found 'not guilty' of murder and manslaughter. The 1st accused was found criminally responsible for causing the abortion and found guilty of manslaughter.

In addition, section 229 of the same Act provides thus:

“Any woman who, with intent to procure her own miscarriage, whether she is or is not with child, unlawfully administers to herself any poison or other noxious thing, or uses any force of any kind, or uses any other means whatever, or permits any such thing or means to be administered or used to her, is guilty of a felony, and is liable to imprisonment for seven years.”

Hence, section 229 extends the provision of section 228 to the woman who takes such noxious thing or poison with the intent to procure abortion. Hence, in *State v Njoku* where three persons were accused of supplying a pregnant woman with a powdered substance, whereupon she had miscarriage about eight hours later, there was no evidence as to what the words 'poison or other noxious thing' contained in Section 228 of the Criminal Code and following a long line of English decisions, the court held that any substance having a harmful effect whether or not it is in actual fact an abortifacient is a 'noxious thing'. The Court therefore held the accused persons guilty. The prosecution of pregnant women for taking noxious substances is however rare. This was observed by Okagbue when she stated thus:

“In general, prosecutions are most often initiated when the pregnant woman has died and the accused is brought before the court on a murder or manslaughter charge, with abortion sometimes but not always being charged alternatively. This was the situation in fully two-thirds of the discovered cases; as a result, it is hardly surprisingly that none of the cases involved the prosecution of the pregnant woman concerned. In the only two cases where the pregnant woman had survived the procedure, she in fact served as a prosecution witness. (State v Johnson Oke and State v Njoku.)”

The rarity of cases where women who had abortion were prosecuted was reasonably explained by Okagbue to be because of their death due to abortive procedures. But, in few cases when still alive, it is hilarious that the women who were alive after the abortion were used as prosecution witnesses rather than being prosecuted as provided for by law.

Section 230 of the Act provides that:

“Any person who unlawfully supplies to or procures for any person anything whatever, knowing that it is intended to be unlawfully used to procure the miscarriage of a woman, whether she is or is not with child, is guilty of a felony, and is liable to imprisonment for three years.”

This section criminalizes any action to unlawfully supply or procure for any person anything knowing that it is intended to be unlawfully used to procure the miscarriage of a woman, whether she is or is not with child.

Section 309 of the Criminal Code provides that:

“When a child dies in consequence of an act done or omitted to be done by any person before or during its birth, the person who did or omitted to do such acts is deemed to have killed the child.”

Thus, in a situation where a pregnant woman takes excessive alcohol, smokes cigarette, shisha and tobacco which lead to foetal death, such pregnant woman can be punished for killing her child under this section. The refusal of a pregnant woman to take medical treatment which will protect foetus right and without any harm to her is as well protected by this section.

Furthermore, section 232 of the Penal Code protects the mother and provide thus:

“Whoever voluntarily causes a woman with child to miscarry shall, if the miscarriage be not caused in good faith for the purpose of saving the life of the woman, be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to fourteen years or with fine or with both.”

It is observed that the life of a foetus is protected by the state, thus criminalize causing foetal death except to save the mother’s life is criminalized.

Section 235 of the Penal Code states thus:

“Whoever before the birth of a child does an act with the intention of Act thereby preventing that child from being born alive or causing it to die after its birth and does by such act prevent that child from being born alive or causes it to die after its birth, shall, if the act be not caused in good faith for the purpose of saving the life of the mother, be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to fourteen years or with fine or with both.”

This section also shows clearly the legal will to protect the foetus even while still yet to be born. Thus, any act done to prevent a child from being born alive is a crime against the state and the only exception is when done in good faith to protect the mother’s life. Moreover, Section 236 provides that:

“Whoever does an act in such circumstances that, if he thereby caused death he would be guilty of culpable homicide, and does by that act cause the death of a quick unborn child, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or for any less term and shall also be liable to fine.”

By this section, any act done which if done would have ordinarily been a culpable homicide but which causes the death of an unborn child is a crime. Thus, in *Attorney General’s Reference* where the defendant stabbed his pregnant girlfriend in the face, abdomen and back when she was 22-24 weeks pregnant which lead to the birth of a premature baby. The baby died 121 days later due to the premature birth. The defendant was charged with assault on the mother and convicted with a sentence of 4 years. On the death of the baby he was also charged with murder and manslaughter. The trial judge held that he could not be convicted of murder or manslaughter since at the time of the attack the foetus was not in law classed as a human being and thus the “mens rea” aimed at the mother could not be transferred to the foetus as it would constitute a different offence. The Attorney General however on points of law argued differently. The Court of Appeal reversed the decision in relation to murder. The application of section 236 of the Penal Code to this case would have ordinarily made the accused guilty.

From the above provisions of both the Penal Code and Criminal Code, it is glaring that the life of a foetus is protected by the State by criminalizing certain actions that may threaten the life of the foetus.

The available laws under Nigeria legal system on foetal rights have been examined and it is humbly stated that although the protection of the unborn life is recognized particularly under the various laws - Child’s Rights Act, Penal Code and Criminal Code but there is need to expressly protect the rights of the unborn beyond par adventure apart from protection of the foetus life by criminalizing abortion, to include other circumstances which threaten the life of a foetus to be unambiguously identified.

However, the practice in other jurisdictions is shown as against the practice in Nigeria.

6. Fetal Rights Protection Practices in Other Jurisdictions

In other jurisdictions particularly USA, the courts have mostly filled the lacuna left by the legislature for not expressly providing for the rights of the unborn or even when expressly provided for not including the circumstance before the court for adjudication. The courts have gone a long way in resolving conflicts between a mother and a foetus where there is a conflict of interest and rights between both. Some of the solutions adopted in resolving such conflicts is stated and further illustrated with authorities below.

1. **Imprisonment:** in cases where the maternal-foetal conflicts arises from the lifestyle choices of the mother as already discussed in this article, the courts sometimes order the imprisonment of the mother to protect the foetus. For example, in *U.S. V Vaughan* where Brenda Vaughan pleaded guilty to forging about \$700 worth of checks, a crime that normally receives probation for the first offense. But Ms. Vaughan was pregnant and tested positive for cocaine when she appeared for her sentencing hearing. The court sentenced her to jail, in order to keep her away from cocaine and to give her foetus a chance to be born addicted to the drug. She was released after twelve weeks, shortly before the birth of her child.

Some statutes provide for civil commitment of pregnant women. For example, Wisconsin authored the first state statute-Children's Code-permitting the civil commitment of a pregnant woman to protect the health of her foetus. This statute allows for commitment of a pregnant woman if the health of the foetus is in jeopardy due to her alcohol and drug use. Furthermore, the statute amended pre-existing law to include 'unborn children' which was defined as 'a human being from the time of fertilization to the time of birth.'

Minnesota also in USA has a similar statute-Minnesota Commitment and Treatment Act-which permits the involuntary civil commitment of pregnant women who are dependent on illegal drugs; marijuana and alcohol are however excluded. The statute mandates health care providers to report to state agencies if they know or have reason to believe a woman is pregnant and has used a controlled substance during pregnancy. Finally, in South Dakota, another state statute under the South Dakota Codified Laws permits the involuntary emergency civil commitment of pregnant women who abuse alcohol or drugs. Under this statute, the court can place a pregnant woman in custody for the duration of her pregnancy if she is found to be abusing alcohol or drugs. No similar statute is however available in Nigeria.

2. **Compelled medical treatment:** In maternal-conflicts caused by the refusal of the medical procedures or treatment by a pregnant woman, the courts have come up with making an order to compel such medical treatment or procedure in certain circumstances (already stated above) to save the foetus life.

Thus, in the case of *Jefferson v. Griffin Spalding County Hospital Authority*, the Georgia Supreme Court upheld the decision to order a woman to undergo a caesarean delivery after she refused to consent on religious grounds, despite the physician's prediction that both the foetus and possibly the patient would die without surgery. The trial court in this case had ordered caesarean delivery based on its finding that as a matter of law, the child was a viable human being and is entitled to the protection. The Georgia Supreme Court upheld the decision to order the woman to have a caesarean delivery based on the breech position of the foetus and likelihood of death; the court rejected her religious objections.

Also, in *Re Unborn Baby Kenner* the University of Colorado Hospital sought to obtain a court order to perform a caesarean section on an obese woman refusing to

consent to the operation. After her labour slowed and the foetal heart rate decelerated, her physicians diagnosed foetal distress, yet she refused the surgery because she was afraid. Based on the U.S. Supreme court ruling in *Roe V Wade* recognizing the state's compelling interest in protecting the unborn, the judge declared the full-term foetus to be a dependent and neglected child, and ordered the surgery. Furthermore, in *Raleigh Fitkin-Paul Morgan Memorial Hospital v. Anderson*, the New Jersey Supreme Court ordered a mother to have a blood transfusion in the 32nd week of pregnancy, to save her life and that of her foetus. Similarly, in New York in 1985 *In re Jamaica Hospital*, the court ordered the transfusion of blood to a Jehovah's Witness at 18 weeks' gestation, finding that the state's interest in the not- yet-viable foetus outweighed the patient's interests. The court appointed a special guardian for the foetus and upheld the guardian's order for a transfusion.

3. **Manslaughter or Murder of the Foetus by a Competent Mother:** In some states in USA, criminal prosecutions have advanced to a more high level of charging a mother for the murder of her baby. This can be on the ground of harmful actions done by the mother while still pregnant especially when such foetus died as a result of drug related complication. Thus, in South Carolina in 2003 in *State v. McKnight*, the state Supreme court affirmed a homicide by child abuse conviction and upheld a 20-year sentence of a defendant who had given birth to a stillborn child as a result of substance abuse.

Having examined the practices in other jurisdictions, there is need to examine the practice in Nigeria to assess whether it is in tandem with what obtains elsewhere.

7. The Nigerian Practice, Gaps & Lessons From Other Jurisdictions

In Nigeria, the limited available statutes on foetal protection are not well enforced. In fact, there is dearth of judicial activism or adjudication on protecting foetal rights. The practice in Nigeria is captured in the case of *Medical and Dental Practitioners Disciplinary Tribunal v Okonkwo* where a woman of 29-year-old who though having delivered of her baby died days later as a result of refusal of blood transfusion on religious grounds necessary after delivery complications where the Supreme Court had held that the limits of right to privacy and freedom of religion, thought and conscience, as in all cases, are where they impinge on the rights of others or where they put the welfare of the society in jeopardy. In summary, an individual should be left alone to choose the course of his life, unless a clear and compelling overriding state interest justifies the contrary.

This decision of the court will therefore allow for the compulsory administration of medical treatments of a pregnant woman to save her foetus when she refuses such treatments where overriding state interest can be established. However, as rightly observed by court, there is however a dearth of local authorities in this area of Nigeria law. The dearth of judicial adjudication on foetal rights seem to be due to

the lack of knowledge of the hospital authorities that when there is a conflict between a pregnant woman and her foetus, it should be brought before the court to decide rather than do as the mother wishes. The dearth of judicial adjudication may also be because of Nigerians mentality of leaving justice to God in all instances. For example, in January 2013, a seven-month pregnant Police officer was reported to have lost her pregnancy and her life due to refusal of her family to allow blood transfusion. The husband promised to report to the Police and institute legal action against the family but nothing has been heard of the case since then.

Finally, the article concludes with the lessons and recommendations to aid Nigeria to protect foetal rights.

8. Conclusion

It is imperative to ensure that the mother lives a healthy life and remain within the confines of a moderate healthy way of life will ensure and aid giving birth to a healthy child without necessarily violating the right of the mother to protect the foetus or the unborn child. Thus, maternal-foetal conflict will be resolved and a good balance will be maintained particularly borrowing from the practices in other jurisdiction to maintain a favourable balance to protect the greatest good of the most vulnerable in the circumstance of a given case. In view of the foregoing, it is opined that a special law should be enacted by the legislature to expressly provide for the recognition of the person and rights of the unborn child. The recognition of the unborn as a person will unambiguously entitle the unborn to the various rights provided for under available laws particularly fundamental human rights has guaranteed by the constitution. Such statute is to provide for a special circumstance where the woman's right to autonomy and privacy will be limited to protect the foetus except in situation where a pregnant woman's right should be limited for the foetus, especially where such limitation will cause the death of the mother. In addition, such law should also recognize the existence of other conflicts between a foetus and its mother apart from abortion.

Furthermore, Nigeria should enact a well-tailored statute expressly prohibiting the use of drugs or alcohol during pregnancy. It will legitimize constitutionally the prohibition and such woman cannot claim she has the fundamental right to illegally use controlled substances, like cocaine and the likes.

It is shown that in USA compelled medical treatment and imprisonment is favoured. This should be adopted to protect the foetus from its mother's harmful actions similar to what is been done in USA.

To effectively protect the foetus from its mother's harmful actions, it is imperative to ensure a mandatory periodic prenatal drug screening which should be incorporated into Nigeria Healthcare Policies. It is hoped will guarantee the safe delivery of a healthy foetus.

In other to further ensure the proper protection of the unborn in our society, an institution for the sole purpose of enforcing laws protecting the unborn, should be established. The enforcement of foetal protection laws by the institution is not to be mingled up with the role of other agencies as this might lead to an underestimation of its importance.

The society as a whole should be educated on the rights of the unborn as this will afford the public to know that there are available rights for the unborn child. Therefore, in a situation where there is a conflict between the foetus and its mother; such conflict should be referred to the courts to determine the best interest (particularly to strike a balance) rather than the automatic override of the interests and rights of the foetus because it cannot speak for itself.

The right to life of the unborn will be effectively protected when international laws expressly recognize the rights of the unborn and advocate for the implementation of such rights.

It is of great importance that any enacted foetal protection law should be constructed to allow for a *quatum* for the balance of rights between the foetus and the mother. This will encourage pregnant women in need of help to go to the requisite authorities as any unfavourable tilt in favour of the foetus against the mother may erode who is in dire need of the greatest help, in that it is not in every circumstance that the rights of the foetus should outweigh that of the mother as both the Nigerian Penal Code and the Criminal Code exempt as a crime the termination of a foetus to save the mother's life.

Thus, the imperative of this protection becomes sacrosanct to protect both rights by striking a clear balance depending on the circumstances of each and every case.

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The ACJ Act 2015, Plea Bargain and Other Innovations: A Review Towards Peaceful Resolution in Nigeria

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Abstract. There has been much agitation for a total overhaul of the laws regulating administration of criminal justice in Nigeria. Thus, the signing into law of the Administration of Criminal Justice Act, 2015 was in response to the calls for the reform of the Nigerian criminal justice system. The various laws that govern the criminal justice system were dearly in need of amendment because they were no longer in tune with the reality of time in criminal justice system and the trend of criminal justice administration in the world and, indeed Nigeria. This article seeks to attempt an analysis of the Act in other to point out the salient innovations in the Act, with particularly reference to the inclusion of plea bargain as an ADR Mechanism and the need for a continuous reform.

Keywords: Administration of Justice, Criminal Justice System, ADR, Plea Bargain and Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Prior to 2015, the numerous problems associated with the Nigerian Criminal Justice System led to clamour for the total overhauling of the entire laws on criminal justice. These calls for the reform of Nigerian criminal justice system led to the setting up of various reforms commissions and committees by successive

governments. The call for reform was principally on the two principal criminal laws which Nigeria inherited from the British Government as a result of colonization.

These laws are the Criminal Law and the Penal Code applicable in the Southern and Northern parts of Nigeria respectively. The procedural laws that formed the basis of Nigerian criminal justice procedure are the Criminal Procedure Code and Criminal Procedure Act applicable in the northern and southern parts of Nigeria respectively. These substantive and procedural laws were out dated.

The Administration of Criminal Justice Act, 2015 merged the provisions of both the Criminal Procedure Act and the Criminal Procedure Code into one thereby making way for a unifying law for the entire country's criminal justice system. The Act retains the existing frameworks of the criminal procedures but introduced innovative provisions aimed at enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of the criminal justice system administration to solve the challenges confronting the Nigeria criminal justice system.

The work is aimed at analyzing the innovations in the Act, with the inclusion of plea bargain with a view to show the usefulness of these provisions which is divided into 49 parts made up of 495 sections and pointing out its perceived problems.

2. The Objectives of the Act

By the provisions of S. 1(1) of the Act, the purposes of the act are: i. To ensure the promotion of efficient management of criminal justice institutions. ii. To ensure speedy dispensation of justice. iii. Protection of the society from crime. iv. Protection of the rights and interests of the suspect, the defendant and the victim.

Over the years, the lack of effective co-ordination between criminal justice institutions in Nigeria occasioned mostly by supremacy friction constituted a major problem towards an effective criminal justice system. More so, the slow pace at

which criminal cases are handled lead to the delay in getting justice and the need to ensure that victims of crime get compensation are reasons for the enactment of the Act.

3. Innovations in the Administration of Criminal Justice System

The Administration of Criminal Justice Act was enacted in response to the need for the reform of the Nigerian criminal justice systems. The innovations are in the following area:

3.1 Notification of the relatives of an arrestee

The provision to S. 6 makes it the duty of any authority in custody of a suspect to notify the next of kin or relations of suspect at no cost. Prior to the coming into effect of the Act, the authority is under no duty to notify the relatives of the suspect. The only duty is to inform the arrestee as soon as possible the reason or reasons for his arrest if that person was not arrested in the cause of committing the offence for which he is being arrested. This innovation will reduce instances of missing person.

3.2 Abolition of the arrest of family in lieu of a suspect

It is common knowledge in Nigeria for police officers or law enforcement agents to arrest parents or the relatives of a suspect in lieu of that suspect. The right is now protected by S. 7, that no person shall be arrested in place of a suspect.

3.3 Treatment of suspects

The Act in S. 8 is to the extent that suspect shall be accorded humane treatment, having regard to his right to the dignity of his person and that no suspect should be subjected to any form of torture cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment. This section strengthens the right to dignity of human persons as contained in the constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria.

3.4 Restriction of Police power to arrest to purely criminal matters and the rights of an arrestee

The earlier practice of employing arrest in transactions that are purely civil in nature is over. It is of great relief that S. 8 (2) of the Act provides that a suspect

shall not be arrested merely on a civil wrong or breach of contract. Thus the powers of the Police are contained in S.4 of the Police Act that:

'The Police shall be employed for the prevention and detection of crime, the apprehension of offenders, the preservation of law and orders, the protection of life and property and the due enforcement of all laws and regulations with which they are directly charged, and shall perform such military duties within or without Nigeria as may be required by them, or under the authority of this or any other Act'

The Court of Appeal in the case of Ken McLaren & Ors V. James Llyod Jennings per Salami JCA (as he then was) in reemphasizing the illegality of Police arresting any one based on purely civil matter held that:

'In the instant appeal, no felony had been alleged not to talk of being committed. It is purely a matter of breach of a contract of supply by a limited liability company. Our jurisprudence is replete with practice and procedure for enforcing contractor recovery of debt. In the circumstances of the instant appeal, there is no allegation or imputation of crime against the respondent nor the company for which he is the Managing Director. There is therefore no basis for his arrest which is not in dispute....'

The court went further on the need for the Inspector-General of Police to investigate misconduct and gross indiscipline of his officers that:

'I hope the Inspector-General of Police is listening and would cause an investigation to be conducted into the brazen act of misconduct and gross indiscipline by his men in uniform. We thank God the matter did not go beyond this. One shudder to ponder the extent of embarrassment it would have earned the Police and the hotel if something untoward had happened to the respondent while in the hotel's custody'

To further strengthened the provisions of S. 5 of the CPA and 38 CPC, the ACJA provides in its S. 6 (2) provide that the police officer or the person making the arrest or the police officer in charge of a police station shall inform the suspect of his rights to:

- a. remain silent or avoid answering any question until after consultation with a legal practitioner or any other person of his own choice.
- b. Consult a legal practitioner of his choice before making, endorsing or writing any statement or answering any question put to him after arrest; and
- c. Free legal representation by the legal Aid council of Nigeria where applicable.

It should be stressed here that the above provision is an improvement upon the provisions of S. 35 (2) of the 1999 constitution. This constitutional provision is to the effect that:

'Any person who is arrested or detained shall have the right to remain silent or avoid answering any question until after consultation with a legal practitioner or any other person of his own choice'

3.5 Mandatory Inventory of Property Recovered

One of the improvements of the Act is in S. 10 of the Act on mandatory inventory of property recovered from an arrested person. Under this section, it is now mandatory for a police officer to as soon as the arrest is made record information about the arrested person and an inventory of all items or property recovered from the suspect. The inventory so made must be signed by the police officer and the suspect but the refusal of the suspect to sign does not invalidate the inventory. A copy of the inventory will be given to the arrested person, legal practitioner of his choice or as he may direct. Where the police on request refused to released the property recovered from the suspect, the police is mandated to so inform the court, at its discretion decides whether to release such property or not. This section further states that where any property has been taken from a suspect under this section and the suspect is not charged before a court but is released on the ground that there is no sufficient reason to believe that he has committed an offence, any property so

taken from the suspect shall be returned to him provided the property is neither connected to nor a proceed of any offence. The very significance of this innovation is to inculcate the spirit of accountability and transparency among officers and men of the Nigeria Police and other government agencies having statutory power to arrest.

3.6 Recording the particulars of the arrestee and the use of electronic device

Another innovation is contained in S. 15 of the Act. This section provides that the police officer making the arrest or the officer in charge shall record in a prescribed form the record of the suspect arrested which shall state the alleged offence, the date and circumstances of his arrest, the full name, occupation and residential address and for the identification of the suspect, his height, photograph, full finger print impressions or such other means of his identification shall be done within a reasonable time but not more than forty eight hours.

Subsection 4 of this section provides that where a suspect volunteers to make a confessional statement, the police officer shall ensure that the making and taking of the statement shall be in writing and may be recorded electronically on a retrievable video compact disc or such other audio visual means. Thus the use force to obtain confessional statement is against the spirit of S. 34 of the Constitution of Nigeria and also condemned by the court.

3.7 Police Central Criminal Record Registry

The establishment of a police central criminal record registry at the Federal and State level is another innovation in the Act. By S. 16 of the Act, state registry shall keep and transmit all such records to the central registry. Also, it shall be the duty of the state registry to transmit the decision of court in all criminal trials to the central criminal records registry within 30 days of the judgment.

3.8 Statement of a suspect may be taken in the presence of a legal practitioner, an officer of the legal Aid Council of Nigeria or an official of a civil society organization

The provisions of S.17 of the Act stipulates that where a suspect is arrested on allegation of having committed an offence, his statement shall be taken if he so wishes to make statement, such statement may be taken in the presence of a legal practitioner of his choice, in the presence of an officer of the legal Aid Council of Nigeria, of an official of a civil society organization or a Justice of the peace or another person of his choice provided that the legal practitioner or any other person mentioned in this subsection shall not interfere while the suspect is making his statement, except for the purpose of discharging his role as a legal practitioner.

Subsection 3 makes provision for the use of an interpreter who is lettered in English language to write and read such written statement to a suspect to his understanding. The interpreter by law is to endorse his name, address, occupation, designation or other particulars on the statement. It is doubtful if this subsection now makes it unlawful for the police to record the statement of an illiterate arrestee.

3.9 Record of Arrest

S. 29 is another salient innovation in the Act. In this section, it is now mandatory for the Inspector General of Police and the head of every agency authorized by law to make arrests to remit, quarterly to the Attorney-General of the Federation a record of all arrests made with or without warrant in relation to federal offences within Nigeria.

Subsection of 2 of this section also requires the Commissioner of Police in a state to remit same record of all arrests made in relation to state offences for arrests within the state to the Attorney -General of the state. The contents of this report are as prescribed in S. 15 of this Act. This record is to be kept in a registrar at every police station or agency so authorized by law to make arrest.

Further to this, subsection 5 of S. 29 provides for the establishment of electronic and manual database of all records of arrests at the federal and state level. It is hope that electronic database will facilitate ease of transmission of the records for the police station to the Attorney –General of the Federation or State.

3.10 Institution of criminal proceedings at Magistrate Court and time limit

S.110 of the Act provides for the mode of instituting criminal proceedings at the Magistrate Court and equally makes provision for time limit within which to file a charge sheet, commence trial and deliver judgment. Where such trial is not completed within the stipulated time, particulars of such case shall be forwarded to the Chief Judge and reasons for failure to commence trial or to complete the trial will be stated therein. Under this section, a court seized of criminal proceedings shall make quarterly returns of the particulars of all cases including charges, remand and other proceedings commenced and dealt with in his court within the quarter to the Chief Judge who shall review the returns made by the court to ensure that:

- i. Criminal matters are speedily dealt with.
- ii. Congestion to cases in courts is drastically reduced.
- iii. Congestion of prisons is reduced to the barest minimum, and
- iv. Persons awaiting trial are, as few as possible, not detained in prison custody for a length of time beyond that prescribed in S. 293 of the Act.

By subsection 7, the Administration of Criminal Justice Monitoring Committee, shall have power to consider all returns made to the Chief Judge for the purpose of ensuring expeditious disposal of cases and the National Human Rights Commission set up under the Human Rights Commission Act shall have access to the returns on request of the Chief Judge.

3.11 Records of those awaiting trial detainees

In a bid to reduce prison congestion occasioned by those awaiting trial, S. 111 provides that the comptroller-General of prisons shall make returns every 90 days to the chief judge of every state where a prison is situate and the Attorney-General of the Federation of all Persons awaiting trial held in custody in Nigerian Prisons for a period beyond 180 days from the date of arraignment. This return shall contain the followings:

- a. The name of the suspect held in custody or awaiting trial person.
- b. Passport photograph of the suspect
- c. The date of his arraignment of remand
- d. the date of his admission to custody.
- e. The particulars of the offence with which he was charged.
- f. The courts before which he was arraigned
- g. Name of the prosecuting agency and
- h. Any other relevant information.

It is imperative upon the recipient of the returns to take such steps as necessary to address the issues raised in the record in furtherance of the objectives of this Act.

3.12 Issues relating to bail: Bail and offences punishable with death

Bail is a security such as cash or a bond required by a court for the release of a prisoner who must appear in court at a further time. The Court of Appeal in the case of *Alhaji Toyin Jimoh V Commissioner of Police* reinstated the fact that there are three classifications of criminal offences for the purpose of bail under the Criminal Procedure Code. The first category covers persons accused of an offence punishable with imprisonment whether with or without fine for a term not exceeding three years is ordinarily release on bail. The second classification being offences punishable with imprisonment for a term exceeding three years. Accused under this category shall not ordinarily be released on bail. The third classification covers offences punishable with death which is not bailable except where there are

reasonable grounds for believing that a person accused has committed the offence, but that there are sufficient grounds for further inquiry, such person may pending such inquiry, be released on bail. On the issue of bail, the provision of the Act is explicit in Ss 30-32 and 158-164. The combined provisions of these sections are improvement upon the provisions of the previous laws. The Act provides for circumstances under which a suspect is arrested, detained and charged with offence punishable with death, shall be admitted to bail by the judge of the High Court only.

These exceptional circumstances includes but not limited to:

- i. Ill health of the applicant which shall be confirmed and certified by a qualified medical practitioner employed in a Government hospital. However, the applicant must prove that there is no medical facility to take care of his illness by the authority detaining him.
- ii. There is extraordinary delay in the investigation, arraignment and prosecution for a period exceeding one year or
- iii. Any other circumstances that the judge may in the particular facts of the case consider exceptional.

The Act also makes provisions for instances where bail may be refused by the court where the offence is punishable with imprisonment for a term exceeding three years, these instances are:

- a. Where there is reasonable ground to believe that the defendant will, where released on bail, commit another offence.
- b. Attempt to evade his trial.
- c. Attempt to influence, interface with, intimidate witnesses, and or interfere in the investigation of the case.
- d. Attempt to conceal or destroy evidence.
- e. Prejudice the proper investigation of the offence, or
- f. Undermine or jeopardize the objectives or the purpose or the functioning of the criminal justice administration, including the bail system.

The reform on bail as provided for by the Act seems to be inconsistent with S. 35(7)(a) in which the right to personal liberty is guaranteed because this paragraph of the constitution cited excludes person arrested or detained upon reasonable suspicion of having committed a capital offence.

3.13 Bail and female surety

Prior to the coming into effect of the Act, women were generally denied the right to stand as surety in a criminal case. However, S. 167 (3) has addressed the discrimination when it provides that:

'a person shall not be denied, prevented or restricted from entering into a recognizance or standing as surety for any defendant or applicant on the ground only that the person is a woman'.

This is a good innovation and a reinforcement of S.42 of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women to which Nigeria is a signatory.

3.14 Bail and Bonds Person

S. 187 make provision for the registration and licensing of corporate bodies or persons to act as bonds persons within the jurisdiction of the court in which they are registered. Therefore, a person shall not be engaged in bail bond services without being duly registered and licensed. And anyone who so act in contravention of the Act will be liable to a fine of five hundred thousand Naira or imprisonment for a term not exceeding twelve months or both.

A bonds person's registered under this Act, may undertake recognizance, act as surety or guarantee the deposit of money as required by the bail condition of a defendant granted bail by the court within the division or district in which the bondsman is registered.

For anyone or organization to be registered as a bondsperson, such person or persons making up the organization must be of unquestionable character, integrity and must deposit with the chief judge sufficient bank guarantee in such amount as may be determined by the Chief Judge having regard to the registered class or limit of the bondsman's recognizance.

3.15 Plea bargain

Plea bargaining became prominent in the administration of criminal justice system in Nigeria following the passing into law the Economic and Financial Crime Act, 2004 (as amended) and has generated series of arguments either in its support or against it. S.270 of the Act specifically provide for plea bargaining. This section is to a reasonable extent the first law that unequivocally deals about plea bargaining. It is aimed at facilitating prison decongestion; enhance quick resolution of dispute and ensure that victims of crime are taken care of. This section has provided for the procedure to be followed in the adoption of plea bargain as an alternative dispute resolution mechanism.

3.16 Detention time limit

Ss. 293-296 of the Act provides for detention time limit. These provisions stipulate the time within which a suspect may be remanded. By S. 293, the power of the Magistrate Court to make an order to remand a suspect even though the Magistrate has no jurisdiction to hear such matter is provided for. The remand order shall be in pursuance to a motion *ex parte* made by the arrester and the reason for the remand request must be verified on oath.

The order shall consider whether there is a probable cause for the remand of the suspect. The Magistrate Court will consider before deciding on whether or not to grant an order for remand:

- i. The nature and seriousness of the offence.
- ii. Whether there are reasonable grounds to suspect that the suspect has been involved in the commission of the alleged offence.
- iii. If there are reasonable grounds for believing that the suspect may abscond or commit further offence where he is not committed to custody.
- iv. Any other circumstance of the case that justifies the request for remand.

Where the order for remand is made, it shall be for fourteen days in the first instance. An extension for a further fourteen days shall be made based on application in writing showing good cause why same should be made. If the suspect is still held in custody at the expiration of the further fourteen days, the court may on the application of the suspect grant bail in accordance with the provision of the Act.

By the provisions of the Act, before the bail is granted, the magistrate court shall on notice to the Inspector- General of Police and the Attorney General of the Federation, the Commissioner of Police of State or any relevant authority in whose custody the suspect is or at whose instance the suspect is remanded, inquire as to the position of the case and to show cause why the suspect remanded should not be unconditionally released.

The Act further provides that where good cause is shown, the court may extend the remand of the suspect for a final period not exceeding fourteen days for the suspect to be arraigned for trial before an appropriate court or make the case returnable within the said fourteen days from the date the hearing notice was issued.

3.17 Eliminating delay in criminal trials

Delay in the completion of criminal cases is a major problem facing the administration of criminal justice system in Nigeria. However, the Act in S. 396 makes provision for speedy trial. The Act provides for the day- to- day trial of the defendant until the conclusion of the trial. Where the day- to- day trial is not practicable after the arraignment, no party shall be entitled to more than five adjournments from the arraignment each and the final judgment, provided that the interval between each adjournment shall not exceed fourteen working days and a further of seven days inclusive of weekends where it is not possible to conclude the trial within the stipulated days.

The award of reasonable costs is introduced in the Act in order to discourage frivolous adjournments. Also, to eliminate delay in the trial of criminal cases, the Act further provides that a judge of the High Court who has been elevated to the court of Appeal shall have the power to continue to sit as a High Court Judge only for the purpose of concluding any part heard criminal matter pending before him at the time of his elevation and shall conclude same within a reasonable time.

3.18 Protection of Witness and Victim

Over the years, some witnesses and victims of a crime find it unsafe due to fear of insecurity to their lives and property or are ashamed to testify in an open court resulting in injustice or delay in the conclusion of the matter. The protection of the witness and victim of a crime has been provided for under S. 232. This section gives the court the discretion as to whether or not to disclose the names, addresses, telephone numbers and identity of a witness or victim of a crime in any record or report of the proceedings and it shall be sufficient to designate the names of the victims or witness with a combination of alphabets. The Act further provides that the court in an attempt to protect the identity of the victim or witness may:

- i. Receive evidence by video link.
- ii. Permit the witness to be screened or masked
- iii. Receive written disposition of expert evidence
- iv. Or take any other measure that the court considers appropriate in the circumstance

The neglect, refusal or otherwise of the provisions of subsections 2 of this section shall constitute an offence attracting a conviction to a minimum term of one year imprisonment.

3.19 Use of Electronics in Recording Courts Proceedings

One major problem encountered since the inception of Nigerian criminal justice system by Judges and Magistrates is the problem of writing court's proceedings in

long hand. To ameliorate this problem, the Act in S. 364 provides for the use of electronics in recording courts proceedings although at the discretion of the court. A transcript of such recording is to be produced for authentication and certification by the Judge or Magistrate who conducted the proceedings.

3.20 Compensation to victim of crime

Also, S. 319 of the Act provides for compensation for crime victim even though the defence might be punished. The order for compensation may be made even where no fine is imposed on the defendant in the judgment. This is a good innovation because prior to the enactment of this Act, the Criminal Code and Penal Code did not provide for compensating the victim. With this provision, victim of a crime can get monetary compensation for the injuries or other losses he might have suffered.

3.21 Suspended Sentence

Prison congestion is a major reason behind the call for reform of the Nigerian criminal justice system. In a bid to reduce prison congestion, S. 460 of the Act provides for suspended sentence. The court is expected to take into cognizance the need to reduce congestion in prisons, rehabilitate prisoners by making them to undertake productive work and to prevent convicts who commit simple offences from mixing with hardened criminals.

3.22 Establishment of Community Service Centre

By S. 461, a Chief Judge is allowed in a judicial division to establish a community service centre to be headed by Registrar who shall be responsible for overseeing the execution of community service orders in that division. The community centre shall keep information about the convicts sentenced to community service. This information shall include:

- i. Name of the convict.
- ii. Sentence and the date of sentence
- iii. Nature, duration and location of the community service.

- iv. Residential address of the convict.
- v. height, photograph, full finger print impressions and
- vi. Other means of identification as may be appropriate.

S. 468 provide for the use of parole, under this section, where a prisoner who has been sentenced and is serving his sentence in prison is of good behavior and he has served at least one third of his term of imprisonment if the term is at least 15 years or life imprisonment, a report may be made to the court by the Comptroller – General of Prison who may after hearing the prosecution and the prisoner or his legal representative order that the remaining term of his imprisonment be suspended, with or without conditions and the prisoner shall be released from prison. The Act further makes it a must for the prisoner released from prison to undergo a rehabilitation program in a government facility to enable him be reintegrated into the society.

3.23 Criminal Justice Monitoring Committee

One other innovation in the Act is contained in s. 469 which provides for the establishment of the Administration of Criminal Justice Monitoring Committee consisting of the Chief Judge of the Federal Capital Territory as chairman and eight other persons. The main function of the Committee is to ensure the effective and efficient application of the Act by the relevant agent. Other functions of the committee are to ensure that:

- i. criminal matters are speedily dealt with;
- ii. congestion of criminal cases in courts is drastically reduced.
- iii. congestion in prisons is reduced to the barest minimum
- iv. persons awaiting trial are, as far as possible, not detained in prison custody
- v. the relationship between the organs charged with the responsibility for all aspects of the administration of justice is cordial and there

exist minimum co-operation amongst the organs in the administration of justice in Nigeria.

- vi. collate, analyze and publish information in relation to the administration of criminal justice sector in Nigeria.
- vii. submit quarterly report to the Chief Justice of Nigeria to keep him abreast of developments towards improved criminal justice delivery and for necessary action.
- viii. carry out such other activities as are necessary for the effective and efficient administration of criminal justice.

The committee is to have a secretariat with such number of staff as may be considered necessary for the effective running of its affairs. The secretariat shall be headed by a secretary appointed by the Attorney- General of the Federation on the recommendation of the committee. The appointed person shall be a legal practitioner of not less than 10 years post call experience and shall possess sound knowledge of the practical functioning of the criminal justice system and adequate experience in justice system administration.

4. Perceived Problems of the Act

There are some loopholes and possible challenges associated with the Act. It is trite that Nigeria operates the federal system of government, thus Nigeria is made up of the Federal Government and thirty six federating States. Therefore, for an Act of the National Assembly to be binding in respect of matters on concurrent powers, domestication by these states becomes necessary. The Administration of Criminal Justice Act, 2015 is applicable to criminal trial of offences established by an Act of the National Assembly and other offences punishable in the federal capital territory, Abuja.

The implication of this section is that the Act does not apply to offences established by the States House of Assembly of the thirty six states although the act is to be applied in all Federal High Courts in Nigeria.

On the use of electronic devices, the lack of constant power supply will likely be a major hindrance. Most courts and police stations in Nigeria operate without constant power supply which may render ineffective the use of electronic devices.

5. Conclusion

This paper has shown some of the meaningful innovations including plea bargain in the Administration of Criminal Justice Act, 2015. The Act has ushered in a new regime of administration and it is imperative to organize training workshop for judicial officers, legal practitioners, police, prison officers, and other government agencies saddled with the power to arrest or prosecute crime so as to keep them abreast of the provisions of the Act.

This is necessary in view of the recent rejection by the court sitting in Abuja of masked witnesses in the trial of the leader of the Indigenous Peoples of Biafra (IPOB) Nnamdi Kanu because the Court was of the opinion that assessing the demeanour of witnesses is very crucial in a trial and it can only be assessed from the looks of a person's face. The pronouncement of the Court appears to negate the provisions of S.232 (3) (b). It is hoped that the full implementation of the Act will ensure a smooth administration of criminal justice in Nigeria.

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Part Seven
Literary Analysis



Form and Function of Elechi Amadi's Drama

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Abstract. Elechi Amadi is well known across the globe as one of Africa's best story tellers and one whose penchant for traditional stories and liberal humanist approach to the philosophy of non-utilitarian artistry has remained remarkable. This essay examines Amadi's drama, and tries to ascertain the extent to which his art in that genre depicts the same aloofness to the malaise of the post-independence African continent as his novels do. This preoccupation of the essay is necessitated by the novelist-cum-playwright's claim that his drama is absolutely meant to excite laughter in his audience, make them relax, and provide them escape from the problems of their society. The essay seeks to ascertain the veracity of the claim through a close reading of the individual plays of the author to determine their sub-types as a means of understanding their possible functions. While noting that "relaxation" is a basic and universal function of literature instead of a personal property of a single author, the study discovers that because Amadi is not a truly comic writer, not many of his plays boast situations capable of evoking the kind of laughter that could induce momentary escape from societal problems. The born tragedian fails to replicate his non-committed philosophy in his drama because he could not create real laughable situations out of the predominantly serious and topical subjects matter of his plays which are built around such social and political African problems as the Nigerian Civil War, the Apartheid government in South Africa, and inter-ethnic mistrust/stereotyping.

Keywords: Form, Function, Drama, Relaxation, Escape, Laughter

1. Introduction

Elechi Amadi needs no introduction as a creative writer; he is already well known globally as one of Africa's finest novelists. What perhaps needs exposition is that he straddles the three genres in his literary creativity having written five novels, five plays, one book of poetry, and a collection of science fiction stories. His novels include: *The Concubine* (1966), *The Great Ponds* (1969) *The Slave* (1978), and *Estrangement* (1986), while his plays are: *Isiburu* (1973), *Peppersoup* (1977), *The Road to Ibadan* (1977), *Dancer of Johannesburg* (1977), and *The Woman of Calabar* (2002). His poems are published together with his essays under the title: *Speaking and Singing: Essays and Poems* (2003), and his collection of science

fiction is entitled *When God Came* (2011). An interesting fact about the author's creativity is the balance between his prosaic and dramatic outputs, which transcends number to include form: while Amadi's novels have a predominantly sad ending, his plays, in spite of the seriousness of the plots of some of them, end happily.

This essay focuses on Amadi's drama, and its aim is to closely examine each of the five plays to determine their form and function especially in the light of the author's claim concerning the purpose of his drama. According to Amadi in an interview with Nwagbo Nnanyelike:

I quarrel with people who decide to teach through their plays, and x-ray all the ills of the society. My view is that an average Nigerian is aware of what is happening in the society ... In going to watch a play he wants to relax. But when he is being shown these things which he is trying to escape from, I think it is cruel. In my plays, I want to keep him at peace with laughter so that he may be happy with himself and the world. (Daily Sun, March 2, 2004, p. 5)

The above is a reiteration of the author's age-long abhorrence of committed literature. And by committed literature here we mean literature that espouses topical issues in the political and social spheres of a society's development. In Africa, for example, the committed writer is that whose subject is taken from any of the prevalent socio-political problems bedeviling African nation states from the period of colonialism through the years soon after independence to the present age of neo-colonialism.

While such first generation African writer-contemporaries of Amadi's as Chinua Achebe, Ngugi wa Thiong'o and Ayi Kwei Armah, and those of the later generations like Kole Omotoso, Festus Iyayi and Sembene Ousmane dwell on such topical socio-political subjects in their works and therefore are considered relevant to the needs of the continent, Amadi has held tenaciously to a counter attitude, which considers commitment in literature as not just a waste and a demeaning of the revered creative product, but also a form of advertisement and in fact the prostitution of literature. Thus, he compares commitment in literature with sweeping the streets with the broom of gold. He argues, like the formalists, that a literary work should be appreciated for its beauty and for the pleasure it affords, and not for the social problem it is believed to solve, or the lesson which many a critic force in and out of it. This is why he asserts point blank that he is quite simply a story teller who does not deliberately set out in his writings to teach anybody any lessons or to solve any social or political problem, but to create literary works of artistic value aimed primarily to entertain and to give pleasure to the audience.

The author has, therefore, in paper after paper and at every opportunity in private and public occasions, reiterated this position. His first paper on the anti-commitment position entitled "The Novel in Nigerian" was delivered at the

University of Iowa, Iowa City and later published in *Oduma* in 1974. It reads in part:

I have no doubt in my mind that the more political or socially committed a writer is, the worse his writing becomes. Some Nigerian novelists hold the other view. Nigerian novelists, they say, should use their tool as a weapon to fight corruption, social injustice and other ills of the country. (p.36)

Another is “The Problems of Commitment in Literature” published in *Kunapipi* in 1983 and reissued in *Speaking and Singing* in 2003. Here, the same idea is expressed in slightly other words vis:

... we must recognize the paradox that the more immediately relevant to society a work of art is, the more quickly it becomes irrelevant... aesthetics and utilitarianism do not make good bed-fellows. A work of commitment is much like an advertisement...my view is that commitment seriously impairs literary quality...there is something disturbing, even lamentable, in the novelist who squanders his art in decrying a bad government or ushering in an untried political system when it is realized that armies of journalists are doing just this in countless newspapers and magazines all over the globe. The committed novelist should know that as a propaganda tool, the novel is at best inefficient and expensive. It is like sweeping the streets with brooms of gold. (pp. 29-32)

Some others include “Demands on the African Writer,” “The Novel in Nigeria” and “The Sovereignty of African Literature” all of which are issued in *Speaking and Singing: Papers and Poems*.

This hatred for the deployment of literature to some utilitarian purposes; this idea of committed literature being propaganda or amounting to the prostitution of the revered product of human imagination, is considered in the Africa literary scene as Amadi’s philosophy of literature. Equally important is an attitude generally considered as Amadi’s liberal humanist approach to the said philosophy. The humanist liberalism consists in Amadi’s ability to hold tenaciously to his philosophy and yet not insisting that other writers must conform to it. However, the anti-commitment ideology, regardless of any attitude towards its propagation, has won itself more critics than admirers across the continent. Among the most critical of this philosophy of aloofness are such foremost African novelists as Ngugi wa Thiong’o and Chinua Achebe. Both - one a Marxist, and the other a non-Marxist - consider such disinterestedness by an Africa writer (as professed by Amadi) in the socio-political problems rocking the continent, as not just a mark of irresponsibility, but totally unacceptable. According to Ngugi (1971:18), for example:

I believe myself that the African novelist can help in building a place to feel at home. But he cannot do that if he insists on his liberal posture. He must, I think, be committed on the side of the majority whose sudden clamour for change is now

rocking the continent. By diving into himself, deep into the collective consciousness of our own people, he can seek the roots, the trends of the revolutionary struggle

And in the words of Achebe (1975:45), “The writer cannot expect to be excused from the task of education and regeneration that must now be done in Nigeria. In fact, the writer must march right in front, for he is, after all, the sensitive point in his community.”

Prominent among the few on the other side of the divide is Eustace Palmer, an eloquent admirer of Amadi’s philosophy and in fact his art generally. Palmer (1994:47), applauds Amadi’s unique narrative art, which depicts an “alternative commitment” to issues in the traditional society instead of the so-called “big themes.” He also attributes what he considers an underrating of the novelist by critics to the same issue. In his words:

Perhaps the failure to estimate the real stature of Amadi is due to rather mistaken assumptions on the part of some critics of Africa literature as to what African literature in general and the African novel in particular should be about. There seems to be a preference for the novels dealing with the supposedly “grand” themes: the disruption of traditional African society by the imperialists, the clash of cultures, the epic struggle to shake off the imperialist or racist yoke, the post-independence malaise and the effort to rediscover values and restructure African society. Ideas about commitment, social realism and critical realism have been bandied about. Of course Amadi’s novels are not about any of these things. He has deliberately chosen instead to concern himself with the presentation of precolonial traditional African society. This is his exclusive territory. He stands unrivaled as the analyst of traditional African society.

In spite, however, of the disapproval of Amadi’s non-commitment philosophy by many a society-conscious African writer and critic, the truth remains that he has been able to carry far the ideology through his novels obviously because of their settings in the predominantly remote, traditional African milieu devoid of the anxieties of politics and modernity, and preoccupied with the interactions of rural men and women with their gods. The question then is: can the same be said about Amadi’s drama? This question is necessary when one considers the implication of the excerpt that necessitated this study – that is, the assertion concerning the role of Amadi’s art quoted early in the essay. It must be observed that the excerpt hints at Amadi’s philosophy of non-committed art by its insinuation that Amadi deliberately chooses and carefully manages the materials of his plays to create laughter and to afford the audience relaxation and escape and no lessons. It is obvious that the claim to laughter in the excerpt is rather absolute than the mere spicing of serious drama with comic ingredients as popularized by Shakespeare. The implication here is that Amadi considers his plays comedies since laughter, particularly, is the main ingredient of that drama type, while relaxation and escape are the possible therapeutic products of sustained laughter. Abrams and Harpham’s

(2009:25) definition of comedy is quite revealing about its make-up and function. According to them, comedy is:

A work in which the materials are selected and managed primarily in order to interest and amuse us: the characters and their discomfitures engage our delighted attention rather than our profound concern, we feel confident that no great disaster will occur, and usually the action turns out happily for the chief characters.

Considering the foregoing, therefore, the thrust of this essay shall be to ascertain the possibility of Amadi's drama being, like his prose, non-committed - that is, being politically and socially irrelevant to the concerns of the contemporary African society; and, of course, the author being able to achieve this through strictly managing the resources of his dramatic art to create relaxation, escape and laughter in his audience. Apparently, this is a study in the function of Amadi's drama, and so, it becomes necessary to explain the role of "form" (which is part of the essay's title) in this whole enterprise. The simple explanation for this is that the very function ascribable to any literary piece depends to a large extent upon its form. In other words, form determines function, which in itself is an aspect of content; and if as is generally perceived in the literary circle that form is inseparable from content, it then means that function is inseparable from form. By form here, then, we mean *type, genre or sub-genre*; and by function we refer to *purpose or role*.

The core of the essay shall, therefore, be divided into two parts. The first part shall attempt a genre-classification of Amadi's plays based on authoritative theoretical insights and textual support, while the second part shall examine the function of the individual plays *vis a vis* Amadi's claim in the opening except above. In all, therefore, the essay shall be answering the following questions:

1. Are the subjects of Amadi's plays irrelevant to the socio-political concerns of contemporary Africa?
2. Do Amadi's plays have the capacity to provide their audience with relaxation, escape from societal problems and laughter?
3. Are all the plays of Amadi comedies?

2. The Form of Amadi's Drama: Categorizing the Plays

Isiburu, Amadi's first play, can be classified as a tragedy. It would be recalled that Aristotle describes tragedy as "an imitation of an action of high importance, complete and of some amplitude; in language enhanced by distinct and varying beauties; acted not narrated; by means of pity and fear effecting the purgation of these emotions" (Ch. 2, Section 6). Accordingly, *Isiburu's* plot is tense and serious as the greater part of it dramatizes the treachery of Uzo against the hero. *Isiburu's* ignorance of the plot against his life increases tension, and his eventual death brings it to a logical and catastrophic climax. Expectedly and in tune with Aristotle's standards, the hero's fall is aided by *hamartia* and interestingly, *Isiburu* has not just one flaw but three of them including excessive kindness, ambition and

stubbornness. The language of the play is “enhanced by distinct and varying beauties” as it is poetic and also written in verse. The resurrection of *Isiburu* by Amadioha is a more concrete form of catharsis and not really a sign of happy ending. By this act of Amadioha, Amadi proposes a new role for the supernatural element in modern African tragedy, a role that is characterized by kindness instead of cruelty to the innocent and embattled hero as in *Oedipus Rex*, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, and *The Gods are not to Blame*. Amadi, by this, also tries to revamp the traditional African religio-cultural worldview in which the relationship between the gods and humans is that of guardian and protégé.

Peppersoup, unlike *Isiburu*, is a comedy. It is obviously a farcical comedy, or an outright farce; and farce is the drama type that is often considered as an extended comedy because its plot is wildly comic and its concern satiric. According to Holman and Harmon (1980:199), farce is “a dramatic piece intended to excite laughter and which depends less on plot and character than on exaggerated, improbable situations, the humour arising from gross incongruities and coarse wit.” Some of the other major features of farce which include emphasis on outrageous and stereotyped characters, an extremely complicated plot, broad physical humour, stereotyped characters, plenty of ridiculous situations, incongruities, pratfalls and horseplay, sexual mix-ups, and physical bustle are all present in *Peppersoup*.

Accordingly, *Peppersoup* is clad with stereotyped major characters and riddled with hilarious, incongruous, pretentious, exaggerated, improbable, complicated, ridiculous, and bustling situations woven around the two clownish male characters, Ichela and Oti and the women Mavis and Ineba who struggle over Ichela. The farcical events are couched mainly in Ichela’s thoughts of being the husband of Mavis (a white woman he meets on his musical trip to the United Kingdom, who has accepted, through a letter, to marry him); replying to her letter; preparing for her arrival; her arrival and his going to the airport to pick her up; coping with the trouble of living with Mavis and Ineba his Nigerian girl friend who is heavily pregnant for him; and then, the *Deus ex Machina*-like twist, which introduces a truce by the two warring wives.

Unlike *Isiburu* and *Peppersoup*, the third play, *The Road to Ibadan*, can pass as both a melodrama and a romantic comedy. Melodrama is an extravagantly sentimental or emotionally exaggerated drama, which usually has a musical background and makes an excessive appeal to the emotions of the audience. Some of its other features may include: the use of stock characters who are unambiguously good or bad; the ability of characters to give voice to their deepest feelings, thus arousing sympathy in the audience for the good hero/heroine and contempt for the villain; the presentation of situations in which virtue is persecuted by vice, and at the end virtue triumphing over vice – a situation that accounts for the consideration of melodrama as a failed tragedy; the use of simple language, action and characterization; and, of course, having a happy ending. *The Road to Ibadan* boasts all these features. Its events and situations are capable of inducing deep emotional

feelings in the audience. By this we have in mind such events and situations arising out of the play's war subject as the mass killing of civilians (and soldiers) including Wigo's mother and brother, the heroine's consequent lamentations and fear (1.2); the long distance trekking by the refugees, which causes aching legs, thirst, hunger and starvation (1.2; 2.1; 2.1); soldiers, war thugs and thieves taking advantage of poor, helpless refugees (2.1); estrangement of friends and associates (2.2), et cetera.

There may not be a musical background in the play in the true sense of the word, but the different sounds of military weapons provide such musical effect that underlies action in a melodramatic plot. This, though the music of death, is apparently suiting to the occasion of war. There is also in the play a clear distinction between the good heroine, Wigo and the villain, the war. And of course, good, which is symbolized by Wigo, and perhaps Dokubo, triumphs over evil, the war. This triumph is manifest in the play's happy ending, which sees the survival of Wigo and Dokubo and their being dispatched to Ibadan to continue their respective studies.

A romantic comedy has serious love as its main subject, and the said love affair is usually between an idealized couple – young boy and girl. Its other characteristics include: love being subjected to great difficulties; interference by an older person, usually a parent or relation of either of the couple, who is technically described as the blocking figure; much out-of-door action; poetic justice being often violated through an unexpected resolution; the balancing of good and bad characters; easy reconciliations; love overcoming all difficulties; and of course, a happy ending realised in the union of the embattled couple. Considering *The Road to Ibadan* as a romantic comedy, therefore, means seeing Wigo and Dokubo as the idealized couple. The war (and Captain Koko to some extent), constitutes the blocking figure.

The traumatic effects of the war coupled with Captain Koko's unfriendly reaction upon seeing the couple, his jealous separation of the couple and later punishment of the errant Dokubo represent the great difficulties faced by the love affair in a romantic comedy plot. Of course, much of the action in the play is out-of-door, taking place mostly in the forest and refugee camps. Accordingly, in spite of the several antagonisms between Captain Koko and Dokubo (often fuelled by jealousy), and sometimes between him and Wigo, there are easy reconciliations at the end with Captain Koko forgiving Dokubo of treachery and sabotage, and Wigo of rejecting his sexual advances. These the captain shows by ordering the couple's safe conveyance to Ibadan by military craft. This safe ending amounts, of course, to love overcoming all difficulties.

Dancer of Johannesburg could be seen as another romantic comedy because a great part of its action surrounds Bello and Matiya's discovery of themselves as truly in love. The obstacle which they have to surmount to consummate their love is Matiya's hidden identity. The play's conflict resolves itself in the final revelation of Matiya's true identity and the success of her secret mission as spy for the African

High Command Intelligence Service fighting apartheid in South Africa. The end is a happy marital union of the duo. As Koroye puts it, “The play’s final scene has Matiya and Bello dancing at a reception following their wedding” (p. ix).

Like *The Road to Ibadan* and *Dancer of Johannesburg*, *The Woman of Calabar* is a romantic comedy; but unlike them, it is the best example of that drama sub-genre in Amadi’s oeuvre, and can also pass as a good example of comedy of manners. Eme and Adia are the idealized couple, while Mrs. Akrika, Eme’s mother, is unquestionably the “blocking figure” in her role as a clog in the wheel of the consummation of that perfect love affair between the perfect pair. The different measures she employs to dislodge the union, which include blackmail, *juju*, and personal physical confrontation, constitute the difficulties usually faced by the ideal love and lovers in a romantic comedy. Mrs. Akrika’s sudden change and instantaneous consent to the marriage of the embattled couple represent the *Deus ex Machina* intervention that brings about the marital feast that marks the happy ending of the typical romantic comedy plot.

As a comedy of manners, *The Woman of Calabar* dramatises the insincerity and hypocrisy of the likes of Mrs. Akrika in the Nigerian and African setting. Comedy of manners, we will recall, “is concerned with pointing out the silly, bad, ugly habits of members of the upper class.” (Ngwoke, 2014; p.214). In other words, comedy of manners uses laughter to ridicule the mannerisms of those in the upper rung of the social ladder for the benefit of the society. Mrs. Akrika may not belong to the upper or ruling class *per se*, but the pride she exudes concerning her perceived, though ill-conceived, tribe’s superiority over that of Adia, makes her appear somewhat elevated. Amadi uses the play to attack these silly, ugly, bad habits of the Mrs. Akrikas of our country, particularly their pomposity and negative stereotyping of ethnic groups other than theirs.

This foregoing section has established that Amadi’s plays, apart from the first, are comedies of sorts. Although in the drama excerpt that instigated this research Amadi implied that his plays were predominantly comedies, this study has in the foregoing section demonstrated that they are mainly romantic comedies. Koroye alludes to the romantic fact when he writes as follows: “the four comedies, which follow *Isiburu* all begin with courtship rites, involving a conflict between two men interested in a woman, or between two women interested in a man, and end in engagements or weddings” (p. ix).

3. Functions of Amadi’s Plays

The fundamental character of comedy, irrespective of its sub-types, is to excite laughter in the audience, and then to espouse some serious social concerns. These two roles, it must be asserted, are actually inseparable. It is in line with this understanding that one Nigerian scholar notes that, “comedy’s amusing mechanism is not an end in itself but a means to an end. Its serious/didactic function is infused into its entertaining, thus, making it teach/criticise through laughter. Comedy laughs at the ugliness of society in order to improve the social system” (Ngwoke,

“Comedy as Social Criticism” 2008; p.89). Corroborating this view, another critical opinion describes comedy as “a form of drama whose complexity cannot adequately be dealt with by any definition that sees it as aiming simply at exciting laughter,” (Britannica, 1991; p. 481). Similarly, a foremost comic theorist, Meredith (as qtd. in Stott, 2005; p.48), alludes to the same interlaced function of the drama type when he writes as follows:

Whenever they wax out of proportion, overblown, affected, pretentious, bombastical, hypocritical, pedantic, fantastically delicate; whenever it sees them as self-deceived or hoodwinked, given to run riot in idolatries, drifting into vanities, congregating in absurdities, planning short-sightedly, plotting dementedly; whenever they are at variance with their professions, and violate the unwritten but perceptible laws binding them in consideration one to another; whenever they offend sound reason, fair justice; are false in humility or mined with conceit ... the Spirit overhead will look humanely malign, and cast an oblique light on them, followed by volleys of silvery laughter. That is the Comic spirit.

The foregoing, therefore, nullifies parts of Amadi’s claims in the interview excerpt, which suggest that comedy’s laughter-evoking mechanism is an end in itself, and that his plays do not teach moral lessons. The truth, then, is that it is difficult to write a play, be it comedy, tragedy, or any other type, that does not espouse a philosophical truth about life and living. This is true about works in all the genres of literature accept, of course, those written from and about the moon. It may be true when Amadi says, “I do not deliberately set out to teach through my novels” But it is definitely untrue to say the same about his plays, which make a critical dramatization of burning political issues in the African society like the Nigerian Civil War (*The Road to Ibadan*) and the Apartheid system of government in South Africa (*Dancer of Johannesburg*) and such a predominantly Nigerian social malaise of inter-ethnic mistrust/stereotyping (*The Woman of Calabar*). In the last one, the author even gets preachy. He, for instance, sermonizes through the character, Acho, in the following scene, about the social problem of inter-ethnic mistrust and stereotyping among peoples of the different ethnic groups in Nigeria:

ACHO: ... it is people who have not left their village who spread all these false rumours about other ethnic groups, especially those whose language they don’t understand. You can be sure that some people in Calabar also have unsavoury beliefs about us. I have been to Gold Coast, Egypt, India and Burma. Women are the same everywhere. (I.IV)

Maduka (1994: 39-40) is perhaps the only critic who fully understands Amadi’s art as something other than what he (Amadi) proclaims. Maduka observes that the Amadi’s works do not only depict art, but a blend of art and message into a unique product of human benefit. In his words:

“It is difficult to read Elechi Amadi without noticing the accuracy of Henry James’s observation on the relationship between content and form in fiction: ‘The story and the novel, the idea and the form, are the needle and thread, and I never heard of a guild of tailors who recommended the use of the thread without the needle, or the needle without the thread.’”

The form gracefully reveals the content and the content operates like the breath of form. The two merge in his fiction and fuse into a tapestry that exudes memorable thought process.

Ironically too, Palmer (1974:47) alludes to the same blend in the midst of his praise for Amadi’s artistry. According to him, “This brings us to a very important aspect of Amadi’s art. He has made a significant contribution towards re-establishing the concept of the novel as an artifact that not only instructs and analyses social or political or economic issues, but also gives pleasure.” These two aspects, as has been noted are inseparable, and it does seem untrue to me that any true novelist could sacrifice art at the altar of message. What such writers as Achebe and Ngugi who have variously been praised for their artistry and mastery of the novelistic mode are simply propagating is a blend of artistry and utilitarianism because the writer as a member of a developing society must be part of that process through his chosen vocation of the literary art. Of course, many essays have been written on the commitment of Amadi’s art to certain societal values including ethics and moral education. Aminigo’s (1994) essay entitled “Amadi’s *The Great Ponds* as a Tool for National Development” and Ikechi’s (2008) “Ethical Values in Elechi Amadi’s Trilogy” are just two examples from the whole lot. According to Ikechi in that essay:

Despite Amadi’s statement in an interview with me that he never planned to teach ethics in any of his novels, a closer reading of his trilogy suggests his unconscious demonstration of the Aristotelian conviction that morals could be taught through the literary medium. In another interview with Ofirima he himself has said: Every writer is committed to good morals ... to justice, to fair play ... to the finer feelings of life which we all cherish. (p. 171, my emphasis)

Having understood the basic functions of all literary art (irrespective of genre or subgenre) including Amadi’s, we shall in the following part of this section, try to examine the extent to which “relaxation” and “escape” constitute the features of Amadi’s drama, and the possibility of all of Amadi’s plays evoking laughter. The last is important in the light of the understanding that “while laughter comes from delight, not all objects of delight cause laughter” (Hoy, para.5).

Relaxation is the first function of literature, which is usually couched in such other terms as “delight,” “entertainment,” and “pleasure.” This, therefore, is a general function of literature and not a personal property to be appropriated by any single author. Anyone who picks up say, a novel, a play or a book of poetry to read,

invariably wants to relax, in other words, to entertain himself or herself except, of course, that person is reading for academic or other extra-recreational purposes. The same is true about theatre experience. Watching live plays generally, whether they be tragic or comic, affords a live audience some degree of relaxation. Even when the emotions of pity and fear are aroused in the audience by a tragic plot, such emotions, as Aristotle tells us, are purged at the end.

Conversely too, reading and watching the live performance of certain plays could be counterproductive. A play whose subject replicates an audience's traumatic experience may not afford him any form of relaxation. This is where the question of "escape" in Amadi's assertion comes under scrutiny. Therefore, concerning escape, one may not also agree with Amadi entirely. Amadi insists that he, through his plays, provides for his audience a means of escape from the problems of the society. He suggests in his assertion that he carefully avoids recreating in his plays the same societal problems, which, by going to the theatre, the audience hope to avoid. This task which Amadi claims to have always set himself in his dramatic creativity is actually difficult to realize except of course the subjects of his plays are celestial and purely fantastic. Otherwise, there is no subject matter based on terrestrial events that the human audience cannot relate with. Moreover, the kind of response that a subject matter may elicit from an audience depends on many factors most of which are personal. Therefore, there are bound to be positive and negative responses to the exploration of a single subject in a literary work since different humans differ in their experiences, response to emotional issues, and indeed choices. What makes one person laugh may make another cry, and a subject intended by an author to afford the audience some sort of escape, may end up provoking counter emotions like pain and cry.

The idea of escape is, therefore, relative and if it is one of the "definitive attributes of Amadi's drama" (Koroye, 2004; p. vi) it is indeed a vague one, because one cannot really escape from the problems of the human world. Even Koroye recognizes this fact when he writes concerning the wrestling sport content of Amadi's first play, *Isiburu*. According to him: "... this sport as in others that have a mass appeal, the spectators are usually too involved in the action to be conscious of 'escape' or 'relaxation' " (2004; p. vi-vii)

Looking generally at Amadi's plays, one notices that none can be said to explore a subject that could really transport the audience away from the worries of the human society. However, while all the plays of Amadi dramatize serious human concerns and so cannot be said to provide the audience escape, only *Peppersoup* and *The Woman of Calabar* are handled in a manner that provokes hilarious and sustained laughter in spite of their subjects. *Peppersoup* partly reminds one of Ola Rotimi's *Our Husband Has Gone Mad Again*, the play, which is considered by many as a classical Nigerian comedy. Part of *Peppersoup*'s hilarity derives from its masterful exploration of some events similar to those in *Our Husband Has Gone Mad Again*. These are events relating to the problems of clash of personalities, ideas and

interests. In both plays is, for instance, the prospect and consequent arrival of a sophisticated woman as wife/lover to a local poor man already saddled with a local wife/lover. In *Our Husband Has Gone Mad Again*, the local cocoa-farmer protagonist, Rahman Taslim Lejoka-Brown is expecting the arrival of a proposed wife Lizy, who is a young American-trained medical doctor: “MD (Yale), M. Sc (Gynaecology)” (i.iv). Similarly in *Peppersoup*, the poor musician protagonist, Ichela is expecting the arrival for marriage of a sophisticated and highly educated London girl, Mavis. As in *Our Husband Has Gone Mad Again*, the progression from expectancy, preparation for arrival of the girl, the arrival proper, the new found flamboyant and pretentious life style of the protagonist to impress the woman, the confrontation between the foreign import and the local woman, and the *Deus Ex Machina* kind of resolution by the warring female factions combine to make *Peppersoup* hilarious, and in fact a classic in its own right.

The Woman of Calabar on its part provides the audience with heart-throbbing if not pratfall experiences. “Laughter,” writes Hoy, “is aroused by objects that are in some way ugly and especially by that from which better qualities were hoped” (Hoy, para. 2). Much of the laughter in *The Woman of Calabar* is aroused by the “ugliness” and folly of Mrs. Akrika, a character from whom better qualities were hoped, and whom the author uses as symbol for the perpetrators of the Nigerian evils of inter-ethnic mistrust and negative stereotyping. Mrs. Akrika’s activities in relation to Calabar women generally, and Adia, her son’s fiancé in particular, are so ridiculously and humorously handled by the author that they expose not only her foolishness, but also the hypocrisy that characterizes her actions. Thus, when we laugh, we are laughing not just at her, but also at the ugliness of the idea which she represents. Some of the most laughter-provoking situations in the play are: Mr. and Mrs. Akrika’s debate over Calabar girls and witchcraft and her tactlessness in exonerating Sparkles, her old Calabar girl friend and school mate, from the same witchcraft, which she presents as endemic in the Calabar milieu; the mechanical or “Jack-in-the-box”-like (Bergson, 1998; p.26) application and removal of charms intended to dislodge Adia; Mrs. Akrika’s brow-beaten countenance twist at the play’s climax occasioned by the sudden discovery of Adia’s parentage; and the final merriment following the two friends’ consent to the marriage of their children.

As earlier noted, the other plays of Amadi have very little to offer in terms of escape and laughter, and this is quite contrary to Amadi’s claims. For example, instead of escape and laughter, *Isiburu* provides its audience with the agony of watching a lovable hero fall under the weight of fierce jealousy, bitterness and treachery of his own slave. The said agony of the audience is hurting because they are aware of the fatal plot against the poor hero, but cannot help him to evade it. Nor is the mysterious resurrection of the dead hero capable of providing the audience with escape and laughter; it certainly will make them happy, but such happiness can, at best, elicit momentary relief and, perhaps, a wry smile.

Koroye pays glorious tribute to the wrestling sport as one of the happiness-inducing mechanisms of the play. The wrestling sport is truly an object of delight, but as noted earlier, “not all objects of delight cause laughter” (Hoy, para.5). The wrestling content of *Isiburu* does not cause laughter because it is only as a background issue. At no point in the plot of the play does the author treat his audience – internal or external – to a real wrestling contest; rather they hear of it from the speeches of characters. The closest the audience’s emotions come to being aroused in that wise is when Isiburu demonstrates to Agbarakwe how he dealt with his opponents in the past, and when he makes incantations of praise to Ebulu the drummer. Apart from the fact that these scenes are capable only to elicit smiles from the audience, they are short-lived and so cannot serve as support for the claim that the play keeps the audience at peace with laughter.

If laughter and escape are absent in *Isiburu*, they actually deserve no mention in

The Road to Ibadan, which I consider the cruelest of Amadi’s plays. With its subject as the Nigerian civil war, the play instead of providing escape or laughter, fearfully engages the mind of the audience with its plethora of traumatic events including killings, brutality, stealing, estrangement, dislocation, hunger and starvation. Within a few days from the beginning of the play, Wigo, the heroine, loses brother and mother and becomes the only surviving member of her family unsure of survival. She also comes close to being killed many times. Here is Amadi’s dramatization of one of Wigo’s experiences which ironically makes him guilty of the same offence of cruelty which he accuses committed dramatists of:
... [Firing begins. There’s confusion.]

WIGO: Mama, don’t run! Stay! Stay! [Mrs. Weli begins to run]

MRS. WELI: Oh no, I can’t. I can’t face these soldiers. [She is hit by a bullet.]

Ah-a-a- a, I am hit. O God! O God! Ah-a-a-a. [She collapses.]

WIGO: [*Screaming.*] Mama! Mama! My mother! Soldiers come and kill me too. I want to die. I want to die-o-o-o. [*She turns her mother’s face upwards. She is dead. Dokubo goes to her side. She screams again.*] (1.2)

Contrary to Amadi’s claims about non-commitment in his drama, the Nigeria-Biafran War, which *The Road to Ibadan* dramatizes is a burning issue in the contemporary Nigerian socio-political life. At the time of the play’s writing in 1977, there could have been no issue as burning in the fledgling nation as the civil war, which has variously been described as genocide against the southeasterners of the Nigerian State. Thus, there is no worse cruelty than bringing back such scenes to the very people who are trying very hard to forget the evil and injustice done them in that war, and to heal the wounds inflicted upon their spirits, soul and body by that very carnage. It is for the avoidance of reopening such old wounds and indeed possible unpalatable reactions from the victims of the war that some scenes from the film version of Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie’s *Half of a Yellow Sun* (a work on the same war) were once censored.

Like *The Road to Ibadan*, *Dancer of Johannesburg* also deals with a burning political issue at the time of its setting, namely the apartheid regime in South Africa. Beyond its subject matter, however, one could agree to some degree of *escape* in *Dancer of Johannesburg*, because such nightclub activities in the play as music and dance are capable of providing enjoyment and merrymaking and catapulting a live audience away from the present world of worries and pain. Yet, it must be noted that enjoyment and merry-making are not always synonymous with laughter. However, only two scenes in the nine-scene play are assigned to club activities. One other scene that may provoke some degree of laughter is that in which the true identity of Matiya, the South African dancer, is revealed. Agreed that all the characters at the scene and indeed the external audience are stunned at the turn of events, the Police Commissioner's pronouncement on Matiya as a "continental heroine" (3.3) is capable of provoking applause from the audience, and an applause, which is a sign of approval, naturally elicits laughter.

Apart from the few nightclub scenes, the play is serious and becomes even more disturbing when it is first revealed that Matiya is a spy for the white racists in South Africa; and this happens very late in the plot. The subject of mistaken identity could have been a wonderful tool for achieving laughter in the play had it been well handled; but Amadi spoils his own soup with the wrong ingredient. The wrong ingredient meant here is suspense; the wrong handling of suspense. By his wrong handling of suspense in the play, Amadi stifles the play's laughter-provoking potential. Ironically, the effective handling of suspense is one of the high points of Amadi's prosaic creativity. Often described as the "master of suspense," Amadi "manipulates suspense to such shattering climaxes" (Osofisan, 1994; p.34) in his novels all of which are tragedies. In his novels, the technique enables Amadi to hold in the palm of his hands the interest and curiosity of both the internal and external audiences and by so-doing increase the weight of the effect of the catastrophe that befalls his tragic heroes. But in his drama, which he intends as comedies, he ironically misuses the same technique that has made him famous as a writer.

Amadi mismanages suspense while applying it to the development of the interesting subject of mistaken identity in *Dancer of Johannesburg*, and the result becomes the absence of laughter-evoking situations, the very substance of comedy, which he so desirously wants to create in his plays. Stretching suspense in the play, Amadi suppresses dramatic irony, which is the foundation of ignorance, and characters/actors' ignorance of what the audience know provokes laughter in the audience. The audience laugh because they consider themselves knowledgeable and the characters/actors ignorant, or downright foolish. For the most part of *Dancer of Johannesburg*, the audience are as ignorant as the characters/actors about important issues one of which is the true identity of the heroine. Were the audience aware all along that Matiya was a Professor of Political Science, the characters/actors' speeches and actions indicating that she was nothing but a professional night club

dancer would have been laughable. It would, for instance, have been hilarious to hear Binta say to Bello:

What amazes me is that she does not seem to be your type. You are more inclined to the intellectual type; but a dancing girl! My God, men are absolutely unpredictable. Anyway, I can't stand this sort of thing. [Pulls out the ring in her finger.] Here is your ring and good luck with your dancing girl. (2.1)

Similarly, the following discussion between Ekpo and Bello would have elicited sufficient laughter from the audience:

EKPO: She ought to know you couldn't be serious with a night dancer

BELLO: I proposed marriage to her at the nightclub three days ago.

EKPO: [Whistles] Brother, you are crazy.... [Laughs mirthlessly.] That is what all men in love say. [Changing his voice.] Oh, no one knows her as well as I do... Listen, you are my best friend. I should give you advice when I think you need it. I believe you need some now. You have had your fling. Drop the girl now. Suppose – God forbid – she decides to marry you, have you thought of the type of life you will lead with a nightclub dancer? (3.1)

In a similar play, Nikolai Gogol's *The Government Inspector*, where the subject of mistaken identity is the main machinery of laughter, the audience are aware of the impostor's personality, but the rest of the characters in the play are not, thus, enabling the audience to laugh at their (the characters') foolish attitudes towards the impostor. The same kind of handling was expected in *Dancer of Johannesburg* since the author intended to create laughable situations out of the subject.

4. Conclusion

It does seem that having achieved good success in projecting his non-commitment philosophy through his prose works, Amadi envisaged that comedy, by its laughter-evoking mechanism, was a suitable tool to carry on the philosophy in his dramatic art. As has been demonstrated in the study so far, this vision failed, and two reasons could be adduced for the failure. One is that the subjects of Amadi's drama are not remote and traditional like those of his novels; rather they are topical socio-political issues, which have had serious negative impacts on the lives and psyche of the Nigerian/African audience of the plays. For example, *The Road to Ibadan* deals with the brutal and genocidal three-years civil war in Nigeria described by many as the bloodiest in the history of Africa; *Dancer of Johannesburg* dramatises aspects of the problems of the brutal and oppressive apartheid system of government in South Africa perpetrated by Europeans against black South Africans; *The Woman of Calabar* focuses on the social cankerworm of inter-ethnic mistrust and stereotyping that is still rocking the Nigerian nation till date. Interestingly, Amadi's dramatization of each of these subjects depicts a slant towards authorial disapproval as profusely evident in *The Woman of Calabar* where he gets downright preachy.

Two is Amadi's ineffectiveness in handling the rudiments of comedy, due, perhaps, to his rather obvious inclination towards tragic artistry. The task Amadi set himself in making a comic dramatization of such serious socio-political issues as enumerated above was a herculean. While this may have been possible for an out-and-out comic writer, it was definitely not for a tragedian like Amadi. His penchant for the tragic reverberates even in his drama which begins not just with a tragedy, but that in which he attempts an experiment with that drama type. As Wilson (2001:181) explains, "... those with a comic view look at the world differently: with a smile or a deep laugh or an arched eyebrow", and comedy "writers ...perceive the follies and excesses of human behavior and develop a keen sense of the ridiculous, with the result that they show us things which make us laugh." Amadi's drama does not depict him as one with a keen, but partial sense of the ridiculous. This is why it is only in *Peppersoup* and *The Woman of Calabar* that one finds a semblance of ridiculous situations that make us laugh. In the other plays, the topicality and seriousness of their socio-political subjects drown whatever comic particles the author may have brought into them.

Furthermore, it must be stated as part of the conclusion that relaxation is one of the basic and general functions of literature whether or not it is comic, and that the issue of escape depends on the subject matter of a literary work, and most importantly, on how a subject is handled. Agreed that a trivial subject may neither task the audiences' intellect nor reopen old wounds; it must also be accepted that there are not many of such subjects matter in the literatures of these parts of the world. In the same manner as a trivial subject could afford its audience a means of escape, a comic handling of a serious subject is also capable of providing the audience a temporary flight from their immediate worries. But the questions are: how many of Amadi's plays dramatize trivial subjects; and how far and well is Amadi able to provide a truly comic dramatization of the serious subjects that characterize his drama?

Furthermore, the study has revealed that not all of Amadi's plays are comedies and so the sweeping statement of his concerning using his plays to keep his audience at peace with laughter is over-generalized. While his comic craft in *Peppersoup* and *The Woman of Calabar* may be commendable, one is at a loss what business *Isiburu* (a tragedy), *The Road to Ibadan* and *Dancer of Johannesburg* have with laughter and escape. Amadi in these three plays falls foul of the same offence for which he condemns committed writers. To borrow his line of thought: in going to watch a play, the Nigerian audience wants to relax. But when he is being shown the treachery and wickedness in *Isiburu*, the brutal effects of war in *The Road to Ibadan* and the betrayal of one's people's struggle for freedom in *Dancer of Johannesburg*, all of which he is trying to escape from, I think it is cruel. One had expected that in all of Amadi's plays, the audience will be kept at peace with laughter so that he (the audience) may be happy with himself and the world.

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Social Decadence and Moral Imperative in Sam Ukala's *In My Hermitage*

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Abstract. The critical focus on Sam Ukala's writings has been on his body of plays at the expense of his poetry. This is so because Ukala is best known as a playwright whose dramatic output spans many years. However, Ukala has also written poetry that fits into the spectrum of the larger body of modern Nigerian poetry. This study analyzes his poetry collection *In My Hermitage* depicting it as a significant and poignant statement on contemporary social malaise. Viewed from the perspective of moralistic literary engagement, the study presents the collection as upbraiding an errant society and at the same time working out strategies for expiation. Unlike most Nigerian poets, Ukala deliberately, although not wholly successful, tries to be apolitical as he meditatively opens up the many moral and social crises bedeviling the Nigerian polity.

Keywords: Nigerian poetry, social, moralistic, apolitical, analysis

1. Introduction

Nigerian literature was engendered in an embattled milieu which was occasioned by the crisis of history that the colonial encounter bequeathed. This necessitated the conclusion by Omafume Onoge that "modern African literature was born in a hostile milieu"(22). As has been amply demonstrated by successive literary works the colonial experience with all its contentions and contradictions created a fertile ground from which a flourishing literature sprouted. The tensions which arose from the experience bred a deep sense of collective apprehension which is hinged on history and politics. It is for this reason that history constitutes the major denominator in the creation and evaluation of this literature. Any familiar reader of Nigerian literature will notice the faithful almost fetishistic preoccupation of majority of the writers with history and by extension politics. It is instructive to recall Ken Saro-Wiwa's assertion that "Literature in a critical situation such as Nigeria cannot be divorced from politics. Indeed, literature must serve society as steeping itself in politics, by intervention. . ." (81). But, it must also be said that

some of the writers, albeit very few, have had cause to engage the Nigerian experience beyond the imperative and rhetoric of history. These few writers, perhaps, deliberately set out to create some distance between their art and the overarching shadow of politics. Yet, a deep probing of the works reveals unavoidable even though slim strain of reluctant preoccupation with politics. This is the case with Sam Ukala's poetry.

Sam Ukala is known as an established dramatist. This is evident in the many plays he has written as well as the laurels he has won including the highly coveted LNG sponsored Nigeria Prize for Literature which he won in 2014. Ukala's established reputation as a playwright has also informed the critical bias which is manifested in the large oeuvre of critical works around his plays. For example in the two festschrifts already published in his honour, *Eagle in Flight : The Writings of Sam Ukala* and *Sam Ukala: His Work at Sixty*, one encounters a preponderance of essays explicating the themes and techniques of the over ten plays Ukala has written. In fact out of the twenty-one essays in both books, nineteen are devoted to the study of his plays. Yet, Ukala has also taken time to write in the two other genres of prose and poetry. The glaring critical vacuum in the criticism of Ukala's creative enterprise is the near critical silence on his poetry and prose. It is for this reason that the present paper sets out as an engagement of Ukala's poetry contained in his collection titled *In My Hermitage* (2000).

If as Ayo Kehinde contends that literature is "the expression (whether verbal or written) of the author's/writer's total consciousness or perception and reaction to cultural as well as socio-political realities of the society that produces the work of art" (301), then *In My Hermitage* reads like a deliberate attempt to shy away from mainstream encounter with history and politics. In the poems, Ukala creates a persona who in this case is a hermit who strives to contend with contemporary and not so contemporary social issues as he also strains to dodge the imperatives of politics which has remained compelling in Nigerian poetry. For as B. Olatunji Oloruntimehin insists, "It is a truism that it matters a great deal, for our political and social behavior, what we consider our own society to be, since our political actions are guided and considered by views (implicit or explicit) of our social condition" (15). Hence, the poems in this collection can be read and appreciated on two levels that are ultimately bound in the narrative of any society. These levels are the collective and the individual. The persona's aggregation of social experience at the collective level encodes a general mood of dissatisfaction arising from the unstable nature of humanity. This also elongates into a reluctant implication of historical forces which Ukala suggestively and indirectly encodes in some of the poems. At the individual level, the persona is preoccupied with individual dilemmas and contradictions which arise from moral turpitude and duplicity. Highlighted in this regard are personal nuances and choices which negatively impinge on the moral wellbeing of society. In poem after poem the persona meditates and mediates the existential circumstances within the social structure and how individual acts with all their ulterior designs contribute to a collective moral

attrition. Heavily indicted in the poems is the crisis of moral attrition that is assailing humanity.

A necessary departure point for the present study is what Wilbur S. Scott calls “the moral content” (23) which enables critics to study a work of art based on “what it says” (23). Scott’s summation highlights the preoccupation of moralistic criticism to which Ukala’s poetry is highly susceptible. Similarly, T. S. Eliot feels “literary criticism should be complemented by criticism from a definite ethical and theological standpoint” (43). To further emphasize the significance of the moral imperative in literary representation Eliot declares: “But moral judgments of literary works are made only according to the moral code accepted by each generation, whether it lives according to that code or not” (43). Tanure Ojaide agrees with Eliot saying “culture and society mold individuals to behave in certain ways and to recognize specific norms and virtues as acceptable and others as not” (86). This is justified by the didactic end literature is meant to serve. Hence, Edmund Fuller thinks “you can’t have a vital literature if you ignore or shun evil” (63). A reading of Ukala’s *In My Hermitage* along the foregoing critical touchstones is an opportunity to open up the interstices of a society afflicted by social and moral aridity.

In order to come to terms with contemporary maladies Ukala deftly privileges the oral tradition from where he appropriates elements which attempt to construct moral ethos. This is the case with the collection’s opening poem titled “tortoise and pig”, a folkloric anecdote which satirizes duplicity. That Ukala decides to begin the collection with a poem with a strong moral message is by no means fortuitous. His recourse to didactic folklore in the opening poem is part of a deliberate strategy aimed at foregrounding the collection’s moral posture. The short but witty poem reads:

tortoise went to dun his debt
 pig his debtor hid himself
 he went on business, good tortoise,
 he went on business,’ said his wife.
 ‘a pity, madam,’ tortoise said,
 ‘he left his hoofs behind the door!’ (9).

As short, simple and humorous as the poem turns out, it assumes a serious didactic essence which negates dishonesty and other duplicitous acts. The witty poem is a folktale motif in which the trickster figure ends up undoing himself through an ill-thought out scheme. What the poem holds for contemporary society is a light preachment against deceit and a veiled satirical castigation of ignoble deeds. What the poet sets out to achieve is an affirmation of moral rectitude which abound in folklore. Many of the poems that follow can be read along as verses that were engendered by didactic impulse.

2. Tone of Ukala's Work

In setting the tone for a lighthearted poetic engagement, Ukala subscribes to the folkloric base to appropriate its variegated appurtenances especially children song. In doing this Ukala tends to keep away from political and historical concerns, albeit not too successfully as will be seen much later in poems which codify in very vague manners some aspects of Nigeria's experience. Ukala's intention here finds bearing with what Charles Nnolim refers to as "Group identity with emphasis on communal and collective experience; group solidarity showing group success or failure" (22). In the poems "to the rainbow" and "when I grow up", the poet engages in the expression of childlike wishes. Spoken through an engaging persona using the first personal singular pronoun "I", the poems carry the reader to the child's world of play. The first of the two poems, which is memorable for its aptness and brevity reads:

coloured snake that drinks the sea
mother says you vomit rain
drink quickly and then vomit
the stream I fetch is far away (10).

Here is the voice of a child-persona who solicits the understanding of the "coloured snake" so as to make his domestic chore of fetching water easy. However, a more profound reading will yield an existential meaning of the quest for reprieve by a humanity that is over burdened by the rigours of living. Implicit in this scheme is the quest to ease the burden of existence. Hence the child-persona speaks for humanity. Again, this poem is sustained by a folktale motif. As in an oral performance setting such short, entertaining pieces are deployed by the performer to make the audience settle down for the real performance. In the other poem Ukala also deploys playful lines:

when I grow up
I shall grow three breasts
the middle breast
shall be long as three pawpaws (11)

This reads like asking too much by the persona, however, it is for the nourishment and sustenance of her anticipated off-springs. The reader/listener laughs on at the hilariousness of the poem until the persona lures him/her into more serious subject matters like the one in the following lines:

my nation will not be so self-hating
that she will guzzle her own eggs
and break her own wings
when the gun goes for nations to fly (13).

The persona's wish when he grows up into adulthood is that of a society that is rational and self-sustaining and not that which is destructive and retarding. The persona's individual aspiration morphs with a collective social order which could make or mar. The persona is thus concerned about the existential condition which the society foists on her. What the persona does is to assume a soothing posture of wishful thinking and construct in her imagination the ideal social condition bereft

of maladies be they corruption, bad leadership, crime, hopelessness and other indices of social and moral denigration. In spite of Ukala's attempt to be apolitical his verse demonstrates a major character of contemporary Nigerian poetry which according to Idris Amali "seeks to speak to and for the people; it is poetry that reaches the people, educates and prepares their minds, mobilizing them for desirable socio-political and economic changes" (97). Emerging from this imaginative configuration is the persona's ideal society which she hopes to inherit when she becomes an adult. Ukala's aim at projecting a child-persona who envisages an ideal future as opposed to deploying an adult persona should at this point be interrogated. On the face value, using a child persona in envisaging a future social order appears to be more realistic than using an adult in depicting the anticipation of change. The adult is part of the present social decadence deplored by the poet. Hence, an adult's sense of change, since the decadent order is what he/she is used to, will not be as refreshing and hopeful as that of the child. Secondly, Ukala is aware that change is neither achieved overnight nor is it by happenstance. It therefore makes sense to deploy a child-persona who will not only anticipate change, but also mature with the process initiating it. It is also apt to see the use of the child-persona as a means of drawing the reader's empathy to the subject matter. The dolorous tone of the speaking child evokes a great deal of sympathy and attention from the listener/reader which an adult voice will not attract.

Ukala's hermit wears many masks. Apart from being a child and embodiment of a collective moral imperative, he is also a keen observer of nature and often interfaces it with contemporary social reality. As an observer of nature he passes for the persona who is obsessed with nature from where he draws inferences and makes important statements about life. The statements made by the persona are deceptively simple, but they have deep philosophical underpinning. The hermit in Ukala's poetry is the type who not only thinks about phenomena, but also interrogates them in order to rationalize social occurrences. Hence in the poem "The Flowing Stream", the persona tells us:

I stood and watched the flowing stream
 . . .
 I asked myself why it complains
 And felt I should rather as it;
 'Is it your weary endless trip?
 Or sleeplessness at night?
 Is it big-fish-eat-small-fish
 That turns your stomach's gall? (23)

The conversational poem sounds very similar to English Romantic poetry as Ukala gives human quality to natural objects and in this case "the flowing stream". Through a probing conversation Ukala raises questions behind the mystery of the stream as reflected in the ceaseless flow of water and the relationship between the different sizes of fish. What the persona does in this interrogation of nature is actually an attempt to unravel the societal ordering and how it manifests in the predicament of the individual. It is also possible to read this poem as that which

depicts human exaction, inequity and insecurity all of which are factors which constitute disillusionment. The hermit, from his observation post, is able to view human society *vis a vis* nature, draws a parallel between both and reaches a conclusion which depicts a distorted social order defined by moral turpitude.

Emmanuel Ngara observes that “. . . solitary contemplation can lead to wisdom. . . “ (46). This thinking applies to the hermit who is all-seeing and all-knowing as the recollection from which his imagination springs pervades different social segments. This is evident in his ridicule of religious hypocrisy in the poem “Neo-Orthodoxy”. Apparently satirising the rave of Pentecostalism the persona says

Spirits drain into them:

Receptive they are
As porous earth, parched
And dying for first rain.

Spirit drain into them

And make them pregnant,
Make them sing and cry
I tedious labour of gospel-birth: (24)

The overt sarcasm in the above lines mocks the orgies inherent in the religious and worship sessions in many Pentecostal churches and the spiritual excesses demonstrated by worshippers in the name of worshipping God. The now popular practice of being possessed by the Holy Spirit and the attendant physical demonstrations such as forceful jerking of the body, loud cry and singing are among the issues satirised by the hermit. The subjects of this biting sarcasm are both the religious leader and the follower who are the parties in this spiritual charade. Again listen to the hermit’s taunting:

bring your money, sheep
God loves a cheerful giver!

Far, far behind I ‘m left
far, far behind
in this whitening of the sepulcher,
this ritual that yields
billions of naira,
hundreds of wives and wild oaths. (25)

The reference to “sheep” is highly connotative and of double meaning. First is the biblical inference which requires Christians to be gentle like sheep, while its other meaning which the satirical hermit has in mind derives from the traditional conception of sheep as a stupid animal. Both meanings are tenable here because they make the worshipper who is the sheep to be docile and easily led or misled. Thus it is easy for the religious leader to exploit the sheep materially. Since the sheep is gullible he/she falls for the wiles of the religious leader who gets richer and goes after other material and immoral pursuits. The hermit’s satirical barb in this poem is double edged as it mocks the cunning of the religious leader as well as the

gullibility of the worshipper. In spite of the pervasive religious perversion and moral degeneration the hermit lays claim to insularity as an untainted human entity.

3. Themes in Ukala's *Hermitage*

While engaging the maladies emanating from the social and moral convolutions buffeting the fabric of society, Ukala devices means of weaving allegorical lines to subtly make a significant commentary on Nigeria's political experience. Ukala as already stated in this essay did not appear to be concerned with political themes. However, it is difficult to do so in a space that is so suffused with political tissues. Hence Ukala strains himself to the limit of poetic distancing when he has to make political statements such as the one in "The Tabernacles" where he outlines the socio-political choices before the nation. The voice of the hermit recounts:

At the Freedom Square
 we congregated
 patriots adream
 of morrow's sunshine
 and even roads
 . . .
 transfiguration !
 . . .
 let us make here
 three tabernacles
 one for agbada
 one for khaki
 and one for naira. . . (29)

A deceptively simple poem configured around a biblical allusion the stanzas depict a people united by the hope of a better future. The vivid impression created in the first stanza is that of a disillusioned populace held down by circumstances beyond their control, but have now come to collectively rally for freedom. They base their hope of a new beginning on the anticipation of change that will be engendered by a "transfiguration". As the hope is dreamed of the people are offered three choices namely; "agbada", "khaki" and "naira". The three variables have metonymic significance in this poem when read in consonance with Nigeria's socio-political reality. The first item "agbada" represents civil rule, "khaki" stands for military rule while "naira" denominates the role which money plays in the nation's political reckoning. The poem is conceived as offering these three choices for the people to choose from as they work out their future. An evaluation of Nigeria's political experience reveals a country that has hovered between two choices represented by civil rule and military dictatorship. Hence, the choices which the people are confronted with can be read as a dilemma occasioned by the phenomenon of political crossroads.

As if to mitigate the gravity of the political dilemma in the above poem, the next poem "Wait for me" which is couched in the mould of children poetry sings about

an existential condition in a deceptively simple and uncomplicated style. The poem's light tone and the characters in it easily diminish its seriousness. The child-persona sings:

Wait for me, O wait for me,
Little birds with silky wings,
You fly away when I' m near
And take me round and round the field.
Wait for me, O wait for me,
I just want to play with you. (33)

As simple as the short poem appears it encapsulates an elusive wish which inheres in humanity's existential quest for an ideal that remains an illusion. The child represents humanity while the birds of its fantasy are the ideals that humanity yearns for with so much anxiety. The child complains, but entreatingly requests to play with the elusive birds. This poem is reminiscent of J. P. Clark's "Streamside Exchange" in which a child engages a bird in a simple, but profoundly philosophical dialogue. It is possible to link "Wait for me" with "The Tabernacles" since both poems can be read as depicting humanity's different existential experiences.

The tension created by doubt in a moment of making a choice especially between good and bad also gets illuminated among the poems in this collection. Moral crises often arise from choices which fester into internal personal strife. This perspective is privileged in "burn this mask" an intensely amorous poem which explores a confused persona as he dithers over what to make of his feelings. He expresses his state of mind as follows:

my mind says
it' s a simple smile of raw love
my mask says
it depicts the purity of a dove (41)

Here the persona's mind is troubled by the doubt which arises from the inconsistency occasioned by the opposition between "mind" and "mask". While the former gives hint of an amorous intention the latter points in the direction of a wholesome platonic ideal of love. Further reading of the poem portrays the persona as resolving his dilemma in favour of an amoral endeavour as he says:

there! come on, faster here!
cause an exothermic collision
that 'll burn off this mask i wear
and fuse us with passion's explosion! (41)

The contest between the persona's thought and his action culminates in his yearning for the carnal knowledge of the woman. The doubt in the persona's mind is erased as he earnestly entreats the subject of his love overtures to make haste to him in a manner that is reminiscent of metaphysical poetry especially in the secular poems of John Donne and Andrew Marvel. It is now easy to categorically declare the persona in this poem as duplicitous as he embodies a dual consciousness embedded in both moral and immoral intensions which the "mind" and "mask" represent. The

poem's title "burn this mask" which is also repeated in the last stanza is an emphatic call to do away with any restraining index to the persona's intension. The mask is a symbol which conceals his intension and his insistent call for it to be burnt signifies a strong desire to reveal and carry out his real amoral intension.

Ukala's diction in this collection creates some level of ambiguity in the reader's bid at arriving at a meaning. The words are ordinarily simple, but the way Ukala deploys them in some of the poems often leads to loss of meaning. This is the case with the poem "ceramic cup" which shares the same subject matter with "burn this mark". This poem depicts the "ceramic cup" as a symbol of beauty which the persona admires and desires. However, he is initially restrained by the Christian moral code "thou shalt not..." Which he eventually violates "but thou didst". Ukala goes on to deploy simple yet abstruse expressions like "bristle brush/cleansing/your passioned breath/off my teeth. . ." to connotatively imply the foreplay that precedes the act of copulation. In the last stanza Ukala gives a clear hint of the sexual act which climaxes the violation of the moral code as follows:

tonight the ceramic falls
loses lip not life to the sink:
a sign of purity?
or futility? (43)

The above excerpt underpins the rupture of a moral ideal represented by the consummation act. Thus, "the ceramic" which is held up as a symbol of moral perfection is violated. Hence it "falls". The rhetorical question which ends the poem leaves the reader to decide or pass judgment on the act poetized in the poem. Again, this poem has a strong ring of English metaphysical poetry as its obscure signification is intended to veil the vulgarity often embedded in poems that have to do with sexual acts.

The title poem "In My Hermitage" aptly depicts the solitary and eccentric character of the hermit and his preoccupation. The hermit who doubles as the persona declares in the opening stanza:

I am
a priest in calamine paint
nude and pox-ridden
tremulous by the fire
waiting to get dry (51)

The image depicted above is that of the physical appearance of the traditional priest in many African societies. A similar depiction of the priest is found in Chinua Achebe's portrayal of Ezeulu the chief priest of Umuaro in the novel *Arrow of God*. Ukala's intension in this collection is to position the hermit as the moral conscience of contemporary society as the priest is to the traditional society. It then becomes convincing for the reader to not only view the society through the submissions of the hermit, but to also make his/her judgment based on what the hermit says since he as a priest is supposed to give a true and accurate account of the collective social experience. The reader thus takes what the hermit offers as an

authoritative social testament. Not done with the description of the hermit's physical appearance Ukala further designates him as a poet and encoder of the human experience he observes. Hence the hermit in his lonely hermitage says:

I stand in the eddy of hisses
and beside the dead fire and write
for none but my throbbing eyes:
eat the joy of life
all you over there
drink love on your bed-springs
I am free from the tyranny
of the flesh (52)

The hermitage experience is largely unpleasant as it is constituted by alienation and self-abnegation. While the rest of society engage in all sorts of revelries and physical pleasures the hermit is held up in his solitary abode observing and encoding the social current and nuances of his time and society. The last line of the excerpt indicates that the hermit has no regret over the path he has chosen as he sees himself as "free from the tyranny of the flesh". So the hermitic condition empowers the persona with a special status as a priest, a moral compass and encoder of the tendencies of his age. He can therefore be held as the one who not only sets the standard Ukala advocates in the poems, but also as the embodiment of high moral code which the society stands in dire need of and which inspired the poems in this collection.

Ukala's hermit demonstrates a keen consciousness of the social structure of his time especially its class stratification and the attendant exploitative and oppressive decimals which define it. This consciousness is what the poem "Come Everybody" foregrounds. In this poem the hermit declares an overt populist bias as he summons the people thus:

Come, everybody,
women, men, children, vultures,
come let's converge
at the heap
and share together
the blessing of the oppressed;
the dew has made mellow
the garbage. (57)

In the foregoing the hermit in spite of his alienation takes on the responsibility of mobilizing the people for the task of collective redemption. This act is not only symbolic, but it is also significant in that the hermit deems it necessary to involve everybody including the oppressed and the oppressors whom he calls "vultures". According to Ezenwa-Ohaeto "The role of the poet in any developing society is not enviable because he often functions against the antagonistic attitudes generated by the indifference of those in positions of authority"(27). This summarizes the hermit's condition. The poem has a sharp ironic twist in the line "blessing of the oppressed" which indirectly signifies suffering. This poem is a mitigating relief

which signals hope arising from the hermit's redemptive motive. Hence, like the traditional or biblical priest the hermit in *In My Hermitage* has the onerous task of negotiating and re-directing the path of an errant society for its own redemption. It is apt to say that the poems in this collection are engendered by a strong desire to re-order social reality and its attendant decadence which is seen as responsible for the painful retrogression the poems rail against. An appraisal of this will throw up a strong spiritual undercurrent which necessitates the invention of the hermit in the mould of a priest determined to re-order society.

The hope which 'Come Everybody' enunciates is given further validation in the poem with the reassuring title "Our Pen Will Not Die" which is dedicated to Niyi Osundare who can aptly be described as the poet of the Nigerian condition. With copious allusions to the titles of poetry collections by Osundare, Ukala recalls a chilling physical attack which the poet (Osundare) survived. The poem tallies with Theodara Akachi Ezeigbo's submission on ". . . a bizarre world of fantasy to embody (. . .) vision of a fragmented and violent society"(115). The poet's resilience and survival of that brutal attack signals hope that the society will witness regeneration and amity. He submits:

then shall the dancing
feet of the firmament
cripple the arms of the axe
that seeks the dollar
in the folds of the brain (92)

The metaphor of "dancing feet" refers to a celebration arising from a time when the right values would have supplanted violence and crime. This might sound idealistic, but it is the poet's vision of the re-ordered social structure which contemporary society badly needs. As Bernth Lindfors offers, "a seer must not only be able to see; he must also be able to transfer his vision to others." The vision which Ukala's hermit transfers to the readers is that of hope because as Ojaide affirms, "The poet should be an oracle and a healer. All the more reason that our vision should be one of hope: for restoration of the good we have lost, for attainment of a state of well-being. Only hope can save us"(133). Thus one of the roles Ukala foists on the hermit equates Wole Soyinka's opinion of the artist "as the record of the mores and experience of his society and as the voice of vision in his own time" (20).

4. Conclusion

In this collection Ukala sets out to engage a society that is in need of social and moral redemption and he finds the hermit who is untainted and alienated as the tool of carrying out the task of expiation. Ukala's position is at once unique and going against the grain of the literary depiction of the redemptive praxis in the corpus of African literature. While many writers do not envisage the essence of a redemptive figure as in Ayi Kwei Armah's *The Beautiful Ones Are not yet Born*, others like Wole Soyinka throw up sacrificial characters like Emman in *The Strong Breed*, yet the Socialist-Marxist inclined playwrights and poets such as Ngugi wa Thiong'o,

Femi Osofisan and Niyi Osundare opt for collective revolt as a means of re-ordering society. Ukala does not fit into any of these. Rather, he chooses a hermit who invents his social vision from the point of view of unobtrusive social engagement with all strata of society involving the oppressed and the oppressor.

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