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Editorial

This issue of KIU *Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Administration, Social Psychology, Gender Studies, Educational Technology, Business and Entrepreneurship Studies.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Leadership Recruitment, International Oil Politics, Waste Management, Conflict Management, Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation. It is argued in one of the papers that modes of leadership recruitment have not been credible, transparent and fair. It is indicated that poor conducts during the electoral process has reinforced poverty at the grassroots level. Hence, poor leadership recruitment has affected anti-poverty programmes instituted to combat high level of poverty at the grassroots level in selected states. The paper recommends that there is an urgent need to ensure the credibility, transparency and fairness of modes of leadership recruitment, especially party primary elections in Nigeria. In addition, the electoral umpire should be strengthened for an improved management of the electoral process.

Section two explores the social and cultural factors that influence educational, political and judicial activities in the society. It is revealed in one of the papers that there is a high level of awareness, belief and positive perception of police officers to juju practice in criminalities and crime-fighting. Police officers' adoption of juju powers as a counterforce to combat juju-using criminals appears to be on the increase while they advocate for the recognition of the potency of juju rituals by the criminal justice system. It is therefore recommended that government and police authorities should recognize, orientate, regulate, and engage juju practice and priests, and maintain sound police-community relations in tackling juju-using criminals suggests that students should be thought measures on how to develop their emotional intelligence both by parents and teachers in school.

In the Section on Business and Entrepreneurship Studies, it is revealed that business education can reduce the rising rates of absolute poverty and unemployment in Nigeria to a high extent, but is ineffective to address environmental degradation in Nigeria. Based on these findings, it is recommended amongst others, that Government, non-governmental organizations and stakeholders in the education sector should adequately fund business education programmes for sustainable economic growth and development.

Papers in Section Four highlight the importance of technolonogy in teaching and learning. One of the papers reveals that many students are not unaware of the instructional media that can be used to learn. It therefore recommends that students be enlightened on the instructional media that can aid their learning of Mathematics and parents/guardians should be encouraged to provide some basic instructional media.

Papers in the fourth Section are on Gender Studies. One of the papers in this section discovers that survival sex health implications are significant in all tertiary institutions, amongst the health implications are unwanted pregnancy and illegal abortion; the health implications are significant in both public and private tertiary institutions. It therefore recommends, among others, that that campaign against survival sex should be floated by government and nongovernmental organizations through media.

The last section is on History and Religious Studies. Attempt is made here to dig out the defining features that distinguish modern science from other disciplines from its historical antecedents. Historical exegesis of the rise of modern science is also carried out drawing out its defining characteristics, from the early Greek philosophers through the medieval era to modern times. It is shown that the defining features of modern science are common place procedures carried out by people in their daily activities but, which, taken together as a research procedure, amount to one of the most powerful tools man has devised to know, to conquer, and to control nature.

On the whole, this edition of KIU Journal of Social Sciences contains papers that have information on all aspects of human endeavour. Collaborative and cooperative approaches are offered as best approaches for dealing with matters that lead to the instability of communities, societies, economies, and the environment. The theoretical analyses provide opportunities to operationalize the theories discussed in the articles. The authors' teachings and areas of research must have certainly influenced their perspectives on the diagnoses of the matters they have addressed in their articles.

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Part One
Development Administration

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Currency Depreciation and Money Demand in Nigeria

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Abstract. Over the years, there has been controversy whether or not currency depreciation induces increased money demand. Previous studies appeared to have concentrated on the effects of currency depreciation on macroeconomic policy, while its relationship with money demand is scantly documented in the literature. This study therefore, explored this relationship and analyses the effects of currency depreciation on money demand in Nigeria. The study adopts *ex-post facto* research design and used secondary annual time series data from 1986 to 2017, obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical Bulletin, 2017. The data collected were analysed using line graphs, Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model with inferences drawn at 5% significance level.

The results of trend and pattern of currency depreciation and money demand showed a pro-cyclical movement over the period of study relative to policies adopted by the government in the management of its currency exchange rate. Also, the results of the relationship between currency depreciation and money demand showed that currency depreciation (REXRD) (β=-0.003023, t=-0.245760) had negative and insignificant effect on money demand. Therefore, the study concluded that depreciation of the naira against other foreign currencies currency depreciation had no significant influence on changes in money demand in Nigeria over the study periods. It thus recommended that, government should create policies to enhance flow of credit to the real sector and sustained the stability of naira exchange rate.

Keywords: Currency Depreciation, Money Demand, Macroeconomic policy, Exchange rate, ARDL.

1. Introduction

Currency depreciation is the loss of value of a country's currency with respect to one or more foreign reference currencies, typically in a floating exchange rate system in which no official currency value is maintained (Pettinger, 2017). Currency depreciation raises production cost, domestic prices and as a result increases the demand for money (Cooper, 1971).

Exchange rate is an important determinant of trade and money demand within a country as it represents the price at which domestic goods and services are exchanged for the goods and services produced in exporting countries (Chowdhury, Khanom, Emu, Uddin, & Farhana, 2014). Currency depreciation increases the demand for domestic currency as more money will be require to purchase products which are relatively cheaper from the importing countries point of view. The consumers of domestic country realize that imports becomes more expensive thereby reducing the purchase of foreign goods and increase the consumption of domestic substitute goods. Therefore, currency depreciation affects trade, which in turn has a direct impact on the trade sector in the domestic economy leading to a shift in money demand.

The monetarists argued that currency depreciation reduce the real value of cash balances, increasing demand for money and leading to a change in the relative prices of traded and non-traded goods. Thus, currency depreciation improves trade balance, money demand and the balance of payments (Mundell, 1963; Frankel, 1999). Changes in currency exchange rate can influence investors decision positively or negatively and also determines the availability of money in government covers to expend. When currency depreciates, purchasing power reduces and living standard drops, these results in increased money demand as imported goods become more expensive.

Previous studies have identified exchange rates, interest rate and the level of economic activities as important determinant factor of money demand in an economy (Mundell, 1963; Dornbusch, 1976).

Furthermore, a measure of opportunity cost of money demand has been identified as interest rate and income level as determinants of all transactional values (Friedman, 1984; Zhang, 2008). Exchange rate, through the medium of currency depreciation rather than income and interest rate was also identified as an important factor in money demand for an open economy (Fleming, 1962). The medium of transmission of currency depreciation on money demand could either be through the channels of export or planned expenditure. Arango and Nadiri, (1981) identified two main transmission channels of currency rate on money demand as wealth and expectation.

Extant literature from developed, emerging and developing economies on the effects of currency or exchange rate depreciation is mixed, while studies like Bitrus, (2011); Nduka, Chukwu and Nwakaire, (2013); Apergis, (2015); and Farazmand, Ansari, & Moradi, (2016) showed negative effects of currency depreciation on money demand, others like Howard, (2002); Bahmani and Kutan (2010); and Bahmani-Oskooee, Satawatananon & Xi, (2015) showed positive effects of currency depreciation on money demand.

There is no consensus in the findings of previous empirical studies on the relationship between currency depreciation and money demand. Hence, no consistent conclusions are found from these studies. The research question emanating from the foregoing are: what is the trend and pattern of currency depreciation and money demand in Nigeria? What are the effects of currency depreciation on money demand in Nigeria? Resolving these issues will be the main focus of this paper. The paper aims to appraise the trend and pattern and examine the effects of currency depreciation on money demand in Nigeria. While the research hypothesis stated in the null form is: Currency depreciation has no significant effect on money demand in Nigeria over the years. The rest of the paper is structured as follows: section two literature reviews on currency depreciation and money demand; section three research methods and procedure; section four presents the research findings and discussion and section five is the conclusion.

2. Literature Review

Mundell (1963) introduced the idea of including the exchange rate as another determinant of the demand for money in the money demand function. He propounded that, a depreciation of domestic currency or appreciation of foreign currency results in an increase in domestic currency value of the assets held abroad by domestic residents. If this increase is perceived as an increase in wealth, public will tend to increase their spending by demanding more money. On the other hand, when foreign currency appreciates, if there is expectation of further appreciation, public may hold more of foreign currency and demand less of domestic currency.

Follow up to this, the disequilibrium framework was put forth by Mundell (1963), Fleming (1962) and later by Dornbusch (1976). Conventional answer to currency depreciation is usually analyzed within the Mundell-Fleming model and the result is a positive effect on the trade account. Thus, devaluation is expansionary in terms of gross domestic product (GDP), since exports increase more than imports. The model, which is commonly known as IS-LM-BOP model is an economic model propounded by Robert Mundell and Marcus Fleming as an extension of the IS-LM model. The traditional IS-LM model deals with an autarky economy, while the modern Mundell-Fleming model describes a small open economy.

The Mundell-Fleming model is based on the following equations:

The IS curve: $Y = C + I + G + NX$ (2.1)

The LM curve: $\frac{M}{P} = L\,(i, Y)$ (2.2)

A higher interest rate or a lower income (GDP) level leads to lower money demand.

$BOP = CA + KA$ (2.3)

Where BOP is the balance of payments surplus, CA is the current account surplus and KA is the capital account surplus. Mundell-Fleming model might be naturally extended by considering many other important features, which determine the degree of the reaction of the current account.

Howard (2002) investigates the impact of exchange rate depreciation on the demand for real money balances during hyper inflation in Jamaica between 1968 and 1997. The methodology adopted was designed to estimate long-run models of the demand for real money balances, as well as error correction models. The model was analyzed using cointegration and error correction modeling. The result showed that exchange rate depreciation, which was severe in Jamaica after 1990, had a real balance effect on the demand for narrow money.

Bitrus, (2011b) examined the demand for money in Nigeria. The study used annual time series spanning 26 years on both narrow and broad money, Income, interest rate, exchange rate and the stock market. The

study employed the use of multiple regression analysis. The study found that money demand function was stable in Nigeria for the sample period and that income was the most significant determinant of the demand for money.

Nduka, Chukwu, and Nwakaire, (2013) examined the long-run demand for real broad money function and its stability in Nigeria for the period of 1986 to 2011. The study employed Augmented-Dickey Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) tests for unit root, Engle-Granger approach for cointegration, CUSUM and CUSUMSQ tests for stability. The results of the stability and cointegration tests confirmed that a stable, long-run relationship existed between demand for real broad money and its determinants: income, domestic real interest rate, expected rate of inflation, expected foreign exchange depreciation, and foreign interest rate.

Apergis (2015) estimated the long-run properties of money demand specification for a number of East Asian economies with quarterly data spanning the period 1990-2012. He modeled demand for real money balances as a function of real income, and other independent variables within a panel framework with the presence of structural breaks, a simple average of all pair-wise correlation coefficients of the OLS residuals obtained from standard augmented Dickey-Fuller regressions for each variable in the panel as the basis of analysis. The study found that, (a) the demand for money in the long-run positively responds to real income and inversely to the interest rate spread, inflation, the real effective exchange rate and the US real interest rate; (b) the long-run income elasticity is greater than unity; and (c) both the currency substitution effects of depreciation and capital mobility hypotheses hold.

3. Research Methodology

Evaluating the effects of currency depreciation on money demand in Nigeria, the paper adopts ex-post facto research design, because the researcher has no direct control over the variables involved. This is because the issues investigated relates to events that have already taken place and for which a causal-comparative evaluation was carried out to analyze the objectives of the study. Nigeria data set was used as the sample size for the study.

In economic literature, money demand function includes a scale variable measured by income, an opportunity cost variable measured by interest rate or the rate of inflation and the exchange rate, which accounts for currency depreciation. Following Apergis (2015) this study specify the demand for real money balances as a function of currency depreciation, money multiplier, the inflation rate, domestic credit and the lending rate as follows

$$\boldsymbol{ln}(\mathbf{m_d})_{it} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_i + \boldsymbol{\beta_1 REXRD}_{it} + \boldsymbol{\beta_2 A}_{it} + \boldsymbol{\beta_3 INFL}_{it} + \boldsymbol{\beta_4 lnDC}_{it} + \boldsymbol{\beta_5 RL}_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad 3.1$$

Where, *M* is the stock of nominal money, proxy for money demand; *REXRD* denotes the real exchange rate which is used to test the effect of currency depreciation and; *A* is the money multiplier to capture transactions and precautionary demand for money after depreciation; *INFL* is the inflation rate; *DC* represent the domestic credit and *RL* is the lending interest rate (a proxy for the rate of return on assets outside of money) as an opportunity cost of money demand (Baye, 2011).

The paper used an ARDL framework of order:

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{ln}(\mathbf{m_d})_t = \boldsymbol{\beta_0} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_1} \boldsymbol{\beta_i} \Delta \boldsymbol{ln}(\mathbf{m_d})_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_2} \boldsymbol{\beta_i}\, \Delta \boldsymbol{REXRD}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_3} \boldsymbol{\beta_i}\, \Delta \boldsymbol{A}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_4} \boldsymbol{\beta_i}\, \boldsymbol{INFL}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_5} \boldsymbol{\beta_i}\, \Delta \boldsymbol{lnDC}_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{P_6} \boldsymbol{\beta_i}\, \Delta \boldsymbol{RL}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_1}(\mathbf{m_d})_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_2 REXRD}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_3 A}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_4 INFL}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_5\, DC}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\lambda_6 RL}_{t-i} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_t} \quad \mathbf{3.2}$$

Where,Δ is a first difference operator and $\varepsilon_t$is an identically and independently distributed white noise error terms. In equation (3.2) the term with the summation sign represent the error correction dynamics while the second part (term with $\boldsymbol{\lambda_s}$in equation) corresponds to the long run relationship. The null hypothesis in equation (3.2) exists when $\boldsymbol{\lambda_1}$= $\boldsymbol{\lambda_2}$=$\boldsymbol{\lambda_3}$=$\boldsymbol{\lambda_4}$=$\boldsymbol{\lambda_5}$= $\boldsymbol{\lambda_6 = 0}$ which indicate the non-existence of the long run relationship. The ARDL method estimated $(P+1)^k$ number of regression in other to obtain the optimal lags for each variable, where P is the maximum number of lags to be used and k is the number of variables in the equation.

The paper made use of secondary data, which are annual time-series. The data covered a period of 33 years, 1986 to 2018. Data was sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) various statistical bulletins, National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) Annual Reports and International Financial Statistic (IFS) data. The variables that was used in this study were selected on the basis of their theoretical importance, usefulness as a measure of the key construct of the study namely, currency depreciation, money demand and trade balance, and findings from their usage in previous empirical literature. The E-views 10 econometric software package was used to analyze the data.

4. Research Findings / Results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents the descriptive analysis of the time series properties of the variables included in the model. The table showed that the mean values of money multiplier (A), domestic credit (DC), inflation rate (INFL), money demand (MD), currency depreciation (REXRD), lending rate (RL) stood at 0.02, ₦1,207.578billion, 20.15 percent, ₦5,755.584billion, -8.44 percent, 18.76 percent respectively. Correspondingly from the table, the maximum values of money multiplier (A), domestic credit (DC), inflation rate (INFL), money demand (MD), currency depreciation (REXRD), lending rate (RL) were, 0.03, ₦4,532.10billion,72.84 percent, ₦23,433.60billion, 7.27 percent, 29.80 percent; with the corresponding minimum values as, 0.002, ₦3.70million, 5.38 percent, ₦27.40million, -77.25 percent, 10.50 percent respectively.

The standard deviation of money multiplier (A), domestic credit (DC), inflation rate (INFL), money demand (MD), currency depreciation (REXRD) and lending rate (RL) from their respective long term mean values every year point stood at, 0.01, ₦1,533.263billion, 18.53 percent, ₦7,600.335billion, 19.16 percent and 3.80percent respectively. The probability value of Jarque-Bera statistics for all the variables shows their distribution level at mean zero and constant variance, while only money multiplier (A) and currency depreciation (REXRD) shows negative skewness, other variables are positively skewed to the right. This revealed that currency depreciation and money demand is normally distributed among all the incorporated variables of interest.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistic

Variables	*A*	*DC*	*INFL*	*RL*	*MD*	*REXRD*
Mean	0.015406	1207.578	20.14684	18.75847	5755.584	-8.442597
Median	0.014750	223.9000	12.54679	17.96500	1457.700	-1.644750
Maximum	0.026300	4532.100	72.83550	29.80000	23433.60	7.266200
Minimum	0.001700	3.700000	5.382224	10.50000	27.40000	-77.25110
Std. Dev.	0.004423	1533.263	18.53470	3.791365	7600.335	19.15903
Skewness	-0.020859	0.829340	1.564982	0.956424	1.099770	-2.710732
Kurtosis	5.336364	2.090224	4.052610	4.568608	2.725934	9.493241
Jarque-Bera	7.280451	4.771877	14.53955	8.159354	6.550786	95.40593
Probability	0.026246	0.092003	0.000696	0.016913	0.037802	0.000000
Sum	0.493000	38642.50	644.6988	600.2710	184178.7	-270.1631
Sum Sq. Dev.	0.000606	72877772	10649.59	445.6080	1.79E+09	11379.12
Observations	32	32	32	32	32	32

The correlation matrix shown in table 2 expressed the partial correlation of the currency depreciation and money demand variables employed for this paper in Nigeria within the period of 1986-2017. The table shows the magnitude, strength and direction of their linear relationship, with some negative linear relationships and some exhibiting positive among them. It indicates the existence of a variable showing strong positive correlation between money demand and domestic credit (0.505874), this is in line with economic theory because correlations among the explanatory variables neither violate any assumptions, nor affect the unbiasedness of the regressors' coefficients (Wooldridge, 2013)

Table 2: Correlation Matrix

Correlation	*A*	*LOG(DC)*	*INFL*	*LOG(MD)*	*REXRD*	*RL*
A	1.000000					
LOG(DC)	0.063965	1.000000				
INFL	0.055617	-0.241524	1.000000			
LOG(MD)	0.035543	0.541878	-0.441739	1.000000		
REXRD	0.164177	-0.054825	0.158222	-0.233929	1.000000	
RL	0.044554	-0.353768	0.375586	-0.322390	-0.061375	1.000000

Figure 1 shows the graphical representation of currency depreciation and money demand in Nigeria between 1986 and 2017. The graph shows that currency depreciation was stable between 1986 and 1998 with a little downward variation in 1992 and 1993, whereas, money demand experienced positive trend with mild fluctuation. It is observable that the relationship between currency depreciation and money demand experienced a sharp opposite trend in 1992 and 1999, while for the rest of the period under investigation, money demand varied mildly in the opposite direction of currency depreciation. These suggest that, as currency depreciates, money demand (for transactional, precautionary and speculative purposes) increases depending on the magnitude of the currency depreciation. Furthermore, the chart revealed that, the sharp depreciation of currency depreciation in 1999, could be as a result of the foreign exchange market that was fully deregulated to reduce the behaviours of rent seekers and establish some level of macroeconomic stability.

The policy of Inter-Bank Foreign Exchange Market (IFEM) then was established in October 1999 and was implemented daily with banks as major participants and the CBN as a moderator. The money demand showed a reverse trend which could be as a result of persistent expansionary fiscal policy and excess liquidity in the system with increased money demand. Despite these policy efforts, the figure showed that there was a constant rise in the depreciation rate of naira from 1999 to 2004, while reversed currency depreciation (appreciation) was experienced from 2005 to 2008. Overall, the study observed critically that, the differences in the volatility of currency depreciation rate and money demand reflected the outcome of the various policies adopted by the Government in the management of foreign exchange rate in Nigeria.

Trend in Currency Depreciation and Money Demand

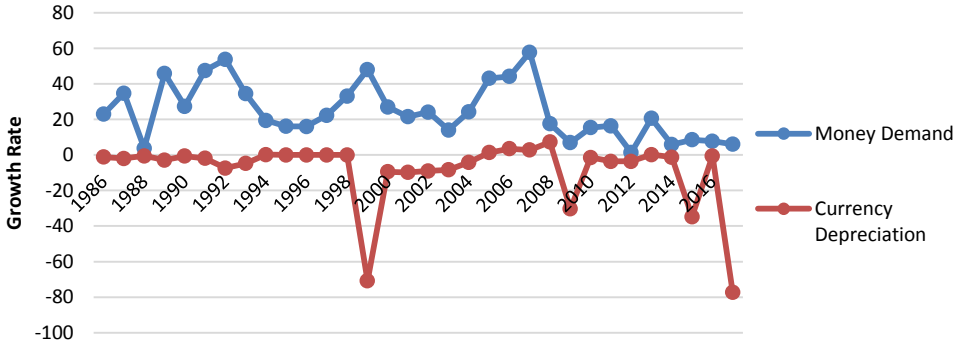

Figure 1: Currency Depreciation and Money Demand

Table 3 shows the results of the unit-root test using Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) approach. The results show that the variables had mixture of integration of order zero I(0) and one I(1). Specifically, money multiplier (A), inflation rate (INFL), currency depreciation (REXRD) and lending rate (RL) were stationary at level at 5% significant level while domestic credit (DC) and money demand (MD), were all stationary at first difference at 5% significant level. Having noted that the variables were integrated of different orders of level and first difference, the study therefore applied Autoregressive Distributed Lag technique (ARDL) in line with the work of Pesaran et al (2001) since one of the dependent variables (money demand) is non-stationary; none of the variable is I(2) in normal condition (ADF test); and none of the variable is I(2) in structural break.

4.2 Unit-Root Test Results

Table 3: Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Results

Variables	*Level*	*First Difference*	*Order of Integration*
A	-3.1846	-	***I(0)***
INFL	-4.3880	-	***I(0)***
LnDC	-1.9739	-7.9341	***I(1)***
LnMD	-1.9483	-3.3552	***I(1)***
REXRD	-4.5245	-	***I(0)***
RL	-4.5286	-	***I(0)***

4.3: Results of the Effect of Currency Depreciation on Money Demand

Table 4: ARDL Results of the Effect of Currency Depreciation on Money Demand

Dependent Variable: LOG(MD)				
Variable	***Coefficient***	***Std. Error***	***t-Statistic***	***Prob.****
LOG(MD(-1))	1.135924	0.183266	6.198225	0.0000
LOG(MD(-2))	-0.214957	0.174914	-1.228926	0.2321
REXRD	-0.000239	0.000990	-0.241364	0.8115
A	3.208866	4.150571	0.773114	0.4477
INFL	-0.002915	0.001234	-2.362518	0.0274
LOG(DC)	0.047059	0.015717	2.994193	0.0067
RL	-0.000851	0.006205	-0.137147	0.8922
C	0.496007	0.211350	2.346850	0.0283
R-squared	0.542522	**F-statistic**		3.727100
Adjusted R-squared	0.396960	**Durbin-Watson stat**		2.119100

Source: *Researcher's Computation, 2019*

Table 4. showed the results of the Autoregressive Distributed Lag of order (2) on the effect of currency depreciation on money demand. The explanatory power of the model explained 54.2 per cent of the total variations in the money demand. This showed that 45.8 per cent of the total variations in the money demand was not explained indicating that the explanatory variables played major roles in explaining the significant changes in demand for money in Nigeria. Thus, the model had goodness fit. The value of the F-statistic showed that the joint explanatory variables significantly explained the demand for money at 5% significant level, implying that the model was statistically significant at 5% level. The value of the Durbin-Watson d* statistic was approximately 2 indicating that the model had no serial autocorrelation problem.

Table 5: Long-Run Co-movement Results (currency depreciation/ money demand)

ARDL Bounds Test		
Test Statistic	**Value**	**k**
F-statistic	7.864392	1
Critical Value Bounds		
Significance	**I0 Bound**	**I1 Bound**
10%	4.04	4.78
5%	4.94	5.73
2.5%	5.77	6.68
1%	6.84	7.84

Source: *Researcher's Computation, 2019*

Table 5 showed that the F-statistic value which was (7.8644) in the ARDL Bound test was higher than the critical value bounds of I(0) Bound with (4.94) and I(1) Bound with (5.73) at 5% significant level. This showed that the variables in the model had long-run co-movement among themselves. Hence, there was long-run relationship among the variables. Meaning that, the variables had long-run co-movement and long-run relationship.

Table 6: Short-Run Results of the Effect of Currency Depreciation on Money Demand

Dependent Variable: LOG(MD)				
Variable	***Coefficient***	***Std. Error***	***t-Statistic***	***Prob.***
DLOG(MD(-1))	0.214957	0.174914	1.228926	0.2321
D(REXRD)	-0.000239	0.000990	-0.241364	0.8115
D(A)	3.208866	4.150571	0.773114	0.4477
D(INFL)	-0.002915**	0.001234	-2.362518	0.0274
DLOG(DC)	0.047059**	0.015717	2.994193	0.0067
D(RL)	-0.000851	0.006205	-0.137147	0.8922
CointEq(-1)	-0.079033	0.020639	-3.829344	0.0009
R-squared	0.542522		**F-statistic**	3.727100
Adjusted R-squared	0.396960		**Durbin-Watson stat**	2.119100

Source: *Researcher's Computation, 2019*
N.B. **Significant at 5% level

Table 6: explained the short-run relationship between currency depreciation and money demand. This was confirmed by the negative and significant t-statistic of all incorporated variables at 5% level and as shown in the coefficient of Error Correction variable (*CointEq(-1)*) which explained the speed of adjustment that took short-run periods to converge to long-run periods. It indicated that it would take 2.52 years for all the variables to converge to long-run relationship.

The short-run coefficient of currency depreciation had negative sign and statistically insignificant at the 5% level. The negative sign exhibited by the coefficient of currency depreciation in relations to money demand indicated that depreciation in Nigerian currency would lead to decrease in demand for money depending on the household point of view. This implied that the household demands for more money to fulfill his economic activities in terms of transactionary, precautionary or speculative motives. The household demanded for more money to fulfil his day-to-day activities as a result of currency depreciation or to fulfil his unforeseen circumstance and/ or invest more on interest bearing assets or securities were not sacrosanct due to insignificant level of the coefficient of currency depreciation in the short-run.

The short-run coefficients of inflation rate and domestic credits were negatively and positively signed respectively and statistically significant at 5% level. The negative and significant level of the coefficient of inflation rate showed that in the short-run, increased in inflation rate would lead to increase in demand for money and this was tantamount to mild inflation since the coefficient of inflation rate was 0.29% which was less than the 3-10% that did not benefit economic growth. Thus, as prices increases, consumers demand for money increases because this kind of inflation keeps consumers to demand for more goods as price increases. This was only applicable in the short-run based on the result. Also, the positive and significant coefficient of domestic credits showed that a unit increase in domestic credit would significantly result to 4.7% increase in demand for money.

The coefficients of money multiplier and lending rate were positive and negative respectively but statistically insignificant at 5% level. The insignificant relationships exhibited by money multiplier and lending rate showed that both variables had no significant influence on demand for money in the short-run.

Table 7: Long-Run Results of the Effect of Currency Depreciation on Money Demand

Dependent Variable: LOG(MD)				
Variable	***Coefficient***	***Std. Error***	***t-Statistic***	***Prob.***
REXRD	-0.003023	0.012300	-0.245760	0.8081
A	40.601500	54.906125	0.739471	0.4674
INFL	-0.036889**	0.014311	-2.577617	0.0172
LOG(DC)	0.595429**	0.119032	5.002243	0.0001
RL	-0.010768	0.077903	-0.138218	0.8913
C	6.275932	2.057067	3.050912	0.0059
R-squared	0.542522		**F-statistic**	3.727100
Adjusted R-squared	0.396960		**Durbin-Watson stat**	2.119100

Source: *Researcher's Computation, 2019*
N.B. **Significant at 5% level

Table 7 showed the results of the long-run relationship between currency depreciation and money demand. The long-run result had no serial correlation problem as evidence in the value of Durbin Watson d*-statistic and the explanatory variables significantly explained the influence had on demand for money (dependent variable) as evidence in the value of F-statistic.

Also, the long-run coefficient of currency depreciation was negatively signed and statistically insignificant at 5% level. The negative relationship exhibited by the coefficient of currency depreciation in the long run had no significant influence on money demand. Thus, a unit percent decrease in currency depreciation would lead to 0.003 percent insignificant decrease in demand for money in the long-run. In summary, currency depreciation had no significant influence on change in money demand in both short-run and long-run in Nigeria in the periods under study.

The coefficients of inflation rate and domestic credit had negative and positive signs respectively and statistically significant at 5% level. Thus, a unit percent decrease in inflation rate would result to 0.037 percent decrease in money demand and this showed that during inflationary period, consumers demand less of money for economic activities. Whereas, a unit percent increase in domestic credit would lead to 0.60 percent increase in money demand. Hence, consumers demand for more money when domestic credit increases. The coefficients of money multiplier and lending rate had negative and positive signs respectively and statistically insignificant at 5% level. The increase or decrease in money multiplier and lending rate had no significant influence on money demand.

Table 8: Diagnostic Tests Results for Effects of Currency Depreciation on Money Demand

Tests	Statistic	Values	Probability
Normality	*Jarque-Bera*	0.3822	**0.8261**
Serial Correlation LM	*Breusch-Godfrey*	0.7928	**0.4663**
Heteroskedasticity	*Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey*	0.7342	**0.6456**
Stability	*Ramsey RESET*	3.3541	**0.0308**

Source: *Researcher's Computation, 2019*

Table 8 showed the diagnostic tests results that confirmed the authenticity of the results emanated from ARDL technique. The tests were in four folds: the normality test, serial correlation LM test, heteroskedasticity test and stability test. These tests were carried out to determine whether the results are normally distributed, free from serial autocorrelation problem, had constant variance or suffer from functional form misspecification when it does not properly account for the relationship between the dependent and observed explanatory variables. The value of the *Jarque-Bera* showed that the results were normally distributed since its value was statistically insignificant at 5% level. Furthermore, the result of the serial correlation LM test using *Breusch-Godfrey* method indicated that the results of the analysis had no serial autocorrelation problem since its value was not statistically significant at 5% level. The result of the Heteroskedasticity test using *Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey* technique showed that the results of the analysis had constant variance with the evident of not statistically significant F-statistic value at 5% level. Finally the results of stability test using Ramsey RESET (Regression Equation Specification Error Test) test revealed that the results of the analysis had no evidence of non-linearity since its F-statistic value was statistically significant at 5% level.

5. Discussion of Findings

The study analysed the effects of currency depreciation on money demand in Nigeria. To achieve this, the study employed both descriptive statistics and econometric techniques to analyse annual time series data from Nigeria over a period from 1986-2017. The results of the Autoregressive Distributed Lag of order (2, 0) on the effect of currency depreciation on money demand revealed that the explanatory power of the model explained 54.2 per cent of the total variations in the money demand. This showed that 45.8 per cent of the total variations in the money demand was not explained indicating that the explanatory variables played major roles in explaining the significant changes in demand for money in Nigeria. Thus, the model had goodness fit.

Overall, the study revealed that currency depreciation had negative and insignificant influence on change in money demand in both short-run and long-run in Nigeria in the periods under study. With these findings we accept hypothesis I: (H_{o1}: Currency depreciation had no significant effect on money demand in Nigeria over the years). The result conformed to previous studies found in the literature, such as: Bitrus, 2011a; Nduka, Chukwu and

Nwakaire, 2013; Apergis, 2015; and Bahmani-Oskooee, Satawatananon and Xi, 2015.

6. Conclusions

Apparent from the above discussion, the trend analysis and the results of the Autoregressive Distributed Lag model estimation of the coefficient of the variables used revealed that, currency depreciation had no significant influence on changes in money demand in Nigeria over the study periods. The notion that economic agents demands for more money to fulfill his/her economic activities as a result of currency depreciation or to fulfil his unforeseen circumstance and/or invest more on interest bearing assets or securities is not supported by these findings. This was due to the insignificant level of the coefficient of currency depreciation in both the short-run and the long-run. The paper therefore recommends that the CBN and the Monetary Policy Committee that Nigerian currency should be allowed to depreciate freely through market forces and efficient money market system. Since currency depreciation had no significant influence on changes in money demand both in the short run and in the long-run in Nigeria, official depreciation should be discouraged. The monetary authorities should harmonise expansionary monetary policy and restrictive monetary policy in its strategic implementation plan of Economic Recovery and Growth Strategy (ERGS). This was to reduce the rate differential between productive and unproductive credit demand and supplied to the economy, in order to enable the productive sector of the economy to increase the flow of output from the private sector and increase trade flows which will in turn leads to appreciation of the Nigeria currency.

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Leadership Recruitment and Poverty Reduction at the Grassroots Level in Nigeria

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Abstract. After two decades of a return to democratic governance, Nigeria is still battling with the challenge of electing political leaders with clear vision of how to tackle poverty at the grassroots level. Poverty level in some states of the Federation had continued to rise over the years, with Nigeria being regarded as the poverty capital of the world as at 2019. The study examined leadership recruitment and poverty reduction at the grassroots level in Nigeria with particular reference to Lagos and Rivers states. The study adopted on mixed methods design. The study population was the residents of the two selected states. The sample size of the study was 914. The respondents were selected using purposive sampling technique. Data were collected using validated questionnaire with reliability coefficient of 0.783, interview schedule and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) guide. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics, while qualitative data were content analysed. The study found that the modes of leadership recruitment have not been credible, transparent and fair. It also indicated that poor conducts during the electoral process has reinforced poverty at the grassroots level. Hence, poor leadership recruitment has affected anti-poverty programmes instituted to combat high level of poverty at the grassroots level in selected states. The study recommended that there is an urgent need to ensure the credibility, transparency and fairness of modes of leadership recruitment, especially party primary elections in Nigeria. In addition, the electoral umpire should be strengthened for an improved management of the electoral process.

Keywords: Electoral process, grassroots development, leadership recruitment, poverty reduction.

1. Introduction

It is no longer news that more than half of the Nigeria's population lives on less than $2 per day and majority of these set of people lives at the rural areas, where poverty is more severe (absolute). After two decades of a return to democratic governance, the grassroots populace has continued to live on the fringe of starvation, destitution and where there is lack access to good schools, health care, electricity, safe water and other social services and infrastructure are limited. As World Bank (2019:14) has observed, poverty in 2016 was significantly higher in rural areas of the country with an estimated 64 percent of all poor people living in rural areas, while 52 percent of the rural population lives below the poverty line. Contrastingly, the poverty rate in urban areas remained stable at 16 percent between 2011 and 2016.

Despite the various initiatives and programmes instituted to develop and move rural dwellers from abject poverty and squalor to prosperity, as well as rural development approaches and strategies adopted by the successive governments since 1999 to address the rising trends of poverty which has been the bane of socio-economic development at the grassroots level, yet poverty remains unabated due to its dire social service delivery outcomes, lack of basic infrastructure, politics, weak governance, poor quality of education, and lack of political will and insincerity on the part of political leaders to tackle poverty (Alechenu, Chiedozie, Nwogu & Isenyo, 2020; World Bank, 2019).

However, accusing fingers are pointed at leadership recruitment process. Scholars have argued that there have been crisis of acceptable pattern of leadership recruitment process that produces leaders with capability to make life comfortable for the poor

masses at all levels of government and particularly at the grassroots level (Ekundayo, 2017; Odisu, 2017). As Ajayi (2004) has noted, leadership is a core ingredient in organising, mobilising and inspiring societal resources, for the attainment of poverty reduction goals. According to Utomi (cited in Odisu, 2017:1), "very few people have been taking decisions over the resources of Nigeria because there had never been good elections".

Since bad elections can never enthrone credible candidates, only those with questionable character would emerge to pursue anti-people agenda (Nnadi, 2018). Consequently, successive administrations have failed to ensure that funds meant for the poor reach the masses (Alechenu, *et al.,* 2020). Hence, reducing or alleviating the dangerous trend of poverty at the grassroots level in most of the states of the Federation has remained challenging. Against the backdrop of the foregoing, this study examined leadership recruitment and poverty reduction in Lagos and Rivers states in Nigeria using mixed method design.

2. Conceptualising Leadership Recruitment

Leadership recruitment is a combination of two nuanced words with varied meanings and perspectives, depending on ideological and cultural contexts of the definer. Ogbeidi (2012:4) portrays concept of "leadership" as "a body of people who lead and direct the activities of a group towards a shared goal. It also denotes the ability to lead, direct and organise a group." Burns (1997, pp. 7-8) defines leadership, "leaders acting – as well as caring, inspiring and persuading others to act – for certain shared goals that represent the values – the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – of themselves and the people they represent." From the Burns' definition, the attributes of leaders are discernible, which shows that a leader must be caring, inspire, persuade, must act at appropriate time and represent not on his own interest but the general or national interest.

Abolurin (2012) suggests that a leader must pave way for people in order to achieve incredible success. He must be democratic and not autocratic in his style of carrying the followers along. Generally speaking, leadership has three main characteristics: leadership as an attribute of position; characteristic of a person and category of behaviour (Nwachukwu, 2007). To lead effectively, a leader must be identified with certain fundamental qualities, which include honesty, integrity, vision, communication and self-confidence (Asaju, Arome & Mukaila, 2014). However, recruitment takes place at all levels of offices. From the organisational perspective, Cole and Kelly (2011) maintain that recruitment process provides the organisation with a pool of potential qualified candidates that can fill the available job vacancies. In politics, election at both the party and national levels is the most recognised and legitimate mode of leadership recruitment. This is otherwise known as political recruitment.

Gale (2008) defines leadership recruitment as the institutional processes by which political jobs beyond the citizenship level are filled. He further stressed that political careers are patterns of incumbency in these political offices and roles. The scholar noted that political socialisation is relevant to the study of political recruitment, only insofar as it affects one's chances of being recruited or of desiring to enter into specific roles in political life. Political recruitment, according to Villarreal (2010), includes the selection process aims at filling vacancies in any political structure, which allows upward mobility in the political careers or a change of role from a non-political to a politician.

From the foregoing, leadership recruitment is the process of electing, selecting or appointing political candidates into the political leadership positions, whether at the national, state or local levels. Candidates are selected or nominated for two things: manning party offices across all the branches and chapters of political parties, and also to contest general elections. Unlike for party leadership positions, in the latter, candidates are selected by different political parties to compete in national or local elections (Udeuhele, 2015).

3. Concept of Poverty Reduction

Socio-political discourses across board have continued to be occupied by the need to fight poverty to pave way for national development. Various perceptions abounding on the concept emphasises the causes, dimensions and consequences of poverty on the people, organisation(s), nation, country and the world at large. According to Okunmadewa (2001), poverty is more easily recognised than defined hence, a universally acceptable definition of the term has remained elusive. Generally, poverty is the state of one who lacks a usual or socially acceptable amount of money or material possessions. It exists when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs (*Encyclopedia Britannica*, *n.d.*). Chen (2019) provides that poverty-stricken people are those without proper housing, clean water, healthy food, and medical attention. Poverty is a state or condition

which characterises a person or group of people as lacking financial resources and essentials of life to enhance a better standard of living. It involves a situation where such person or community has a record of low income level and inability to have provision of basic human needs, such as food, shelter and clothing.

The above definitions among several others view poverty in socio-economic terms. Although, the level at which one is poor might be difficult to measure, poverty is a difficult issue to overcome because it is often passed from one generation to another. In economic term, poverty is measured when particular person(s) earns less than $1.90 a day. Poverty can be chronic or transitory, relative or absolute. Relative poverty views poverty as the inability of an individual to attain a socially acceptable minimum standard of living; while absolute poverty is of the view that there is a minimum income that is necessary for the survival and physical efficiency of every individual in life (Rosenje & Moliki, 2016; World Bank, 2001).

However, the World Bank's definition goes beyond the amount of money a person or family earns to cover a more comprehensive and all-encompassing definition. According to the Bank, poverty is hunger, lack of shelter, being sick and not being able to see a doctor, not having access to school and not knowing how to read, losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water, as well as powerlessness, and lack of representation and freedom. This definition encompasses living conditions, an inability to meet basic needs because food, clean drinking water, proper sanitation, education, health care and other social services are inaccessible (Compassion, *n.d.*, World Bank, 2001).

Ebong (1991) cited in Antai and Anam (2014) opines that poor rural areas are characterised by lack of basic infrastructures, poor access roads, a dirge of educational facilities, lack of pipe borne water, inequality, low per capita income, and high unemployment, among others. In addition, they are also characterised by poor health care delivery, lack of basic nutrition, inadequate housing, social discrimination and inadequate/ineffective channels through which concerns can be voiced (Esema, 2007). Over the years, successive governments worldwide have formulated, designed and implemented myriad of programmes, policies and reforms aimed at alleviating poverty and to transform the vast rural areas into the mainstream of national development.

International Labour Organisation (n.d.) defines poverty reduction to include the continued improvements of the infrastructure assets and economic growth in a country that are fundamental to and rural development. In the view of Achimugu, Abubakar, Agboni and Orokpo (2012:79), poverty reduction strategy is "the bulk of policies and strategies pursued by government, in active partnership with civil society, the organised private sector and other stakeholders towards the systematic tackling of poverty." Poverty reduction is a set of measures both economic and humanitarian that are intended to permanently lift people out of poverty. Egbefo (2015) submits that any attempt at tackling the menace of poverty must focus largely on the local communities because grassroots development is a major vehicle for poverty eradication in Nigeria.

4. Modes of Leadership Recruitment Process in Nigeria

Nigeria is a multiparty state with election being conducted every four years into the Presidential, National Assembly, Governorship and House of Assembly's public offices. Leadership recruitment in Nigeria, as in other democratic societies, is achieved through election. Political leaders are recruited through the primaries and general elections. Broadly conceived, election refers to the process of elite selection by the mass of the population in any given political system. Elections afford the freedom to choose candidates to manage their affairs and give candidates the opportunity to canvass for the votes of the electorate in a free and fair contest (Egwemi, 2013).

According to INEC Nigeria (2015), political parties conduct primaries to enable them democratically elect candidates who will represent the political parties at various elective posts during election. Here, political party is considered a central actor in the recruitment process. Party enforces the recruitment of political leaders through competition with other nominated candidates. The process is mainly determined by party's internal rules and procedures. In some political parties, the selection of candidate is centralised, while participatory in others. Candidates selected through primary elections will be able to participate in general elections with other contending candidates from different political parties (Bille, 2001). However, political parties recommend the selected candidates through primaries or consensus to the electoral management body, the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC). The electoral umpire therefore screens the candidates recommended by the party, approve their candidacy, and print their names on the ballot paper (ACE Encyclopedia, *n.d.*) for the purpose of general elections.

A thorough examination of the primary elections conducted since 1999 in Nigeria's political parties, reveal that virtually all these elections failed to pass the credibility test. These elections were conducted in a secret manner that not only restrict members of the party to participate, but also did not extensively followed legal frameworks guiding primaries and candidate selection (Adekeye & Ambali, 2017; Ayomola, 2015; Udeuhele, 2015). This is the reason why emphasis is often placed on effective and efficient party internal democracy during the selection process.

However, elections conducted since 1964 till 2015, have been questioned for lacking credibility (Dauda, Efundowo & Oyekanmi, 2018). The history of elections in Nigeria has been characterised by massive frauds, intimidation and even assassination of political opponents (Okoye, 2011; Nwanegbo, 2015). It has also been revealed that Nigeria's previous elections were characterised by attacks on INEC facilities, abuse of electoral and security officials, assassination of political opponents, intimidation of voters, snatching of election materials, abduction and attacks on opposition candidates/party members, supporters and the electorate, as well as pre and post-election violence (Jega, 2012). It is also glaring from the recent and past elections in Nigeria, that whenever election is approaching, political parties wallow in diverse intra and inter-party crises, leading to defection and counter-defection of party members (Moliki, 2018; Oni & Abioye, 2014).

5. Poverty as the Bane of Development at the Grassroots Level in Nigeria

The incidence of poverty has assumed a frightening dimension in Nigeria. In spite of its abundant human and natural resources, and government's annual budgetary allocations towards programmes aimed at reducing poverty in the country, the poverty rate has always been on an ascending trend (Rosenje & Moliki, 2016). Egbefo (2015) observes that the Nigeria poverty situation, be it at the state and local government levels, however, presents itself as a paradox in the sense that the country is richly endowed in both human and material resources yet its people remains among the poorest people in the world.

According to Sam (2014), there have been attempts by successive regimes in Nigeria towards poverty reduction and grassroots development. Prominent among these programmes have been identified to, include, National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) and the Nigeria Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) in 1972, Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) in 1976, Green Revolution (GR) in 1979, Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI) in 1986, Better Life Programme (BLP) and National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in 1987, Family Support Programme (FSP) and the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) in 1993.

Others include National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) to replace the previously failed Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) in 2001, Integrated Community Development Project (ICDP), and Local Economic Empowerments and Development Strategy (LEEDS) in 2004, National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) in 2004, National Fadama Development Projects in 2005, Subsidy Reinvestment & Empowerment Programme (Sure-P) in 2012, Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWin) in 2012, and GEEP FarmerMoni, Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) and N-Power scheme since 2016. All these are meant to achieve poverty reduction through wealth creation, employment generation and value re-orientation at the rural areas. Unfortunately, most of these programmes have not been able to radically change the poor standard of living of rural dwellers (Paul, Agba & Chukwurah Jr, 2014; Rosenje & Moliki, 2016).

However, poverty has remained pervasive in almost all the local communities in Nigeria. Over the years, grassroots development has been neglected. Rural areas are regarded as abodes of diseases, superstition, poverty, lethargy, low income and low productivity. This problem, which is policy action towards rural transformation, is responsible for the poor state of affairs among rural dwellers in Nigeria. Government is virtually concerned with urban development and urban renewal programmes to the neglect of the rural areas (Eteng, 2006). Despite the purported concerted efforts of the government at combating poverty in Nigeria, poverty alleviation programmes have consistently failed to achieve the desired objectives (Adesopo, 2008; Ovwasa, 2000; Rosenje & Moliki, 2016). Instead, it has instituted the replication of mass poverty in the country.

6. Theoretical Framework

Elitism is adopted as the theoretical explanation to situate the connection between leadership recruitment and poverty reduction in the selected states in Nigeria. The major exponents of the elitism theory include Vilfredo Pareto, Gaetano Mosca and Robert

Mitchels. Elitism theory emphasises that the society and powers are largely determined by a small group of people with overriding monopoly of power and exceptional abilities to influence the governed. These elites abound in all societies and are always powerful with wherewithal to secure power, perpetuate it and rule (Friedrich, 2014; Okonofua, 2013). In the argument of Robert Mitchels, one of the exponents of elitism, political leaders form cohesive groups because they recognise that this improves their chances of remaining in power, while rank and file of their members tend to be apathetic to the needs of the masses (governed) (Mazi Mbah, 2007). Thus, oligarchy is a concentration of entrenched illegitimate authority and/or influence in the hand of a minority, such that *de facto* what the minority wants is generally what comes to pass even when it goes against the wishes of the majority (Suleiman, 2011).

However, Diah (2017:33) critique that the elites are a core group of people who occupy key positions of power and influence, and set the direction for the whole country, but lack political will. Hence, the Nigerian political elites or better still, governing elites, from the time of political independence till the current democratic dispensation, are sentimental, uncontrollably dependant, greedy and materialistic, thereby contributing immensely to the underdevelopment of Nigeria's nation states. In the recent time, there are increasing attentions on the need to elect good leaders with capacity to engender good governance and service delivery, enhance economic growth, promote development and ensure poverty reduction (Mkapa, 2008).

However, the question of absence of committed leadership capable to initiating socio-economic development programmes aimed at eradicating poverty at the grassroots level has remained unanswered in Nigeria, perhaps, due to the nature of Nigeria's electoral process which have been characterised by massive irregularities, such as excessive militarisation, electoral rigging, ballot stuffing, monetised politics and vote-buying. No wonder did Ijewereme and Dunmade (2014) argues that the process of enthroning leaders in Nigeria is bedeviled with crisis and it does not provide room for morally upright, competent, visionary leaders to emerge.

In the opinion of Alfa, Otaida and Audu (2014:103), various poverty alleviation programmes have been formulated and implemented in Nigeria but with minimal success. This is because some of these programmes "are not realistic" while the masses and the poor for whom the programmes are designed to cater for are not adequately consulted, but were foisted on them. According to Rosenje and Moliki (2016), some of these poverty reduction programmes were not properly monitored. Also, the poor who are the beneficiaries of the programmes were not properly targeted. As a result, the elites who are in charge of implementing these programmes, only benefits their cliques, relatives, party members and cronies, and moreover, the programmes have only benefited those who designed and implemented them. As such, most of these poverty alleviation programmes have remained fundamentally weak, defective and failed, with consequences on widespread extreme poverty at the grassroots level.

7. Research Methods

The study employed mixed methods design which combined the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. The study population included the residents of twelve local government areas in Lagos and Rivers states. The sample size of the study was 914 calculated using Cohen's (1988) sampling formula at 99% confidence level. The respondents were drawn through multi-stage sampling technique. In the first stage, the existing three Senatorial districts in both Lagos and Rivers states were purposively identified. This is followed by the selection of six local government areas (LGAs) from the three districts using purposive sampling technique. Then, five political wards from each LGA were randomly selected using stratified sampling technique. Above all, simple random sampling technique was adopted to select the target respondents. The instruments of data collection included validated questionnaire, interview guide and focus group discussion (FGDs) guide. The response rate was 98%. Thirty interviews and twelve FGDs were conducted with participants drawn from the residents of the grassroots, legal and medical professions, academia, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), political actors, retirees, farmers, artisans, traders, change agents, community heads/leaders, and other members of local government areas in Lagos and Rivers states. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics of simple percentages, mean and standard deviation while qualitative data were content analysed.

8. Findings and Discussions

Table 1: Responses on Questionnaire Items on Leadership Recruitment and Poverty Reduction at the Grassroots Level in Lagos and Rivers states

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	S.D.
1.	Rural development is a major vehicle for poverty reduction in selected states.	444 (49.3%)	336 (37.3%)	336 (37.3%)	16 (1.8%)	3.34	0.75
2.	Poverty reduction programmes in selected states failed to succeed due to bad leadership.	402 (44.7%)	384 (42.7%)	92 (10.2%)	22 (2.4%)	3.30	0.75
3.	A poor leadership selection process would exacerbate poverty rate rather than curbing it.	408 (45.3%)	354 (39.3%)	120 (13.3%)	18 (2.0%)	3.28	0.77
4.	Majority of the people at the grassroots level remains poor due to corrupt leadership.	416 (46.2%)	348 (38.7%)	112 (12.4%)	24 (2.7%)	3.28	0.78
5.	Leadership recruitment determines effort of political leaders at reducing poverty.	384 (42.7%)	386 (42.9%)	108 (12.0%)	22 (2.4%)	3.26	0.76
6.	Rural development integrated approaches to poverty reduction failed due to poor leadership recruitment process.	367 (40.8%)	419 (46.6%)	90 (10.0%)	24 (2.7%)	3.25	0.74
7.	An imposed leader would find it difficult to alleviate the sufferings of the masses at the grassroots level.	392 (43.6%)	364 (40.4%)	110 (12.2%)	34 (3.8%)	3.24	0.81
8.	Poor leadership recruitment process affect anti-poverty programmes instituted to combat poverty at the grassroots level.	374 (41.6%)	388 (43.1%)	104 (11.6%)	34 (3.8%)	3.22	0.80
Average mean						**3.27**	**0.77**

Decision: *It has been adjusted that means score of = 3.0 and above is significant.*

Source: *Field Survey, 2019/2020*

Table 1 shows the opinion of the respondents on the effects of leadership recruitment on poverty reduction at the grassroots level in Lagos and Rivers states. The table above shows that 49.3% of the respondents strongly agree that rural development is a major vehicle for poverty eradication in Nigeria, 37.3% agree, 37.3% disagree, while 1.8% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.34 and 0.75, respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents see rural development as a major vehicle for poverty eradication in Nigeria. The table also shows that 44.7% of the respondents strongly agree that poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria failed to succeed due to bad leadership, 42.7% agree, 10.2% disagree, while 2.4% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.30 and 0.75 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents see failure in poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria as a result of bad leadership. The table also shows that 45.3% of the respondents strongly agree that a poor leadership selection process would exacerbate poverty level rather than curbing it, 39.3% agree, 13.3% disagree, while 2.0% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.28 and 0.77 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the view that poor leadership selection process would exacerbate poverty level rather than curbing it.

Table 1 also shows that 46.2% of the respondents strongly agree that majority of people at the grassroots level still remains poor due to corrupt leadership, 38.7% agree, 12.4% disagree, while 2.7% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.28 and 0.78 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the opinion that poverty at the grassroots level is as a result of corrupt leadership. The table also shows that 42.7% of the respondents strongly agree that leadership recruitment determines effort of political leaders at alleviating poverty, 42.9% agree, 12.0% disagree, while 2.4% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.26 and 0.76 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the view that leadership recruitment determines effort of political leaders at alleviating poverty.

Table 1 also shows that 40.8% of the respondents strongly agree that rural development integrated approach to poverty alleviation failed due to poor leadership recruitment process, 46.6% agree, 10.0% disagree, while 2.7% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.25 and 0.74 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the opinion that failed rural development integrated approach to poverty alleviation was as a result of poor leadership recruitment process. The table also shows that 43.6% of the respondents strongly agree that an imposed leader would find it

difficult to alleviate the sufferings of the masses at the grassroots level, 40.4% agree, 12.2% disagree, while 3.8% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.24 and 0.81 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the belief that imposed leader will find it difficult to alleviate the sufferings of the masses at the grassroots level. Furthermore, the table also reveals that 41.6% of the respondents strongly agree that poor leadership recruitment process affect anti-poverty programmes instituted to combat poverty at the local level, 43.1% agree, 11.6% disagree, while 3.8% strongly disagree. The mean and standard deviation are 3.22 and 0.80 respectively. This implies that on the average the respondents are of the conviction that poor leadership recruitment process affects anti-poverty programmes instituted to combat poverty at the local level.

The implication of the foregoing results is that leadership recruitment process to a great extent determines success or otherwise of poverty reduction/alleviation programmes at the grassroots level in the Lagos and Rivers states. When the leadership recruitment process is poor, resulting in the emergence of leaders who lack the vision to effectively combat poverty, it reflects in the failure of the poverty reduction programmes in such local governments.

The interviewees expressed their opinions on how leadership recruitment has affected poverty reduction at the grassroots level in Lagos and Rivers states. A resident of a community in Ikorodu area noted that the successful implementation of poverty eradication programmes depends on the leadership himself. Most of the poverty alleviation programmes embarked upon by the government has not been able to eradicate poverty at the rural areas due to wrong priority. The priority of the government has been those who belong to their political parties and not the poor *per se* (Mukaila in an interview conducted at Ikorodu on 10/12/2019).

Most of the interviewees in the two states stated that it is undisputable that a leader that is imposed cannot do outside the wishes and decisions of the godfathers. At the grassroots level, it is common among the politicians to give people little money in the name of poverty alleviation or empowerment that will bring them out of misery. Some of them stated that in their local governments, people had not enjoyed sustainable poverty reduction programmes. They pointed out that most of the political leaders at the grassroots level make false promises during their electioneering campaigns. When elected into office they do not fulfill their campaign promises regarding alleviation of poverty at the grassroots. Many of the interviewees posited that poor leadership recruitment had affected programmes instituted to combat poverty at the grassroots level. Some of the poverty reduction programmes could not stand the test of time due to the challenges of leadership, corruption and other institutional failures.

As pointed out by an educator and also a business man, electoral corruption is responsible for the poor service delivery at the grassroots (Uzokpe, in interview conducted at Ikwerre on 27/11/2019). During elections, everybody is compromised. From the electoral management body (EMB) officials, to the security agents, and election observers, the story is same. Due to corrupt officials who decide to compromise the process as a result of bribery by politicians, the mantle of leadership is given to a wrong person. Hence, leaders with no mercy found their ways into public offices. Thus, the poor are at the receiving end. Poor leadership at the helms of affair widens the gap between the rich and the poor.

Majority of the interviewees from the two selected states noted that the government paid a lip service to the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes at the local government areas. Some of the implemented ones however have not been targeted to meet with the needs of the beneficiaries. The beneficiaries of most of the poverty reduction or alleviation programmes are not poor. While those that are poor are manipulated. This situation remains so because of poor leadership recruitment process in Nigeria.

The discussants in the FGDs conducted in Lagos and Rivers identified some of the effects of leadership recruitment on poverty reduction to include poor actualisation of the programmes, lack of continuity of the programme, target of wrong beneficiaries of the programme, and misplacement of priority, among others.

However, as indicated in the FGDs, the fight against poverty had been a serious issue that is yet to be resolved in Nigeria. From the responses of the discussants, apparently rural populace is starving and poor thus in need of government's intervention to ease their sufferings. The avalanches of poverty alleviation programmes designed by the government aimed at improving socio-economic conditions of the people have been found not to be successful. One of the problems responsible for this is leadership challenge. Poverty has remained pervasive at the grassroots level in the selected states.

Most discussants believed that bad leadership could be blamed for the failure of some of the poverty alleviation programmes by both the government and NGOs. One of the members of an NGO, talked about how government policy has affected the programme embarked upon to assist the people at the rural areas. They were summoned and asked to stop simply because of politics. One thing they noted was that the owner of the NGO is not in the same political party the leader belongs to. This is one of the myriad of challenges facing such programmes. Aside that, most of the programmes are too politicised to the extent that the failure outshine the success whereas they claims they have done this and that, but in actual fact, they achieved little.

In contrary, it was revealed from the responses of two discussants that leadership recruitment does not portend threat to poverty alleviation programmes as this depends on the nature and character of the leader himself. If the leader is good, knowledgeable and have fear of God, he should be able to carry out programmes that will have positive influence on the people. For instance, in Lagos State, people who gain from the programmes of government are not the APC alone since 1999. Both the APC and PDP members enjoy the programmes without discrimination or marginalisation.

Besides, some discussants believed that the poverty reduction programmes were politicized to the effect that areas that were identified as strongholds of the opposition parties in the states were deprived the necessary poverty reduction intervention programmes. In the implementation of poverty reduction programmes, communities/wards that voted against the party in power in the last election are sidelined. They stated that poor leadership recruitment is dangerous to achievement of any good programmes especially the one that is aimed at eradicating poverty at the grassroots level.

The findings of this study are in agreement with earlier studies that leadership failure is among the reasons for the failure of poverty reduction programmes in Nigeria (Rosenje and Moliki 2016; Egbefo 2015; Paul, *et al.*, 2014; Tela 2014; Adesopo 2008; Mkapa 2008; Ovwasa 2000; Wara, Ilaboya & Hymore n.d.). For instance, Balogun (2004) posited that unequivocal leadership is imperatively needed in replacing poverty alleviation preoccupation with the wealth creation hence effective leadership is required in all the tiers of government to transform our resources into more wealth.

Earlier studies also found that most past poverty reduction programmes were not able to curb the rate of poverty in Nigeria, because of the poverty reduction strategies employed by past administrations (Nwogwugwu & Odedina 2018; Rosenje & Moliki 2016). In this same vein, Ovwasa (2000), Adesopo (2008), and Rosenje & Moliki (2016), have also concurred that poverty alleviation programmes have consistently failed to achieve desired objectives. Similarly, Ahmed (2007) cited in Egbefo (2015) noted that poverty rate in the rural areas has become a common phenomenon that it is almost becoming an accepted factor of life because of poor leadership. Paul, *et al.,* (2014), subscribed that none of the poverty alleviation programmes have been able to radically change the poor standard of living in rural communities.

Tela (2014) posited that bad leadership is responsible for the poverty incidence in Nigeria which has assumed a different dimension. He identified that the actualisation of poverty alleviation programmes depends on sound leadership void of corruption and depth of policies and strategies designed to tackle poverty (effective policy measures). Egbefo (2015) observed that the Nigeria poverty situation, be it at the state and local government levels, however, presents itself as a paradox in the sense that the country is richly endowed in both human and material resources yet its people remains among the poorest people in the world. Odisu (2017) argued that poor leadership recruitment has created social stratification in Nigeria.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study concluded that poor leadership recruitment process has negatively affected efforts at reducing poverty rate at the grassroots level in the two selected states, as the low quality of leadership that emerged in most of the local governments resulted in haphazard implementation of poverty reduction programmes, which exacerbated poverty instead of ameliorating it in most of the local governments. Based on the above findings, this study therefore recommends the following:

- There is an urgent need to ensure the credibility, transparency and fairness of modes of leadership recruitment, such as primary and general elections in Nigeria.
- The patterns of leadership recruitment in Nigeria should be repositioned for effective delivery. Perhaps, a major recommendation in this regard is that the electoral law provisions should be amended to pave way for independent candidacy during election.

- It is also recommended that political parties should allow a free, fair and credible process of electing leaders. Party primaries should be conducted in a transparent, free, fair and credible manner.
- It has been established that leadership recruitment has endangered the implementation of poverty reduction programmes at the grassroots level in selected states. Therefore, it is incumbent on the current administrations in both states to take urgent steps towards implementing sustainable poverty eradication programmes that will be effectively monitored thereby improving the standard of living of grassroots populace.
- Finally, the electoral umpire should be strengthened for an improved management of the electoral process.

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Intra-Party Crises, Defections and Electoral Performance in 2015 General Elections in Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The paper assessed the effects of intra-party crises and defections on party performance during the 2015 General Elections in Kwara State, North-central Nigeria. Data obtained from secondary sources were content analysed. The paper observed that there has been unmanageable trend of internal crises within the Nigeria's political parties in contemporary times, gradually polarising and distorting party politics. Series of these internal squabbles seemingly uncontrollable have contributed to the conundrums of defections experienced in the major and minor political parties in most states of the federation, Kwara State, inclusive. So alarming is the situation that elections are competed for like warfare with consequences for electoral outcomes. Our major findings indicated that patron-client politics, factionalism, poor party internal democracy and ideologies, money politics, and overambitious character of party leadership occasioned intra-party crises and defections in Kwara State. It further established that intra-party feuds and defections within the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) towards the 2015 General Elections led to its woeful performance while conversely contributed largely to the brilliant performance of the All Progressives Congress (APC) in the elections. The paper concluded that party members should be enlightened on moral politics, internal democracy and Inter-Party Advisory Council (IPAC) should be strengthened with a view to timely engaging the political actors involved in internal crisis and resolve their disagreements amicably.

Keywords: Defection, Internal Crisis, Party Politics, Performance, Kwara Politics

1. Introduction

Partisan politics, since 1999, when Nigeria transited to democratic governance, has been characterised by strained relations and polarisation, culminating in a fastidious tensions and crises in the polity. This is because politics and elections in Nigeria are pursued with deadly seriousness thus making political activities to becoming brutal, conflict-prone and violent-ridden, to the extent that persistent internal face-offs distressing both ruling and opposition parties, have considerably continued to threaten free, fair and peaceful election, as well as stable polity. The nature and character of party politics in the current Republic indicate that the manner at which political parties operate is worrisome due to lack of internal democracy and paucity of viable ideology (Moliki, 2018).

Dearth of internal democracy has impeded party members to subscribe to and abide by the basic and universal democratic norms and principles. Adams cited in Olumide (2017, p.17), remark that "it is a pity that Nigeria's parties found themselves in a situation where party ideologies, discipline and programmes have been substituted for personal and selfish interest of ambitious politicians." He posit further that the bane of parties in the country is that they often jettison their ideology for individual self-aggrandizement. By implication, political elites have often turned electoral competition to political battles, wherein money politics largely determines the election outcome and zero-sums game and patron-client politics have replaced inclusive and transparent governance.

In the last twenty years of consistent democratic transitions, members of political parties, such as the People's Democratic Party (PDP), defunct All Nigeria's Peoples Party (ANPP), the Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN), the Labour Party (LP), the All Progressives Grand Alliance (APGA) and the All Progressives Congress (APC), among other minor ones, are at one another's jugular over issues that ought to be addressed internally and amicably. The tumultuous situation, palpable divisions and ensued crises within these parties, especially the PDP, when

2015 General Elections were approaching, at both the national and state levels; the unending face-offs between G.7 Governors, and the National Assembly members, party stalwarts and the national leadership, leading to the formation of "newPDP" (nPDP) heated the political atmosphere and this eventually led to defection of the five aggrieved governors and other party members to APC (Daniel, 2013).

Consequently, political parties in Kwara State in the build-up to 2015 General Elections were embroiled in serious intra-party crises. The crisis rocking the PDP at the national level took its toll on Kwara politics. As a result, the Kwara State Governor, Abdulfatah Ahmed, two Senators, five House of Representatives members, 22 members of the House of Assembly, 16 Local Government chairmen and their Councilors, and party chieftains and their supporters defected to APC from 2013 to 2014 (Adebowale, 2014; Daniel, 2013; Moliki, 2018; Ogunmade, Bello & Shuaibu, 2014). Against the foregoing background, this study is premised on the fact that intra-party crisis and defection at any level are a threat to electoral performance of the affected parties. The thrust of this study, however, was to examine the effects of internal crises and defections on party performance during the 2015 General Elections in Kwara State.

2. Conceptual Foundation and Methodology

Intra-party Crisis: Party politics has been bedeviled by crises in varying proportions. This is as a result of the fact that political party members engage in the scramble for the control over the distribution of power and resources, employing different strategies and means (Babatope, 2012). Eme and Anyadike (2011, p.43) describe intra-party crisis as a distress and tension created within a political party due to the inability of the party concerned to resolve and reconcile effectively its internal differences or disputes among themselves. The scholars further posit that crash opportunism, greed lust for power, lack of trust among elites coupled with animosities between godfathers and godsons are the primary reasons for the various intra-party crises in Nigerian politics.

Okonkwo and Unaji (2016), Moliki (2018) and Moliki & Dauda (2017) identify weak institutional structure, poor internal democracy, lack of political ideology, selfish interests of the party stalwarts, poor selection of candidates, inadequate party manifestoes, ethno-regional interest, godfatherism, influence of money politics and poor party leadership, as the reasons for the incessant crises within parties with the conclusion that intra-party crises are a bane to the democratic consolidation in Nigeria. Deducing from the foregoing is that intra-party crisis is an anomalous trend in contemporary party politics which has become the cankerworm in Nigeria's political parties defying every possible solution. Indeed, it has become an abnormal routine in every political party once the general elections are near. It is a precursor to division, factionalisation and defection. In other words, changes in party affiliations have often hinged on divisions and/or crises within their former parties.

Defection: Defection has been perceived by scholars as part and parcel of party politics in the developing nations, Nigeria inclusive (Aleyomi, 2013; Moliki, 2018; Ogundiya, 2011). Party defection is known by different nomenclatures, such as decamping, party switching, canoe-jumping and cross-carpeting, among others. Etymologically conceived, defection is derived from the Latin word *defectio* which means "an act of abandonment of a person or a cause to which such person is bound by reason of allegiance or duty, or to which he has willfully attaches himself" (Omilusi, 2015, p.57). Eme and Ogbochie (2014, p.22) use the term defection technically to refer to "anyone who switches loyalty to another political party or other rival faction within a political party."

Broadly conceived, Ogundiya (2011, p.202) explain defection as "the abandonment or a change of party affiliations or movement of politicians and/or political office holders either elected or appointed to an alternative party from the one under which they are elected or appointed into power or position." In Nigeria, as in other developing nations, defection occurs when the decampee feels dissatisfied and discontented with his/her former party without the defection reflecting any ideological leaning (Aleyomi, 2013). This is also buttressed in the observation made by Ogundiya (2011) that unlike the mature democracies where their philosophical basis for defection is mainly ideological and policy-oriented, the defection in the developing democracies is often devoid of ideology. This, coupled with other factors, such as weak formation of parties, lack of internal democracy, kleptocracy, godfatherism, failure to adhere to party ideologies and manifestoes, and constitutional deficiency (Agudiegwu & Ezeani, 2015), are responsible for incessant defection of politicians from one party to another. In the context of this paper, defection is conceived as the situation of abandoning the political party one originally belongs to and moving to another political party already in existence or newly formed.

Party Performance: The concept of party performance defies a straightforward interpretation or

meaning. This is because it is an emerging area of academic exploration, where scholars have provided no or little explanation of the concept. *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2005) describe performance as an act of performing, achievement, accomplishment or undertaking of a duty. Performance is associated with success, competitiveness, action, effort and progress. It has to do with the result of action and does not exist by itself. In this context, party performance refers to a situation whereby a political party performs to the expectation of the people, especially after the announcement of the election result (Moliki, 2018). To talk of party performance is to rely on the number of elective posts won during elections by each party. The implication of this is that a political party with viable ideology and working internal democracy may not be reckoned with if such party could not pull crowd and win any political seat during elections.

This paper employed documentary research method. Data were collected from secondary sources, such as textbooks, journals, articles, newspapers, and official documents, online and unpublished materials. Content analytical approach was applied to analyse the collected data, which helped us to make logical explanation on internal crises, defections and implications on party performance coherently, in addition to realistic group conflict and elite theories adopted as frameworks of analysis.

3. Theoretical Underpinnings

The theoretical constructs adopted to guide the study are realistic group conflict and elite theories. Realistic group conflict theory (RGCT) is traceable to Donald Campbell (1965) and popularised by Jackson (1993), Brief, *et al.,* (2005) and Baumeister and Vohs (2007). The theory traces the conflicts, negative prejudices and discriminations among group of people to competition for same goals and resources. It emphasise that inter and intra-group hostility arises as a result of conflicting goals and competition over limited resources, money, military protection, social status, position and political power. The struggle for power is further aggravated when feelings of resentment set in as a result of "zero-sums game" depicting a situation where once this group wins, the other lose out entirely (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Jackson, 1993).

Since different individuals and groups with varying and competing interests are differently situated within political parties, there is a very high probability that relationship between party members would be characterised by disagreements, enmity, antagonism, division and crisis. Hence, unhealthy rivalry and competition over political powers and resources among political actors within political parties have undermined political stability and peaceful party relations in Nigeria. As observed by Eme and Anyadike (2011, p.38), "the history of political parties activities since 1999 is replete with so much crisis that rather than furthering democratic ethos, have indeed become stumbling blocks to attainment of stable democratic order."

There is overwhelming evidence that prolonged internal party crisis due to struggle for political power, authority and influence prompted the exodus of defection of some party members who felt threatened and deprived of certain opportunities and privileges (Moliki, 2018). For instance, internal crises within PDP led to the defection of the nPDP members, including former Vice President, Atiku Abubakar, State Governors, Rabiu Kwankwaso (Kano), Aliyu Wammako (Sokoto), Murtala Nyako (Adamawa), Rotimi Amaechi (Rivers) and Abdulfatah Ahmed (Kwara) in November 2013 (Tukur, 2015).

Elite theory is another theoretical proposition relevant to this study. Elite theory was originally propounded by Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923) and Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941). Other views on elite theory are derived from these scholars' writings. Pareto believes that any society is organised into two strata: an *upper stratum* - the elite; and a *lower stratum* - the non-elite. To him, elites are those persons who are recognised to be outstanding with extraordinary qualities and as such are considered the leaders in a given field of competence. They comprises the governing elite who directly play some considerable part in government or wear appropriate labels of political offices, and non-governing elite - those people who influences larger part of government's decisions and actions.

Mosca, on the other hand, classifies the composition of society into the rulers and ruled. He asserts that whatever form of government in existence, power would reside in the minority who forms the ruling class. He describes the ruling elites as those that are highly esteemed and influential in the society. He believes that the minority rules over the majority by the fact that it is organised and composed of superior individuals with leadership qualities. Thus, there is a general agreement between Pareto and Mosca on the elite as a minority which rules the majority and that the ruling class has the direct influence over the decision-making process of any kind. These elites control public utility services, own private property, control means of production and distribution, and

powerful religious and democratic institutions (Mondal, 2015; Mukhi, 2008).

The utility of elite theory to the current study suggests that political party as one of the democratic institutions play a very effective and decisive role in the process of decision making in the democratic societies, such as Nigeria. Thus, political elites see political parties as manipulative devices that can be used to preserve elite's domination of state resources and their allocations. This explains the character of party leaders and executives, presidency, state governors and party patrons, who dictates and directs the party affairs to promote and protect their selfish aggrandizement. It is obvious that in every political party, there exist party financiers and national leaders. These are power brokers who determines who gets party tickets or who rides on the back of the party to win any political post. Their activities and decisions, include but not limited to imposition of candidate(s), hijack of party structure and dictatorial tendencies, purposely causing tension, division and promote factions within parties and encouraging internal crisis and defection, when the struggle become tensed between them and the new rising elites.

Buttressing the above submission, Azeez and Adenuga (2015) contend that political parties are often influenced in order to promote elite circulation and interests of political elites. Parties in the current republic have been characterised by series of disagreements and squabbles between political actors and sometimes between godfathers and godsons, which have invariably led to constant trend of "survival of the fittest". As a result, members of the political parties switch parties or form new ones, to gain access to petro-rents and political privileges. This explains what was responsible for series of internal crises and the defections that eventually followed in the PDP and APC in Kwara State between 2013 and 2015.

4. Kwara State and 2015 General Elections: An Overview

Kwara State is one of the states in the North-Central geo-political zone of Nigeria created on 27th May 1967, when the Federal Military Government of General Yakubu Gowon broke the old four regions (the North, West, Mid-West and East) and constituted the Federation into twelve (12) States. By the return to democracy in May 29 1999, out of the three existing political parties, Kwara State government was under the All People's Party (APP) platform. In the April 1999 elections, Rear Admiral Mohammed Lawal was elected as the Governor under the umbrella of the APP. In the 2003 General Elections, Abubakar Saraki was the elected Governor of Kwara State, under the platform of PDP, the position he held till May 29 2011. In 2011 gubernatorial election, Abdulfatah Ahmed was elected the Governor of the State, and he was re-elected in 2015. Since 1999, three political parties, namely: APP/ANPP, PDP and APC, had been the ruling parties in the state.

The 2015 General Elections were the fourth general election to be held since Nigeria returns to democratic rule in 1999. The elections (Presidential and National Assembly) and (Governorship and State Assembly), were slated for February 14, 2015 and February 28, 2015, respectively. Unfortunately, the elections were postponed for some notable reasons. Thus the major reason given for the postponement was security challenges facing the northern part of the country. This was emphasized in a letter written by the then National Security Adviser (NSA), Col. Sambo Dasuki, to the INEC Chairman, Prof. Attahiru Jega, on 4th February, 2015. It was stressed that the security services needed at least six weeks within which to conclude a major military operation against the Boko Haram insurgency in the North-East region, hence the military would be concentrating its attention in the theatre of operations, such that they might not be able to provide the traditional support they render to the Nigeria Police Force and other agencies during elections (Abayomi & Osimen, 2015; Jega, 2015).

Expectedly, the stakes in the 2015 General Elections were particularly high due to intense competition between the newly merged APC and the then ruling PDP. Benneth (2014) note that the emergence of a 'grand' opposition party, APC, which is the result of a merger between the Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN), the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), the All Nigerian People's Party (ANPP), and faction of the All Progressive's Grand Alliance (APGA), targeted at supplanting the PDP, made the contest more intense. Moreso, internal party issues, became another cause of concern for most party patrons, public affairs analysts and keen watchers.

The 2015 General Elections were eventually held on 28th March 2015 and 11th April 2015, for the national elections (National Assembly and Presidential) and the state elections (Governorship and State Assembly), respectively. The PDP which has been the ruling party since 1999 at the national level faced its toughest opposition in the APC which was formed on February 6 2013. The 2015 General Elections were historic for the introduction of an electronic accreditation process, which in spite of the challenges encountered, seemed to have remarkably increased the credibility of the country's election administration process. The elections witnessed the use of Smart Card Reader (SCR) for the

authentication of biometric Permanent Voters' Cards (PVCs) and accreditation of voters. As Dauda (2016) has observed, the conduct of the 2015 General Elections marked a turning point in the annals of electoral management in Nigeria. The elections were largely seen as transparent, free and fair by both the local and international observers compared to the previous elections.

5. Internal Crisis, Defection and Politics of 2015 General Elections in Kwara State: Cases and Causes

Political activities in Kwara State have never been tensed as the one witnessed in the build-up to the 2015 General Elections. This may be traced to the product of political space that has pervaded the State for several years. Although it was easy to locate the source of that conflict, yet it has been so difficult to find solution. Kwara State became a conflict-prone state and its resources were frittered away on the altar of resolving the squabbles. Therefore, this section will look at the cases and causes of internal wrangling within the PDP and APC in the State and their linkage with the politics of the 2015 General Elections.

PDP since its inception in Kwara State has moved from one crisis to the other. It was initially bedevilled by leadership crisis, then controversy over the alleged moves by new members to hijack its structures and later the ripples over who succeeds Governor Bukola Saraki. The party was enveloped in crisis in 2010 as regards who succeeds Bukola Saraki in the 2011 Gubernatorial Election. The crisis began when on September 18, 2010, at a rally, elder Saraki declared his daughter, Senator Gbemisola, representing Kwara Central Senatorial District, as the next governor. Some of the members of PDP, including members of the National Assembly, 18 of 24 lawmakers in the State House of Assembly and local government chairmen attended the rally. The same day, Isiaka Danmairomo, the then PDP Publicity Secretary, in a statement, said: "the leadership of the party was not aware that any candidate had been endorsed." He added that "the guideline for the emergence of party's flag-bearer either as president, governor and other political offices released and sent to all states would be religiously adhered to" (Abimboye, 2010).

This surprising declaration threw off balance all permutations in the "The State of Harmony". Bukola Saraki, the then Governor, was opposed to the plot to install his sister as Governor. Indeed, some PDP members under the aegis of "Aggrieved Delegates of Kwara PDP" and loyalists of the patriarch accused the governor of hijacking the party machinery in the State to subvert his father's plan. Bayero Ahmed, the group's leader said the Governor was persecuting his group for its support for Gbemisola in the 2011 General Elections (Abimboye, 2010). During this period, PDP was polarised and all efforts to reconcile the warring factions proved abortive.

The crisis in the PDP at the national level in 2012-2013 equally affected Kwara State's PDP chapter. On August 31 2013, during the National Convention of PDP, seven State Governors, party chieftains, National Assembly members, the delegates from these States and their supporters walked out of the Convention ground. On November 26 2013, the incumbent Governor, Abdulfatah Ahmed, informed the public of his defection to APC. By February 2014, the two Senators, including Senator Bukola Saraki, the House of Representative members representing the State, party stalwarts, including Kawu Baraje, 22 members of the House of Assembly, 16 Council Chairmen and their Councilors, along their supporters defected to APC (Adebowale, 2014; Moliki, 2018; Ogunmade, *et al.*, 2014).

Similarly, over 2,000 youths under the aegis of Mohammed Dele Belgore (MDB) Solidarity Team who were primarily from Ilorin West Local Government Area defected from PDP to the ruling APC on 26th September 2014. The defectors hinged their defection on leadership crises, misappropriation of party funds by PDP State Executives and inaccessibility to Mr. Dele Belgore, who was nursing gubernatorial ambition under the umbrella of PDP in the 2015 General Elections. In what can be referred to as counter-defection, Mr. Belgore defected from APC to PDP in February 2014 (*Ilorin Info*, February 20 2014).

The APC in Kwara State, like that of other states in Nigeria equally experienced crisis of monumental proportion immediately after its emergence in 2013. The causes of this crisis are not far-fetched; these include the sharing of elective positions and control of party structures towards the 2015 General Elections. The party was factionalized. Specifically, the defection of the Saraki group to APC and the decision to take over the political control of the APC in the State, as viewed by the Belgore group, were unjust and unacceptable. After series of meetings with the national leadership of the APC to change this situation, the Belgore group later formed a new interim State Executive Council led by Rev. Bunmi Olusonna. On 20th February 2014, the former ACN Governorship candidate in the 2011 General Elections, Mr. Muhammad Dele Belgore and thousands of his supporters across the sixteen (16) Local Government Areas of the State, left APC for PDP over the alleged injustice by the APC leadership (*Ilorin Info*, February 20 2014).

Some of defection cases in Kwara State towards the 2015 General Elections are presented in the tables below:

Table 1: At the National Assembly

Name of Defectors	Office	Party before	Party defected to
Hon. Ali Ahmad	House of Rep.	PDP	APC
Hon. Ahman Bahago	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Akeem Olayinka	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Mustapha Mashood	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Ibrahim Adebayo	” ”	PDP	APC
Senator Bukola Saraki	Senate	PDP	APC
Senator Mohammed Lafiagi	” ”	PDP	APC

Source: Compiled by the Author from *Ilorin Info* (February 20 2014), Ogunmade, *et al.,* (2014) and Moliki (2018).

Table 2: Governorship and House of Assembly

Name of Defectors	Office	Party before	Party defected to
Abdulfattah Ahmed	Governor	PDP	APC
Hon. Razak Atunwa	House of Assembly	PDP	APC
Hon. Mohammed Yisa	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. AbdulKareem A.	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Audu Saidu	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Sadu Tanke	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Sikirat Anako	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Hassan Oyeleke	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Abdulkadir S. R.	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Felicia Ojeleye	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Tope Olayonu	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. David Bamidele	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Moshood O. B.	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Afolabi Giwa	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Ebun Owolabi	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Abraham A. A.	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Adamu Sabi	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Kamal Fagbemi	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Sulaimon Idris	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Raliat Adifa	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Nimota Ibrahim	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Mande Umar	” ”	PDP	APC
Hon. Haliru Idris	” ”	PDP	APC

Source: *Compiled by the Author from Adebowale (2014), Daniel (2013), and Moliki (2018).*

Table 3: Party Stalwarts and Members

Name of Defectors	Status	Party before	Party defected to
Mohammed Dele Belgore	Former ACN governorship aspirant	APC	PDP
Alhaji Abubakar Kawu Baraje	Party chieftain	PDP	APC

Source: *Compiled by the Author from Ilorin Info (February 20 2014) and Moliki (2018).*

Table 1-3 shows the summary of the defected members of the PDP and APC between 2010 and 2015 at the National Assembly, Governorship, House of Assembly and other party members in Kwara State. The crisis in PDP led to the defection of member of the Senate from the State, Senator Bukola Saraki, the incumbent Governor, Abdulfattah Ahmed, Senator representing Kwara North, Mohammed Lafiagi, five honourable members of the House of Representatives, PDP chieftain and former chairman, Kawu Baraje, 22 members of the House of Assembly from PDP to APC. The former ACN Governorship candidate in the state, Muhammed Dele Belgore later defected from APC to PDP in 2014. However, the following could be identified as causes of internal wrangling and defection saga in Kwara State during the period under review:

Patron-Client Politics: The internal crises and defections within the two dominant parties in Kwara State towards the 2015 elections cannot be dissociated from patron-client politics syndrome. Clientelistic politics has precipitated a situation in which patrons with financial powers, political structure and larger group of followers using their established relationship influence the decision-making process of political parties to favour their preferred candidates, thereby causing chaos, rancor, bitterness and acrimonious relationships, among party members. The patrons seek to be accorded enormous recognition by respecting their wishes and

decisions. In the situation where the party elements refuse such unworthy recognition, they do within their powers to divide the party.

The emergence of late Dr. Olusola Saraki in Kwara political scene in the 60s came with a brand of politics which has since become a case study for political scientists. The strongman of Kwara politics, as late Saraki was popularly called, during his lifetime provided political leadership and gave a political direction upon which Kwara thrived till his demise late 2012. His death did not toll the knell of his political philosophy and enduring followership. Senator Bukola Saraki took the mantle of political leadership, and had also risen to become a key player in the Kwara and national politics (Sambo, 2013). Thus, Kwara politics has always been influenced by patron-client politics.

Monetised Politics: There is no doubting the fact that money is needed in politics, elections and management of party activities, such as political campaigns, party elections, sponsorship of candidates, compensation of party agents, advertisement and so on (Omede, 2004). Money is always the cause of bribery and falsification of election results among other evils associated with the electoral process in Nigeria, Kwara State inclusive. Since the illegal use of money in politics belongs to the realm of the godfathers, it may be difficult for the godsons as the contending candidates vying for political offices generally to achieve success without the support of a godfather.

Over-ambition and Greed of Party Leadership: Party leadership in their over-ambition and greedy tendencies has been identified as one of the salient causes of intra-party crises and defections in Kwara State. The aggrieved PDP governors in 2013 accused the PDP national leadership of scheming and breaking party rules to hijack control of the party machinery and support for handpicked aspirants for 2015 General Elections. Moliki and Dauda (2017) and Okohue (2013) argue that PDP crises towards 2015 elections were precipitated by increasing repression, restriction of freedom of association, arbitrary suspension of members, unlawful dissolutions of party executives in some of the states of federation and other violation of democratic principles by the Bamanga Tukur-led party leadership led to defection/ cross-carpeting of five state governors, party stalwarts and serving parliamentarians as well as their supporters to APC in November 2013 (*BBC News*, November 26 2013).

Factionalism: Virtually all the political parties in Kwara State were factionalized and this threatened peace and stability of party activities in the State. The PDP was completely crippled as it was divided right down the middle by the factional fight to finish between warring factions in the party. Same later happened in APC as it was divided into two factions, along with Senator Bukola Saraki and Lai Mohammed. Factionalism was partly responsible for the different internal squabbles within the PDP and APC, and by extension, defection of members of these major political parties in the country.

Lack of Internal Party Democracy: It has been difficult to find an operational party system in Nigeria and Kwara State in particular that is anchored on effective democratic norms and principles. Virtually all the political parties of this period have failed to abide by democratic tenets. Poor selection of candidate, imposition of anointed candidates, repressive party leaders/executives, contemptible party manifesto and secrecy in party activities, and so on became the order the day in these parties. It is in line with this submission that Jibril Ibrahim posits that: *Historically, political parties got into the bad habit of refusing to practice internal party democracy because of the prevalence of the culture of electoral fraud in our history. Precisely because so many parties routinely plan to bribe, shoot and rig themselves into power, the "popularity principle" that encourages parties to play internal democracy is largely absent* (Ibrahim, 2017, p.9).

Zoning: Zoning was also responsible for the crisis that reared its ugly head in the ACN/APC, particularly preparatory to the 2015 General Elections in Kwara State. Some party members from the Kwara South Senatorial District, where Lai Mohammed hails from, did not want Belgore to be given the governorship ticket, but wanted the ticket of the party for the gubernatorial election to be zoned to the Kwara South Senatorial District. This situation split the caretaker committee of the party in the State (*Ilorin Info*, June 4 2013).

6. Effects of Internal Crises and Defections on Electoral Performance of Political Parties in 2015 General Elections

This section analyses the effects of intra-party crises and defections on electoral performance of political parties in the 2015 General Elections. It comparatively assesses the performance of the PDP and APC in Kwara State before and after the general elections, with a view to pinpoint whether the internal crises experienced in the PDP between 2012 and 2015 actually affected the party performance during the elections or otherwise. Tables 4-7 specifically present this analysis according to the available seats contested for and won during the elections.

Table 4: Governors Elected by Parties before and after 2015 General Elections

Name of Governor	Party	Tenure	Remark
Abdulfatah Ahmed	PDP	2011-2015	Elected
Abdulfatah Ahmed	APC	2015-2019	Re-elected

Source: *Moliki (2018).*

Table 4 shows that the Kwara State Governor, Abdulfatah Ahmed was elected on the PDP platform in the 2011 gubernatorial election. He was re-elected in 2015, this time not on the platform of PDP but the APC, the party he defected to in 2013 alongside other five aggrieved PDP governors. It also reveals that the PDP was in control of Kwara State before the 2015 elections, but with the crisis that rocked the party in 2013-2014 and the defections that eventually took place the party lost the seat to the APC in the 2015 gubernatorial election.

Table 5: Kwara House of Assembly by Parties before and after 2015 Elections

Political Party	Before 2015	After 2015
ACN	2	-
PDP	22	-
APC	-	24

Source: *Moliki (2018).*

Table 5 shows that 22 out of 24 seats in the Kwara State House of Assembly between 2011 and 2015 were occupied by the PDP members, depicting the PDP as the dominant party in the House, until after the 2015 elections, when the table turned to its opposite. By implication, the APC swept all the seats in the Kwara House of Assembly. This situation was believed to be the outcome of intra-party crises in the PDP at both the national and state levels prior to the elections.

Table 6: Senatorial Representations before and after 2015 General Elections

Name	Party	Before 2015	After 2015
Senator Bukola Saraki	PDP	✓	
Senator Simeon Ajibola	PDP	✓	
Senator Mohammed Lafiagi	PDP	✓	
Senator Bukola Saraki	APC		✓
Senator Rafiu Ibrahim	APC		✓
Senator Mohammed Lafiagi	APC		✓

Source: *Moliki (2018).*

As presented in Table 6, the three Senatorial districts in Kwara State before the 2015 General Elections were represented by the PDP Senators, until the unrestrained crises that erupted within the party in 2013 and which ultimately led to defections of party financiers, leaders and stalwarts to the APC. The consequence of the crises was that the PDP lost all the three Senatorial positions in the State to the APC in the 2015 General Elections.

Table 7: House of Representatives members before and after 2015 Elections

Name	Party	Before 2015	After 2015
Hon. Ali Ahmad	PDP	✓	
Hon. Ahman Bahago	PDP	✓	
Hon. Akeem Olayinka	PDP	✓	
Hon. Mustapha Mashood	PDP	✓	
Hon. Ibrahim Adebayo	PDP	✓	
Hon. Zakari Mohammed	PDP	✓	
Hon. Aliyu Ahman-Pategi	APC		✓
Hon. Razak Atunwa	APC		✓
Hon. Olarinoye Olayonu	APC		✓
Hon. Abubakar Amadu-Kannike	APC		✓
Hon. Olufunke Adedoyin	APC		✓
Hon. Aliyu Ahman Bahago	APC		✓

Source: *Compiled by the Author.*

As shown in Table 7, all the six honourable members of the House of Representatives in Kwara State were elected on the PDP platform in the 2011 General Elections; whereas the 2015 general elections saw the six seats in the House of Representatives for the state won by the APC. This huge loss can only be blamed on intra-party crises that characterised the PDP

towards the elections at both the National and State levels.

The foregoing analyses show that the crises in Kwara PDP greatly affected the party performance in the 2015 General Elections, because members were unable to work as a team, rather, each group tried to outwit and undermine one another. This simply explains the abysmal performances of the PDP in the elections. As fallout of the crisis, the party failed to win any election in the state. Subscribing to this assertion, Shittu (2017, pp.9-10) contend that,

Expectedly, the seemingly intractable crisis affected the electoral fortunes of the party in the state during the 2015 General Elections, especially that of the governorship election in which the party performed woefully and lost to the APC. The party could also not win a single seat both at the state's House of Assembly and at the National Assembly. Instead of the party to work in unity during the said election, the factions worked against each other which eventually affected the electoral success of the party in the State.

Similarly, Atiku Abubakar cited in Tukur (2015) remark that the movement of the five governors to the APC greatly enhanced the fortune of the party and led to the defeat of the PDP in the 2015 General Elections.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, we have extensively interrogated the effects of internal crises and defections on party performance with emphasis on PDP and APC during the 2015 General Elections in Kwara State. The study notes that these political parties were embroiled in serious intra-party crises in the build-up to the General Elections in the State. The crises which elicited different reactions endangered continuous harmonious relationship within the affected party thus leading to defection of embittered party members from PDP to APC. Different cases and causes of this political malady were identified. Among the causes noted include, patron-client politics that has over the years characterized Kwara politics, monetised politics, overambitious and greedy party leadership, factionalisation of parties, poor internal party democracy and zoning.

The study argues that the intermittent war and politics of acrimony among political blocs in PDP during this period affected the electoral fortunes of the party in Kwara State during the 2015 General Elections. The party performed woefully and lost the governorship, the National Assembly and the Kwara State House of Assembly seats, to APC. The study submits that the controversies within political parties distract the government from engaging in robust policies that would enhance and improve the standard of living of its people. Therefore, contemporary politicians should shun politics of the belly and concentrate more on how to ensure that the democratic institutions, such as political party, work to engender effective democratic consolidation.

In the light of the foregoing, the study makes the following recommendations:

- Enlightenment on moral politics. Party members should be enlightened on playing politics of morality as against unethical (monetised and patron-client) politics that have pervaded political landscape of Nigeria. Politicians should not only ensure that they follow the rules of the game, they must also avoid winner-takes-all character, greed, arrogance, impunity and politics of calumny.
- Strengthening of the Inter-Party Advisory Council (IPAC). The IPAC should be strengthened with a view to timely engaging the political actors involved in internal crisis in order to resolve their disagreements amicably.
- Unbundling the INEC's structure and composition. This study calls for unbundling of the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) as a prerequisite for conducting free, fair, credible and acceptable elections. Going by Prof Samuel Egwu's suggestion, this study also advocate for the need to create a new and dedicated body out of the present INEC to take care of heavy burden and responsibilities of the commission, especially in the areas of registration, regulation of political parties and prosecution of electoral offenders.
- Strict adherence to party internal democracy, party ideology and organisational effectiveness. Party leaders/executives and members need to respect internal democracy and ideological stance of their political parties. Party leadership should try to aggregate the varying interests of their members and articulate a unified front for achieving such goals. Party discipline should be strictly abided with.
- Sanction of erring politicians flouting party constitution and guidelines. In a political party with diversity of interests and ideologies, there is the tendency that some members would place their personal interests over and above their constituents'

interests. Hence, necessary measure should be put in place by both the parties and the regulatory bodies to sanction any politician found flouting the party's constitution and guidelines, as this will limit the extent of internal crises and defections being experienced in the contemporary political parties.

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Limits of External Dependence for Development in Africa

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Abstract. Most African Countries and their leaders have been facing the problem of development of their various states. This situation has led many third world countries, particularly African countries to source for foreign assistance – financially and otherwise to solve their development problems since efforts made internally have not helped matters. Before the independence of most African countries, external aid was insignificant. Thus, one of the objectives of this paper is to examine the contributions and limits of external aid in Africa's development efforts. The paper also assessed the impact of external dependence in Africa's development. The paper adopts the historical description method of analysis. The sources of data include text, journal, internet, library research and works of other scholars related to the study. The study used the dependency theory as the framework for analysis. Findings show that African countries had depended on external sources, particularly from the developed countries for their developmental needs from the early period of their independence and the conditions given by the developed countries had brought about some limitations for Africa's development. The paper, therefore, recommends that African countries must device an alternative sustainable development strategy that are less anchored on foreign sources for implementation, embark on serious regional economic integration and diversify their economies.

Keywords: Limit, External, Foreign aid, Dependence, sources, Development, Nigeria, Africa.

1. Introduction

Despite the post-independence enthusiasm of their governments, statemen, policy makers and peoples of African countries, are still faced with the dual difficulty of achieving development and to improve the standards of living of their citizens. Most of their approaches to development are hampered by limited and inadequate financial resources, lack of industrialization and technical know-how. Thus, African governments have come to see dependence on external sources (foreign aids) as a deliberate strategy to come out of this vicious circle (Adedayo, 1999). At the 1985 twenty first OAU summit it became obvious, as African heads of state declared, most National Development plans and yearly budgets have tended to perpetuate arid even accentuate economic dependency through over reliance on foreign financial, technical and human resources

External Aid prior to independence was insignificant in most African countries. Also, the decade of independence (1960s-1970s) could be described as "boom years" because many independent African countries experienced growth rates that were internally generated mostly through foreign exchange earnings from export commodities which were supplemented by official development assistance in addition to private capital inflows from the developed countries. This enabled African leaders in making some progress in providing essential services and expanding the frontiers of infrastructural facilities in the areas of education, health, roads, water supply and power generation etc. On the contrary, growth and development have been on the decline, particularly since the 1970s for many independent African countries. This was mainly due to a fall in the price of primary products at the international market within this period. For instance, the price of cocoa, a major agricultural export product in the West African sub-region fell from a peak of US$ 3,790 per ton in 1977 to US$ 1,438 per ton in 1994 while that of

crude oil, fell from US$ 35. 8 per barrel in 1980 to US$ 16.2 in 1994 (CBN in Adedayo 1999). With this turn of events, dependence on external sources in the form of loans, grants, technical assistance etc. appeared to have become necessary as a means of boosting resources for socio-economic progress. Thus, foreign aid became an important feature in the development plan and annual budget of most African countries. By the early 1970s, driven by the urge to industrialize, African countries borrowed large sums of money, at a time when the global financial market was glutted with petrodollars. Within this period (1970), Africa's total foreign debt stood at US$ 13.20 billion. But towards the end of 1980 its foreign debt skyrocketed to US$ 105.4 billion with an annual rate of increase of twenty two percent. At the end of 1989, African foreign debt had more than doubled in a decade to USS 250 billion (Would Bank cited in Nna & Igwe, 2011; Steven & Michael, 2006). Currently, most African countries are still neck deep into external dependence (foreign aid) in their pursuit for development. However, it has been argued in some quarters that external aid instead of being a solution to Africa's developmental problems has turned to be the sources of the problems. The question therefore is, at which point African countries should stop their dependence on external sources for their development? Put differently, what are the limits of external reliance for development in Africa? This is the question this paper will strive to answer. However, in doing that we will clarify concepts such as foreign aid and its types, examine the relationship between foreign aids and development and the argument for and against foreign aid. Having done these, we will then try and locate the limits of external aid reliance (foreign aids) for development in Africa.

2. Conceptual Clarification

Attempts to showcase foreign aid for development in a discrete and intelligible manner have generated a number of theoretical issues for analysis. To the Realists, for instance, aid is a policy tool that originated in the Cold War era to influence the political judgements of the recipient countries in a bi-polar struggle (Liska, 1960; Morgenthau, 1962; Hook, 1995). According to Baldwin (1966), cited in Enuka and Igwe (2012), one of the Liberal Institutionalists, foreign aid is a set of programmatic measures designed to enhance the socio-economic and political development of recipient countries. The World System Theorists see aids as a means of constraining the development path of recipient countries, promoting the unequal accumulation of capital in the world. In summary, all of these theories are of the belief that foreign aid consists of material goods or services that are owned or controlled by donors, the allocation of which may vary according to their purposes and interests.

It will not be out of place to make some necessary conceptual clarification here to enable us to understand some terms as used in this paper.

2.1 Foreign Aids

Foreign aid has, most conventionally, been defined as "all financial transactions that take place between donor and recipient nations" (Adedayo; 1999: 283). This definition has the problem of assuming that aid, for instance includes all loans with high interest rates or commercial interest rates. There has been a general consensus that loan with high interest rate and obnoxious conditions are for all theoretical purposes, outside the purview of aid or assistance (Saliu, 1999). Foreign aid is thus conceptually categorized into different components based on the extent to which it is composed, not only of commercial transaction but also of grants and loans. This is to say that aid constitutes grants, loans and technical assistance derived from governments either directly, bilaterally or multilaterally through international agencies known as Official Development Assistance (ODA) as well as grants from voluntary agencies (Adedayo, op.cit).

A grant is regarded as outright gift or pure aid since it entails neither interest nor obligation to pay back loans, on the other hand considered as aid if they are "soft" in terms of the rate of interest they attract and the period of payment.
Technical assistance is another component of foreign aid and it refers to training facilities, equipment and personnel from a donor country meant for local capacity- building in the recipient country through the training of skilled manpower, institutional building, provision of professional support and advice on policy formulation, reform and implementation (Olanrewaju in Adedayo, 1999)

2.2 Development

This is one concept that has a multiplicity of definitions and meanings. Development has been interpreted in different ways by various people. In his own analysis, Rodney (1972) sees development both from the level of the individual and that of the society as a whole. At the level of the individual, development implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being. On the level

of the Society, development cannot be seen purely as an economic affair, but rather as an overall social process which is dependent upon the outcome of man's efforts to deal with his natural environment. Smith and Todaro (2004) see development as the sustained elevation of an entire society and social system toward a "better" or more humane "life" conceding that what constitutes the good life varies with time, environment and society, even as it is a question as old as philosophy and human kind. The scholars identified and advanced three core values that should serve as a conceptual basis and practical guideline for understanding the inner making of development. These values are; life sustenance, self-esteem and freedom. For Ake (2001), development is the process by which people create and recreate themselves and their life circumstances to realize higher levels of civilization in accordance with their own choices and values. It is conceived as a multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structure, popular attitudes and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty.

Further, development has been defined as a type of social change in which new ideas are introduced into a social system in order to produce higher per capita incomes and levels of living through more modern production methods and improved social organization (Rogers 1969 cited in Obi and Nwanegbo (2006).

3. Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework as used in this paper means the examination of some theories proffered by scholars on the limits of external dependence for development in Africa to enable us to consider and select a particular theory on which to couch this study. Theoretical framework is "the main supporting parts of a building, vehicle or object or set of facts, ideas from which more complicated ideas are developed, on which decisions are made" (Biereenu-Nnabugwu 2006, p.86). The Modernization Theory and the Dependency will be briefly looked at in this paper. Some development scholars have come to equate development with Westernization, which implies that any country that is desirous of developing must struggle to be like the Western capitalist societies. These group of scholars are referred to as the **Modernization Theorists**.

3.1 Modernization Theory

One major challenge facing the world in the contemporary period particularly since the end of the Second World War is the issue of development and underdevelopment. Put differently, in line with Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2013), modernization theory represents a response or reaction to the gap between the rich and poor nations and the problems thereof.

According to Ake (2001) cited in Obi and Nwanegbo (2006:.3), *in its most common form, modernization theory posits an original state of backwardness or underdevelopment characterized by among other things, a low rate of economic growth that is at least potentially amenable to alteration through the normal process of capital. This original state of backwardness is initially universal. According to the theory, the industrialized countries have managed to overcome it. All the other countries could conceivably overcome backwardness too if they adopted appropriate strategies.*

The Modernization theory is an attempt to provide explanations and solutions to observed problems of the inequality between the nations of the world. In a nutshell, modernization theory, essentially a product of Western social science scholarship, explains why the poor countries are poor and also says what they must do to develop or be like the West. The theory equates modernization with Westernization and argues that to modernize non-western societies must imitate the West. In other words, for non-Western societies to take a leap into modernity they must fall in line behind the West in both their socio-economic and political development. Notable theorists of modernization are W.W. Rostow's (1960), The Stages of Economic Growth, Lucian Pye's (1966) Aspects of Political Development among others.

The modernization theory has not gone down well without criticisms from some scholars. One of the most remarkable criticisms against the theory is Ake's (1982) Social Science as Imperialism: Theory of Political Development. Tenas Szetes (1973) and Onigu Otite (ed. 1978) were other critics of the modernization theory. They criticized the theory for seeing the Third World as the embryonic proto-Europe.

3.2 Dependency Theory

Fernando Henrique Cardoso, a Brazilian Sociologist first coined the concept and used the term to link those who are beneficiaries of development with those who make the decision. Dependency connotes, in this sense, crucial economic decisions that are made not by the countries that are being developed but by foreigners whose interests are being carefully safeguarded. For Dos Santos (in Biereenu-Nnabugwu (2013, p.179), dependence is "a conditioning situation in which the economics of one group of

countries are conditioned by the development and expansion of others". A conditioning situation determines the limits and possibilities of action and behaviour of people as Dos Santos further explained. The main tenet of the dependency theory is that the wealth and poverty of nations of the world result from the global process of exploitation. Dependency theorists strongly believe that Third World underdevelopment is a consequence of the exploitative contact between the developed West and these countries. That underdevelopment is not an original state as modernization theorists would want us to believe- lack of technical know- how, institutionalization, differentiation, etc. The crux of the matter is that the Third World countries have been subjected to exploitation of the international capitalist system and its special imperialist agents, both domestic and alien. The dependency theory as palatable as its argument, has a major weakness arising from the fact that its critiques see it more as a critical methodology than a full theory. The theory has stimulated profound debate on the real problems of the Third World.

From the foregoing, the dependency theory is suitable for this paper as it advocates dependence on foreign aid of any kind for African countries to develop.

4. Argument For and Against External Reliance (Foreign Aid) as an Instrument for Development

Scholars have not been able to agree on the exact relationship between foreign aid and development .While liberal scholars see the relationship as positive, radical and mostly Third World scholars see it as negative and antithetical. For liberals, foreign aid (in whatever form) engenders the process of economic growth and development in the recipient country by closing the gap between available and needed resources (Saliu, 1999). In the liberal tradition foreign aid is highly regarded as bridging the gaps in production, savings, foreign exchange, investment technology and consumption, all of which have been recognized as hindering developmental efforts in developing countries, especially in Africa. Liberals view borrowing, in particular, as allowing a country to invest and consume beyond the limit of current domestic production and gain financial capital accumulation through both the mobilization of domestic savings and tapping savings from economies that have surplus capital.

This liberal argument tends to hold more so when the volume of aid is much. Some scholars have argued that increased volume of aid which is efficiently channeled to government with clear development agenda will most likely be used to improve the quality of the civil service, enhance policy and planning capacity and assist in establishing and developing strong central institutions (Brautigan and Knack, 2004).

Others like Devaranjan, Dollars, and Holmgren (2001) also posit that aid can release the binding constraints of low revenue for governments committed to development. Scholars from this persuasion supported their claims with empirical evidence from the East Asian region, where they particularly referenced South Korea and Taiwan, and in Sub-Saharan Africa, where they highlighted Botswana (Durbarry, Gemmell and Greenaway, 1998).

Conversely, radical scholars and other antagonists of foreign aid have challenged the intellectual foundations of the pro-foreign aid argument The antagonist argue that foreign aid and especially borrowing is inimical to economic growth and development in the recipient country. This is especially so when conditions are not "soft". Resultantly, they argue that foreign aid results in distortions in the domestic politics and economy of recipients such as "debt crisis", poverty, wider technological gap and disequilibrium in the foreign sector.

Again, the Mises institute has pointed out that aid can be routed to multinational companies rather than the citizens of the country that it is supposed to help. Corruption in many African countries that leads to a portion of the aid money being siphoned off into private bank accounts. It could also be a method of corruption at home Aid money once in the hands of corrupt dictators and off the stringent accounting books of western nations can be kicked back, to corrupt domestic politicians in a number of ways. And seen as an apparent act of charity. It is also less politics to scrutinize such transaction (Nna, Taylor and Igwe, 2011).

According to Graham (1989), aid is not bad, however, because it is sometimes misused, corrupt or crass; rather, it is inherently bad, bad to the bone, and utterly beyond reform. As a welfare dole to buy the repulsive loyalty of wining idle and malevolent government, or as a hidden, inefficient and inadequately regulated subsidy for western business, it is possibly the most formidable obstacle to the productive endeavours of the poor. It is also a denial of their potential, and a patronizing insult to their

unique, unrecognized abilities. Graham went further to pontificate the fact when he added that foreign aid, no matter the form in which it comes does not help ordinary people "to help themselves" and it does not promote broadly based prosperity. Instead, it systematically empowers and enriches the very forces that most efficiently stifle the initiative and resourcefulness of peasants, nomads, slum-dwellers and villagers throughout the Third World.

This is considered so because the only language capitalism (which is the driving force or philosophy behind aid) understands is exploitation of surplus value, often with cruel effects (Saliu, 1999). This exploitation associated with foreign aid sometimes manifests in the conditionalities imposed by majority of aid regimes These may include donor nations' access to recipient national decision-making processes; direct transfer of resources from the recipient country to the donors' (through repatriation); imposition of dysfunctional economic policies upon recipient and high interest rates, among others.

It is also argued that high level of aid might also hinder the efficiency and improvement of governance by weakening institutions rather than building them. In a related manner, it is also argued that high level of aid can create incentives that make it more difficult to overcome the obstructions to collective action required to build a more capable and responsive state and a more effective foreign aid system

Consequently, high level of aid may lead to aid "dependence"- which is the process by which regular and consistent provision of aid appears not to be making remarkable contribution to the achievement of self, sustaining development, or a mindset which make aid recipient lose their ability to think for themselves and thereby relinquish control.

Although each of these perspectives has its merits, this paper aligns itself with the latter perspective that sees foreign aid as counter-productive in developing economies. This position is informed by the realities of African political economies, which have, so far, been adversely effected by the dominant foreign aid regime of the economic West or global North.

5. The Limits of External (Foreign Aid) Dependence or Reliance for Development in Africa

Africa has depended on external sources for its developmental needs right from the early years of independence. The foundation of this reliance was laid during the colonial period. Ominode, (1985) has pointed out that Africa's foreign trade exhibits five major defects, which were mainly responsible for heavy reliance on external sources for its development needs. These defects, a result of the severe disarticulation and distortions of Africa's colonial economy and the late decolonization of the region include:

- High export dependence
- High concentration of a few commodities
- Low and declining terms of trade
- High instability of exports' earning due to the above factors and
- Chronic balance of payment crisis.

It was upon this porous economic foundation that many African countries got their independence, mostly in the 1960s. The implication of this negative starting position was the inability of many new African economies to cope with the neo—colonial shocks that were to come, including the internal pressures for better living conditions in the continent as promised under the anti-colonial legitimation ideologies (Eke, 1975).

As the pressure heightened, most African countries were forced by domestic politics to jump-start development projects and programmes by relying largely on external sources of funding for implementation. At the same time, to encourage economic growth, there had to be significant level of investment in the economy. This can only be made possible when and if there is an adequate investible surplus. In the absence of this surplus, alternative source of generating the needed capital must be devised, most often through external borrowing. Resultantly, African countries began to seek for and receive external funds and technical assistance to fill the savings and investment gaps. Relying on external sources (foreign aid) may not necessarily be bad for an economy. As a matter of fact, it is even seen as a good alternative to the creation of wealth during recession periods (Saliu, 1999). What is negative about foreign aid (especially borrowing) is the condition attached to the debt and grant and the cost of management of the debt. The African experience shows that it is the burden of conditions placed on foreign aids and the cost of servicing extensive borrowing that has led to the continents debt crisis This is because, African external donors and creditors have insisted on deregulation of the economy, devaluation of the local currency, and recently, political liberalization (libral democracy), which has actually undermined African economies. Worse still, poor economic management at the domestic front in the form of wasteful and unproductive expenditure,

together with mismanagement of the borrowed funds by inefficient aid corrupt public enterprises, have become a major feature in Africa and have hardly allowed African countries to benefit adequately from foreign aid Instead they have combined to undermine Africa's development in spite of their huge reliance on external sources.

The question, therefore, is that, is dependence or reliance on foreign sources for development in Africa necessary? If so, given the experience of Africa, must African nations continue to rely on external sources for their development? If not, at what point should they have a break in their dependence on external sources for their development? In other words what are the limits of reliance on external sources for development in Africa?

The answers to these questions are relative. In the argument for foreign aid, we have presented how foreign aid, among other things allows a country to invest and consume beyond the limits of current (domestic) production and again finance capital formation. Thus, all things been equal, leads to rapid growth as it affects the macroeconomic stability of the economy. This can be understood in the context of production, consumption, savings and investment. A relationship is thus created between production and income, as production create income that is equal to the value of output. The government in taxes takes part of this income, some saved by the private sector, and the rest consumed. In the absence of external borrowing, private sector investment plus government expenditure is constrained by the level of private sector savings and taxation. With external borrowing economic growth could be accelerated by permitting investment plus government spending to exceed savings plus taxes and simultaneously allowing imports to exceed exports (Klein in Saliu, 1999). Thus, external reliance (foreign aids in form of borrowing and grants) should by limited at the point Africa has borrowed substantial amount and have had accelerated growth of national income. At this point Africa should reduce steadily, their dependence on external assistance for continued growth. Again, in as much as domestic savings and foreign exchange gap exists and persists, in most African countries, Africa has no real option than to keep on importing "capital requisite into the continent until a time is reached when the economy can generate enough capacity and capability to service such debts and thus repay the principal. At this point Africa should gradually reduce her dependence on foreign assistance in her quest for development. On the contrary, Africa should also be conscious of the fact that reliance on external sources for development also imposes certain obligations on the continent to their external sources For instance, if a country borrows, she must pay interest on the outstanding debts, and as debt increases, interest payments required to service the debts increases. While it is important and crucial that external borrowing leads to an increase in productive capacity, for domestic needs and more fundamentally, an expansion of exports to finance interest and amortization payments. Inability to achieve this will make debt service reaching an unacceptable or unmanageable proportion of exports and total production. This may lead to financial crisis (debt management crisis) and the effect on the economy will be monumental. This consideration must also set a limit for reliance on external sources for Africa's development.

Africa's reliance on foreign aid should also be limited by the character of the donor nations or institutions. Africa should stop relying on external sources if the strings (conditionalities) attached to it is such that will hinder the economic progress of Africa. Some of these stringent conditions include; high interest rate, accepting Western style restructuring of the economy such as Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), opening up the economic borders of African countries to foreign unhindered participation and so on. Such conditionalities will not allow the continent to benefit from external assistance and so the continent should stop relying on external sources under such conditions.

Again, Africa should tactically withdraw from her reliance on external sources at the point it endangers her sovereignty and reduces her to a pawn in the chess game of the donor powers to her detriment. Also internal conditions such as mismanagement of borrowed fluids or grants, corruption, laziness and lack of initiative exhibited by Africans and their government due to the availability of a flood gate of foreign capital by way of foreign assistance should also define the limits of external reliance for development in Africa.

6. Conclusion and Recommendation

It is worthwhile to state that unless Africa devises alternative source of finance to aid her economic progress, she would not be able to draw the lines of the limits of her external reliance for her development. This unfortunately is the situation for most Africa countries who have become victims of relying on external sources for their development and are unable to pullout from such heavy reliance. They

have put themselves in the "prison" of dependency. Thus to be able to draw the lines of these limits Africa must device sustainable development strategies that are less anchored on foreign sources for implementation, embark on serious regional economic integration, diversify their economic base, ensure prudent management of resources and pursue a drastic fight against corruption. Without these, there can hardly be any limit to Africa's reliance on external sources for her development. This in itself is antithetical to her development.

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Inter-Agency Conflict and its Implication on National Security in Nigeria

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Abstract. Violent conflict is gradually becoming one of the defining characteristics of Nigeria. The problem of violence conflict in Nigeria has become more worrisome as the security operatives whose duty is to maintain peace, detect and suppress crimes have themselves become engulfed in violent conflicts, thereby giving criminals opportunity to unleash terror on the citizenry with impunity. Also, unethical conducts are held accountable for inter-agency conflict, superiority struggles, jurisdictional boundaries as well as role conflict arising from operational duties. To this end, repeated violent clashes among these security professionals have consistently alienated them from the public. This situation has further caused loss of confidence and respect from the citizenry. This paper therefore reviews the challenges of inter-agency conflict that negatively impact on national security. The paper adopted exploratory research design and relied on qualitative data, while the population comprised of security agencies particularly the Police and Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps operatives as study population. Data collected from secondary sources are relevant books, journals, publications from website of security agencies and internet materials. The paper concluded that there is need for inter-agency collaboration or cooperation in addressing inter-agency conflict as well as promoting national security in Nigeria.

Keywords: Security, Inter-agency, Conflict, National security, Collaboration.

1. Introduction

Inter-agency conflict and its implications on national security in Nigeria have been a reoccurring decimal among security agencies. This explains why it is argued that inter-agency collaboration is a necessity in the maintenance of the national security. Security agencies are to enhance security both internally and internationally as this is partly their statutory roles. The goal is to ensure that peaceful atmospheric conditions are sustained. In the 17th century, modern concepts of national security arose during the thirty years of war in Europe and the civil war in England. Shortly, after the war in 1648, the Peace of Westphalia was established and the idea that the nation-state has sovereign control not only of domestic affairs but also of external security.

In global setting, inter-agency collaboration have been encouraged at local and international levels among security agencies, owing to the need to curb violence and crime, and therefore the maintenance of law and order is imperative (Kelleher, 2002; Hamblet and Kline, 2000; Bogdanos, n.d; Hagen, 2006; Arnas, Barry and Oakley, 2005). National security requirements offer opportunity to design criteria, which are closely linked with list of threats. According to Mroz (2012), the most important criteria of national security are strength, size of space, reliability, access to the latest technology, and ability to participate in cooperative security. National security is the keeping of nation as a whole; its highest order of business is the protection of nation and its people from attack and other external dangers by maintaining armed forces and guarding state secrets (Holmes, 2014).

Since the return of democratic system in 1999, Nigeria has witnessed an unprecedented display of bestiality by security operatives which includes Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps versus Nigeria Police Force (NPF), NPF versus Nigeria Army (NA), NA versus Nigeria Customs Service (NCS), and Nigeria Immigration Service (NIS) versus Federal Airport Authority of Nigeria (FAAN) Aviation security among others. These occurred in manners that embarrass their respective agencies and the country at large while putting doubts in the minds of the public the competence of these agencies to discharge their constitutional responsibilities of ensuring peace and protecting lives and property. However, the state security apparatus had failed in

the past and have continued to fail over time (Sayne, 2011; Zumve, Ingyoroko and Akva, 2013).
The objectives of this study are to identify the factors responsible for the conflicts between Nigeria Police Force and Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps in Nigeria and determine the extent which inter-agency conflicts affect national security in Nigeria.

2. Methodology

The study adopted exploratory research design and relied on qualitative data. The population of the study was 52,735 of personnel of Nigeria Police Force and Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps from Lagos, Ogun and Oyo States in South-West Nigeria. These security agencies were purposively selected because they are inter-agency conflict ridden. Data were collected from documentaries and reviewed. In addition, (12) twelve senior officers were interviewed to compliment the major sources. Data from interviews were content analyzed.

3. Conceptual Review

3.1 Security

The concept of security has been defined in so many ways by scholars, security managers, government officials, security agencies and analysts depending on their intellectual predilection and or ideological orientation (Akinyeye, 2001). A careful analysis has shown that all different definitions can be classified into broad categories normally referred to as the traditional and non-traditional school of thought (Akinyemi, 2013).The traditional school of thought focused on the use of military force while the non-traditional school of thought broadened the meaning of security to comprise issues of socio-economic development.

Aliyu (2012) conceived and present security as a state of reduced or contained threats and tension in which the stability of a state is not in an imminent danger of disruption from within and without. Stability is here viewed as the order, regularity and pattern, which characterized the state's condition over an extended period. Nwanegbo and Odigbo (2013) argued that the concept of 'security' is a crosscutting, and multi-dimensional concept which has, over the last century, been the subject of great debate. However, long before that, the history of mankind was interspersed by the frenzied search for the best way of ensuring the security of the people, their properties, territories, states and institutions among others.

In all places and countries, security has been considered as a "first order value" worth preserving, the aforementioned notwithstanding, there is no consensus on the definition of security because it is a social phenomenon and it is seen from different perspectives. Mukhtar (2012) argued that the concept of security has always been associated with safety and survival of state and citizens from harm or destruction or from dangerous threats.

Danmadi (2010) defines security as the protection of life and property so that the daily business of life may continue without hindrance. This is corroborated by Efeovbokhan (2009) that security represents the absence of threat and/or fear in a social system, to him, and that sector depends on the security in place. Alemika (2010) also posits that security and development are interdependent as neither could be achieved without the other. Aja (2007) reflects that security friendly system frees individuals and group from fear and dangers of loosing such alienable human rights as life, liberty and property. Security, from a non-professional's perspective expressed the term as weapons, other defense mechanisms against threats and presence of a uniformed outfit with the power to arrest and ensure law and order are maintained.

According to Imobighe (1990), human security is "freedom from danger or to a nation's ability to protect and developed itself, promote its cherished values and legitimate interests and enhance the well being of its people." Therefore, the need for an effective security apparatus to be put in place cannot be over-emphasized. Various segments of security which include internal security, human security, cyber security, food security, environmental security, economic security, health security, education security, global security, and housing security among others. Therefore, the researcher opined that security of a nation is absolute state of being secured, freedom from apprehension, confident of safety and freedom from danger or risk. Therefore, security is a paramount condition that must be satisfied in order to guarantee a feeling of survival within the world system that is anarchical in nature.

3.2 Inter-agency Conflict

Globally, security operatives' clashes among themselves cannot be over-emphasized, however, army/police or police versus other security agencies clashes is not peculiar to Nigeria alone, but there are reported cases of security agencies clashes in some parts of the entire world. For example, in Ouagadougou- Burkina Faso, on 26th December, 2006, there was violent clash between the nation's

army and police which led to the death of five security personnel (three soldiers and two policemen) while civilian populace sustained various degree of injuries from stray bullets fired in the shoot-out.

The Pakistan Press (2003) reported army/ police clashes over the use of tinted glass caused the unnecessary tension between the duos, though the organized Pakistan civil society condemned the activities of the security operatives. In a related development, on 1st October, 2002, at Jakarta-Indonesia a clash was reported between the army and police over arrest of a soldier by local police for drug offence, this led to the death of four policemen when the soldiers bombarded the police post in order to release their colleague (*Indonesia News*, 2002).

The origin of inter-agency conflict in Nigeria started in the mid 1970s, as remarkable by Adekanye (1993), that Nigeria Police Force was the nearest occupational group to Nigeria Army in terms of status, salary and condition of service. An inter-agency conflict among different agencies in Nigeria is a major challenge in the business of effective service delivery to the people. In other words, rather than blowing an 'off-bounds' whistle at the public, it is now unfortunately directed at the umpires. Officers and men of various government agencies particularly security agencies have been involved in one form of conflict due largely to one interest or the other to the detriment of the Nation.

Inter-agency conflicts cut across different parastatals in the country, conflicts do exist between local government security guards and Vigilant groups in the community; local government agencies and federal government agencies, State created agencies and Federal government agencies and intra-conflicts among Federal Government Agencies. However, the major overlap existing between the Nigeria Police and Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps remain the battle against vandalism of public properties. The Acts establishing these two agencies stipulate and define their responsibilities to the society, the areas of their duty in the line of curtailing vandalism remains shared and terms of responsibilities unclear (NSCDC Act, 2003 as amended in Act 2007 Sec. 3; Police Act of 1958 as amended in 1967, Sect. 4).

The prevalence of inter-agency rivalry and its implication on national security has brought about the realization of the need for inter-agency collaboration and cooperation. The United States Government Accountability Agency report (GAO) of 2012 defines collaboration as any joint activity that is intended to produce more public value than could be produced when the agencies act alone. According to London (2012) in his study of *Collaboration Community*, as its Latin roots *com* and *laborare* suggest, collaboration reduced to its simplest definition to mean "to work together."
Kaiser (2011) views it as "a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain" to the downright esoteric "an interactive process having a shared transmutation purpose". It also means any joint activity by two or more organizations that is intended to produce more public value than could be produced when the organization act alone.

3.3 National Security

The global perspective of National security refers to the security of nation state, including its citizens, economy, and institutions, and is regarded as duty of government to secure the citizenry. In the past it was conceived as protection against military attack, but now it is widely understood to include non-military dimensions, including economic security, energy security, environmental security, food security, and cyber security. According to Pogoson (2013) Nigeria's national security rest on the country's National Defence Policy which is framed to protect Nigeria's interest under the ambit of the constitution.

The Reviewed Draft National Defence Policy (2002) states that National Security is an encompassing condition in which citizens can live in freedom, peace and safety; participate fully in the process of governance, enjoy the protection of fundamental human right, have access to resources and necessities of life and inhibit an environment which is conducive to their health and well being. The above two definitions laid a lot of emphasis on what National Security is but failed to mention the people that help to put that in place.

The content of National Defence policy includes promotion of Nigeria's sovereignty, citizens, values, culture, resources and territory against external threats; provision of defense as well as strategic advice and information to government; promotion of security consciousness among Nigerians; responses to request for support for civil authority.
Also, defence policy further included participation in disaster management and humanitarian relief operations both at home and abroad, assistance of government agencies and levels of government in achieving national goals, protection of Nigerians wherever they may reside, ensuring security and stability in West African sub-region through collective security, participation in bilateral and

multi-lateral operations, and contributing to international peace and security.

The Sections 214 and 217 of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria authorized the establishment of a standing Armed Forces and other security agencies, thus: defending Nigeria from external aggression; maintaining its territorial integrity and securing its borders from violation on land, sea, air; suppressing insurrection and acting in aid of civil authorities but subject to such condition as may be prescribed by an Act of National Assembly. Today, the country's nascent democracy is being tested by rampant crimes and an unprecedented campaign of terror such that in the Southern part of the country, civil unrest threatens safety and stability of the region, to the Eastern part of the country; kidnappers who abducts expatriates for ransom are waiting on the roads, in bars, and cities; and to the Northern part of the country, the Islamic terrorist group called Boko Haram is growing both in number and brutality hence the group has posed brazen challenges to the government and issued the ultimatum "leave or die" to Christians living in the Northern Nigeria and confidence that the government can protect the people is at all-time low (Agaptus, 2013).

4. Theoretical Framework

This study adopted Group conflict theory; it has three historical perspectives which include the theory of algebraic equations; the theory of number; and the theory of geometry respectively. However, there are three (3) early researchers in the field of group conflict theory which includes Joseph Louise Lagrange (1777); Hiels Henrik Abel (1799); and Evariste Galois (1846). The group theory originated from France, it is the study of symmetry when dealing with an object that appears symmetric in nature. The group conflict theory presents human beings as fundamentally group-involved beings. According to this theory groups are formed in human communities based on shared interest. This shared interest can best be furthered through collective action (Vold, 1958). New groups are formed as new interests arise, while existing ones may get weakened and fizzle out if they no longer serve their usual purposes.

Groups when formed become effective action unit through the direction and co-ordination of the activities of members by their leaders. Vold (1958) states that society is a network of groups driven by diverse interests. Group consciousness develops through experience gained from participating in regular group activities. Consequently, an emotional attachment to group activities rather than rational thinking develops. However, inter group conflict begins when their interests and purposes tend to overlap and or encroach on one another, hence their relationship becomes competitive, this competitive conflict engenders members' emotional attachment and loyalty to their various groups.

Odoma and Aderinto (2014) used the group conflict theory to study the power consciousness of security operatives: the bane of inter-agency feud in Nigeria. The theory helps to explain clashes between the personnel of the Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps and the police in the study. Thus, the strength of this theory is its elaborate explanation of conflicts among groups, which provide insights to this present study.

The theory enables people to understand that there is a high possibility of clashes among groups whose roles are similar or overlap. Nonetheless, the theory failed to state in precise terms the remote causes of such clashes among security agencies. The theory helps to explain clashes between operatives of Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps and the Nigeria Police Force in the study. However, the theory enables people to understand that there is possibility of clashes among groups whose roles are similar or overlaps.

5. The Implications of Inter-Agency Conflicts on National Security

The continuous inter-agency conflict has grave consequence because the citizens will be constantly under security threats of different dimensions. According to (Ajayi and Aderinto, 2008; Odoma, 2011) states that one thing that have remain constant across the nation is that, at the peak of all the security challenges, security operatives are often found helpless, not really knowing what to do. The conflict among security agencies has created loss of confidence from the citizenry coupled with selfish clashes and destroys selves and property with weapons bought by tax payer's money, or maim citizens, their reputations and civil cooperation will continue to dwindle as has been noticed over the years (Danjibo and Adams, 2018).

Today, average Nigerians prefer private security guards to public security agencies (Ajayi and Aderinto, 2008). The danger in this kind of arrangement may eventually lead to possible generation of confusion as it could constitute to several ethnic militias groups. To this end, these militias group have taken laws into their hands in all the part they exist and the security situation has worsened in Nigeria. (Reid, 1996) noted that rather than militias groups controlling crimes rate in the

country, the freedom of creating ethnic militia sub-cultural groups has been manifesting, this have enhanced the generation of more criminals.

6. Discussion

There are factors responsible for inter-agency conflicts between Nigeria Police Force and Civil Defence Corps. Studies such as Adekanye, 1993 and Omoigui, 2006 have shown that inter-agency conflict arose as a result of superiority struggles 'stand tall', overlapping other's roles due to ambiguous definition of roles by law, competition over primordial interest, ignorance of the law and indiscipline by the operatives especially among junior officers are some of the factors responsible for the persistent clashes which in essence has been the source of cold war among the forces from which destructive clashes result. Odita (2011) asserted that experience of the past decades in Nigeria negates expectation of the citizens as these public security operatives have been involved in several violent and destructive feuds. Albert (2001) identified that poor communication and mismanagement of information has been one of the causes of inter-agency conflicts.

The continuous violent clashes among security agencies put the security operatives in serious danger in terms of loss of their own lives and equipment. All the clashes between the Police and the Army in Nigeria for instance, have led to the death of operatives themselves, their properties and operational equipment (Odoma, 2011). However, Omogui (2006) noted that, the cold war between security forces had on several occasions led to unnecessary death of troops during joint operations, all in the name of accidental discharges. This situation is not good for national security of any nation. Over the past five years, inter-agency conflicts had been degenerating to violence with (15) fifteen recorded deaths among various security agencies particularly between Nigeria Police Force and Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

In attempt to address inter-agency conflict and its impact on national security among security agencies in Nigeria, the security agencies need to understand that no single agency can do it alone effectively without the joint collaborative efforts of other security agencies in order to enhance national security. More so, all security agencies were established to compliments each other, after all the security agencies are working towards the same goal or objectives. This paper therefore concludes that there is need for overhauling of security sector reform and principle of synergy or cooperation should be encouraged among security agencies in order to tackle incidences of conflicts and national security in Nigeria.

The following recommendations will go a long way in resolving the conflict among the security agencies in Nigeria:

- All security agencies and stakeholders involved in provision of security must endeavor to sponsor regular interactive forum in order to understand that each other's roles are complimentary. A lecture series should be organized at both senior and junior cadres of the security agencies to discuss issues that usually generate conflicts.
- Seniority and superiority struggles among security agencies should be discouraged because their existence is the product of the 1999 Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria.
- There should be provision of secondment period of two years for both senior and junior security operatives to another security agency in order to promote cooperation and synergy.
- The leadership of all security agencies should ensure discipline and sanction any erring security operatives.
- The Ministry of Interior should ensure that there is synergy between the NSCDC and NPF while performing their official assignments to avoid unnecessary conflict between them.
- The Joint Intelligence Board should impress on the security agencies that inter-agency conflict must be stopped and organize inter-agency sporting activities to enhance interrelationship among the operatives.
- The management of each security agency should provide adequate awareness or orientation on the differences and similarities in the security roles played by the NPF and the NSCDC to curb the occurrence of clashes among the security agencies.

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Interrogating the State, Public Policy and the Electricity Power Sector in Nigeria (1999 – 2019)

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Abstract. This article discussed the challenges of public policy in the electricity sector in Nigeria. The country has been struggling to generate and distribute it from the middle of 1980s. Due to many reasons that include, population explosion, aging electricity generation and distribution infrastructure, lack of capacity for running public utility firms, corruption, lack of indigenous expertise that could run the firms profitably and lack of political will in by the government, the needs of citizens have not been satisfied. The article is in five parts which include introduction, review of policy reforms in the electricity sector and challenges identified, theoretical framework, findings, conclusion and recommendations. It adopted neo-liberal theory as its theoretical framework. Secondary data were generated and analysed in themes. It argued that if policy makers in Nigeria fail to systematically develop the Nigerian model of neo-liberal policy philosophy, the country will continue to waste time, energy and funds on policies in the electricity sector without commensurate results. It further recommended that the elite and the masses as well as professionals and artisans/craftsmen be involved in generation and implementation of policies in the electricity sector in Nigeria. The government should engage policy analysts as consultants to study critically inputs made by international institutions or bilateral partners in the process of generation, design, implementation and evaluating electricity generation, distribution and consumption model presented to them by foreign partners. Policy formulation mechanism should consider when to automatically roll in or out the state in accordance with the prevailing economic conditions if Nigeria agrees that it has finally settled for neo-liberal economic policies. This will facilitate the emergence of the Nigerian model of neo-liberal economic policy and its attendant positive impact on the needed reform to get affordable and sustainable electric power to the consumer.

Keywords: Neo-Liberalism, Power Policy, Power Sector Reform, Privatisation, Consumption Model

1. Introduction

Nigeria's capacity to generate, transmit and distribute electricity to her citizens from the mid-1980s has been challenged by population explosion, aging electricity generation, transmission and distribution infrastructure, lack of capacity for running public utility firms, corruption, lack of indigenous expertise who could run the firms profitably, lack of political in satisfying the needs of citizens by the government and inability to raise capital to fund initiatives towards solving this problem.

In a democratic regime the decision of any political party in government on public policy is informed by the worldview of its members, needs and wants of its constituency and the intellectual input of policy analysts. The worldview of members of political party in government is shaped by both domestic international environments. The needs and wants of constituencies are shaped by the aspiration and vision of the elite and then the poor. The level of field research outputs informs the output of previous policies and input into new policies to be generated in the environment. Successive administrations in Nigeria have struggled with public policy implementation with minimal success, leaving the citizens a sense of alienation. If the people feel that they are excluded in the process of governance, it becomes very difficult for the government to succeed in the generation, formulation and implementation of policies. The pertinent question has the government regained the confidence of those "excluded"; the elite and ordinary citizens in the process of governance in

the power sector? This paper will attempt to answer this question The article is in five parts which include introduction, conceptual clarification, review of related literature, theoretical framework, findings, conclusion/recommendation.

2. Concept of Public Policy

Public policy is "a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or a matter of concern" (Anderson in Sambo1999:283). It involves the allocation of resources by the authorities. Government policy is "an authoritative plan of action for the promotion and allocation of selected values, which is deemed by governmental authority to be in the common interest of the people. "It consists of general or specific goals which policy makers hope to attain including the general course of action to be followed and the specific means by which the goal is to be pursued" (Sambo 1999:285). The challenge is in this case is that government policy failure concentrates on reform of government and its structures, leaving out the "dependent economic structure" and its corresponding state structure", which means that lessons were yet to be learnt by successive governments (Sambo 1999: 309). The concept of state structure has to be reconsidered, not as constituents (regional grouping or ethnic entities, but as interest groups in terms of the elite and the masses or as professionals and artisans and craftsmen. This is to reduce the feeling of exclusion from national economic life which is coordinated by the state in the process of governance.

3. Literature Review

In this section, relevant literature on public policy in the electricity power sector in Nigeria from 2001 to 2019 was reviewed. Osakwe (2017) points out that the national electric power policy adopted in 2001 introduced a new dimension to the Nigeria electricity power sector. Many years of struggle with available and affordable electric power supply has weakened the economy and pauperized the masses. The electricity co-operation in Nigeria was created in 1951the Nigeria Dams Authority which was in charge of hydro-electricity dams was also created in 1962. These two organizations were merged in 1972 to form the national electricity power authority (NEPA). The challenge of having access to affordable electricity supply by Nigerians made NEPA unpopular as such the need for policy aimed at resolving this problem. The Obasanjo administration from inception identified this challenge and in 2001 adopted in national electricity power policy. This policy departed from the government ownership structure. The management and control of electricity supply of the power sector had to give way. The 2001 electric power policy prescribed that, power has to be privatized and a regulator has to be established in order to set rules, codes and process that differ from the previous practice when the government was the sole owner. The electric power sector performed act was signed into law in 2005 and this led to the establishment of the electric Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN) PHCN was later unbounded from the generations company (GENCOS) distribution companies (DISCOS) and a single transmission of power (TCN). The road map for the further reformed in the power sector was launched in 2010 to accelerate the implementation of the reformed being made. The ownership of company was retained by the government while the generation and distribution firms were sold to private companies and were handed over to firms in the 2013 (Osakwe, 2017). A regulator was established in 2005. The regulator is the national electricity regulator commission.

In 2016 another roadmap was unveiled by the Ministry of Power, (by the Ministry of Power Works and Housing) in order to address the challenge of intermittent, insufficient, non-available power supply. A holistic approach designed to bring in new initiative to tinker with policies geared towards demonstrable and measurable policies for uninterrupted, incremental and steady power supply.
PWC (2016) report with update reports on the power sector road map provided an outline on the milestones recorded as explained in the table 1.1 below

Table 1.1 Outline of activities in Nigeria's Power Sector

S/N	Year of Policy	Policy/Programme
1	2005	Amendment of electricity Power Sector Reform Act Establishment of Nigeria Electricity Regulatory Commission Establishment of Power Holding Company of Nigeria
2	2006	Assets of the Power Holding Company of Nigeria were unbundled along generation, distribution and transmission Ten National Integrated Power Project (NIPP) commenced implementation Establishment of market operation departments of the transmission Company of Nigeria
3	2008	The body mandated to oversee the progress of unbundling generation and distribution companies were established

		Approval of multi-layer tariff order
4	2010	The national power road map was introduced and the Nigeria Bulk Electricity Trade (NBET) was established Presidential Taskforce on power reform was established to 2020
5	2012	Management contract agreement was made between the Transmission Company of Nigeria and Utility and asset management Company of Nigeria Memorandum of understanding were signed on nuclear energy sources
6	2013	Commitment of initiative on the construction of 3 stations in hydro-electric sub-sector Agreement on coal power production partnership were also signed Infrastructure masterplan (power sector roadmap) launched
7	2014	Renewable energy programme was improved upon Out of the ten National Integrated Power Project (NIPP) assets were sold completely
8	2015	Establishment of power transitional power market

Source: *Compiled from PCW's July 2016 Report*

4. Theoretical framework

Neoliberalism was adopted as the framework for analysis of the issue in this article. Liberalism as a precursor of neo-liberalism is a political philosophy that evolved in the seventeenth century through the eighteenth century. The main assumption is that individual liberty has to be achieved through the minimal state. The government has to be liberal politically and economically. The state is expected to provide law and order, but must restrain itself from intervention of markets at both domestic and international levels. This is the laissez-faire principle. It is based on the idea of free market principles with little or no government intervention (Viotti and Kauppi, 2009; Oriakhi and Usifo, 2016)

Premised on the above import and export of good and services are expected to flow across national borders with minimal barriers in other to encourage investment and commerce across border and regions. Liberalism helps capitalism to emerge victorious as such capital flow within and among nations were encourage in trade, investment and commerce in general.

Neo- liberalism according to critics is a theory of wealth accumulation/creation that does not consider how (political and economic) power is distributed through wealth. This means that power is taken from states and transferred to business interests there by portraying it as an evidence of prosperity (Oriakhi and Usifo,2016). Neo-liberal theorists emerge as the leaders of capitalist political economy and created the new trade, investment and monetary regimes that dictate to developing countries who are already at disadvantage in the world capitalist system (to some extent) in this direction they work towards eliminating subsidies and competitive exchange rates and encourage open market and protection or property rights through regulators

Multi-national corporations are the faces of neo-liberal theorists in the field of play. They emerge as business personalities who usually take over economic power through domination of markets and advocate for the protection of their right to recoup their investment through regulations that must favour them. The power sector in Nigeria is trying to survive under the liberalisation principles. The sector was initially owned by the state, but due to gross inefficiency, the government tinkered with the idea of privatising and commercialising it as such policies were made towards this direction. The fact that minimal success was recorded brought about a review in the policies and a roadmap for the implementation of the policy was designed, Nigeria is yet to benefit from all the arrangements because it still depends on international instituting driven by neo-liberal principles for the design of policies and programs without accessing thoroughly Nigeria's peculiarities. Dependency in this sense breeds parasite imagination which in turn creates destructive mind-set. In the long run both the parasite and the host will not benefit from the relationship.

5. Challenges in the Power Sector in Nigeria

One of the challenges of the power sector in Nigeria is the involvement of about five government agencies and firms in making input into power generations transmission distribution and of power to the end user. Aside the Federal Ministry of Power, Works and Housing that is tasked with the provision policy and directions. The ministries of solid minerals, water resources and petroleum resources are in-charge of inputs from coal dams and gas which serve as input for the generation of the electricity in the country. Issues of infrastructure building for generation transmission and distribution and also involve other government agencies and local/foreign investors in the power sector value chain.

PCW July 2016 Report, identified for major impediment hindering adequate power supply in Nigeria

(a) Value chain losses – 69% loss in generator, 7% of energy generator
(b) Limited transmission average is loss during transmission and 12% during distribution national grid is limited to just 40% of the country. It is owned by government as such subject to control and not able to attract investors
(c) Supply disruption - violence disrupt supply – pipeline and scares investors
(d) Theft and corruption – Non-transparent ways of revenue collection by personnel of the companies; poor tracking system hinder access to customers who have willingness and the capacity to pay for electricity supply (PCW, 2016).

According to Ajenikoko, Eboda, Adigun, Olayinka, Oni and Adelowo (2018) the roadmap designed for the power sector was part of Infrastructure Maser Plan (IMP) which was launched by federal government in 2013. It preceded mid-term report of the transformation agenda. Nigeria planned to make huge investment in road construction, transport, power among other infrastructure. However, the failure of the electricity supply sector in Nigeria led to the self-generation of electricity at residential, industry and commercial sectors. This has negative effect on the environment, dwindling financial resources, reduction in profit for manufacturers and service providers. e.t.c. Energy supply capacity of Nigeria is expected to reach 30,000mw in 2020, and 78,000mw in 2030 if the country has to grow at 10% (Idemudia and Nordstrom, 2016). But we are already in Year 2020 and the plan is not yet half way realised. The question now is what are the challenges facing the sector even after the implementation of privatisation policy.

Idemudia and Nordstrom (2016:11) outline the challenges likely to be faced after the privatization of the electricity power sector:

- Costing that will not likely reflect tariff regime
- Insufficiency of gas supply as a result of inadequate gas infrastructure
- Non-bankable agreement regarding supply of gas
- Decaying transmission line assets and power sub-station
- Bureaucratic bottle-neck in agencies of government
- Foreign exchange rate and issues of currency fluctuation
- Transmission from one administration to another and risk of uncertainty in policy direction of successive administration
- Absence of long-term funding that are affordable
- Criminal vandalization of plants, transmission lines and equipment

The Nigeria Power Sector Recovery Programme documents (2018) also discussed the challenges in the power sectors. They are infrastructure constraints, insufficient end users to tariff, sector cash shortfall, slow pace of loss reduction by DICOS, Ministries, Department, and Agencies (MDAs) debts and sector governance challenge. Infrastructural constraints could be seen in the difference between installed capacity to generate power, which is 13,400mw and but 7,000 mw is available, yet 4,000 mw was made available for supply to customers between 2015-2017.

In addition, the rise in the cost of energy generation, transmission and distribution due to unforeseen infrastructure constraints, money devaluation and inflation and lag in adjustment of tariff (as expected) led to insufficiency in end user tariff. This affected the multi-layer tariff regime expected to tally with sustainable, appropriate tariff trajectory. Furthermore, tariff shortfall of 420 billion naira and market shortfall of 476 Billion Naira cash shortfall in the sector. Thus deficit has accumulated in the sector value chain between February 2015 and December 2016. The performance of DISCO declined between 2014 and 2016 due to absence of investment in rehabilitation of network and metering. Low tariff and lack of improvement in service to customer and also responsible for the high cost recorded. The debt owed by government ministries, department and agencies is estimated to be about 26 billion naira as at December 2016. This is a huge gap that created cash deficit. The challenge of the governance of the sector is a huge deficit in the administration of power sector in Nigeria. There are claims that the electricity industry ion Nigeria has sound policy design and regulatory framework, but its implementation is a major challenge. The government is not consistence in the enforcement of policies and rules (Nigeria Power Sector Recovery Program Document, 2018:7)

Arowolo and Yannick (2017) contend that there is form of regulatory game in the Nigeria power market. This game involves the regulatory and the judiciary at the two ends of the continuum while the government is at the centre. In the middle of the

triangle on the left side is the evidence of lack of cost reflective tariff designs and on the right onside political programs for subsidy. And at the base of the triangle on the extreme end on the left is power companies and consumers at the extreme right. The market power is at the middle. This has led to the lack of meaningful progress in the power sector in Nigeria. The agencies of government and the consumers of electricity are yet to come to terms with the privatisation and commercialisation policy due to undue interference through policy makers, consumer induced court judgement and apprehension of foreign investor in making available long term funds for investment in the sector due to government policies inconsistency.

From 2016, efforts made by the regulating to increase electricity tariff in order to motivate investors have usually led to confrontation with customers. PHCN staff are either chased or beaten up. The engagement is that a population with low purchasing power cannot afford to pay for electricity service that is not readily available. The investors on the other hand are replaced on the dilemma of balancing between cost recovery (in network infrastructure investment operation maintenance) and under investment expected in the sector. An instance of resistance from customers were the protest and law suits filed by consumers against 45% increase in tariff announced by the regulatory body which took effect in February 2016. There was a court judgment against the increase in tariff in July 2016. The review of tariff was declared illegal. The regulator and the DISCOS were earlier constraint from acting against consumers who could not pay the new tariff (Arowolo and Yannick, 2017).

Oluseyi Akinbulire and Awosope (2012) identify the issue that are paramount in realization of supply of available, affordable and sustainable power supply to a developing country like Nigeria:

- Absence of bankable gas supply agreement
- Power purchase agreement
- Shallow domestic finance
- Inadequate transmission and distribution facilities
- Fears of foreign investors political interest
- Fear of political reversal
- Consideration of the poor consumers in the implementation of MYTO regime (multi you tariff order- MYTO)
- Establishment of reversal and development center

Given all the challenges mentioned above, considering the poor consumers in the implementation of the Multi Year Tariff Order regime is not too feasible because majority of the electricity consumers who are at the lower class are used to cheap tariff. Their living standard and perception of subsidy is a major challenge. The finance base of any business is the source of revenue and if revenue cannot be generated to pay for the services offered to consumers the business is likely to fail. There is the notion that if tariffs regime is retuned to suit the standard of living of the majority of service users will lead to the success of the business, particularly the power sector.

6. Findings

This article finds out that from 1999 to 2019, (a period of 20 years) the government of Nigeria has been making effort to model the electricity sector in the fashion of neo-liberal economic system, but the fact that indigenous companies are yet to have the huge capital outlay and technical expertise to run the sector, as such it is yet to find a headway. The critical mass of citizens is also used to subsidy economy as such they resist all forms of reforms that tend to pass the bulk to electricity consumers.

The pertinent question to ask on the challenge in the power sector in Nigeria is, why do public policies fail? The response to this question cannot be exhausted in this article, but the inability of the government to carryout decisions successfully in equitable allocation of resource to citizens, regulation of behaviour of citizens, lack of capacity in the extraction and utilisation of resources and lack of capacity to develop a national identity and sense of community among citizens. The consequences of failure of public policy in the power sector in Nigeria are loss of sense of social security, inequality and relative deprivation. The condition of man in the state as a formal institution threatens his freedom and welfare. Unlike the family or society, the state tends to be too large and it subsumes the hopes and aspirations of individuals into group interest as such those in the driver's seat tend not to comprehend its working when they assume leadership positions as politicians. The process of governance takes time and the time lag would always affect the take off and implementation of policies. The power sector reform that is yet to be realised in its target of Year 2020 is creating atmosphere of social insecurity, inequality and relative deprivation.

Another issue is that, the dichotomy between the public and private are constructs being experimented with in the process of governance. The evolution of liberal theory shows that states that are guided by its

assumptions rolled back the state in the early times but later realised that they were supposed to role in the state in the period of recession or depression. The importance of welfare of citizens made the state to be engaged in providing basic services for citizens. The state is involved in the provision of basic infrastructure, amenities and goods through subsidy regime and the private sector is involved in this process. Another question that begs for answer is, how can the private sector that believes in profit maximisation be used to achieve this objective without circumventing the process? Economakis, Rizopoulos and Sargaski, (2010:16) in this regard argue that "...there is complex relation implying discriminatory practices in public/private actors' interactions" which are evident in "political and economic inequality" as well as "relative autonomy of the state and its representative agencies, compared to specific interest groups". Their position throws light on the challenge of how to operationalise the partition between the public and private.

The foregoing proposition is extended to the argument that the state dominates the private sector and as such is amenable to patronage from the private sector. Disregard for rules and formal procedures in the process of governance makes public policies to fail. The failure of public policy means that the common good is not maintained. The delicate issue is that the common good will now be maintained by loyalty to the institutions and the policies and the people who guarantee it in the state. Policy makers will no longer be committed to the idea of common good. It is not only the poor that perceive the feeling of exclusion but also the rich/elite. Rich people also complain of being excluded after being **used**. These people are not poor, yet they are scared of what the future has for them in terms of relevance on the political or economic scene. So when they assume leadership (through compensation) they short change the policy process in their personal interest, thereby sabotage the spirit of the common good.

Some scholars have argued that achievements were recorded in the power sector as a result of the reforms carried out by the successive administration. Ogunleye (2016:8) posits that the achievement of the power sector reform is about defining a new national power policy that positions the private sector as driver of the sector on funding, innovation and leadership. The power sector was solely owned and controlled by the government prior to 1999 (2001) when the policy on the reform of the sector was muted by the then Obasanjo administration. Another achievement is about the design of enabling regulatory, policy, and commercial framework for engagement of all stakeholders and sector. The privatisation moves and unbundling of the company in charge of generation, transmission and distribution heralded a new era in the sector with an all engaging and inclusive approach aimed at confronting the challenges in the sector in Nigeria. In addition, the commercialization of the sector is a major achievement that aimed at the easing of burden of total subsidy regime in the power sector. The claim by some analysts that the reform in the electricity power sector has failed totally is over- exaggerated. The achievements recounted above show that despite the challenges experienced in the electricity sector in Nigeria, there are still achievements that point to the fact that the reform is likely to work if carefully reviewed and implemented.

7. Conclusion

The article concludes that if policy makers in Nigeria fail to systematically develop the Nigerian model of neo-liberal policy philosophy, the country will continue to waste time, energy and funds on policies that will continue to fail. And also, that the state is seen as formal institution that threatens the freedom of individuals. Besides, policy makers in new regimes were not able to comprehend the conditions that informed policies initiated from predecessors.

A systematic development of Nigerian model of neo-liberal policies will reduce the consequences of failure of policy inherited from predecessors when it is embedded in the law that such policies must not be abandoned.

8. Recommendations

The article recommends as follows:

- That there is the need to implement power generation technologies that are efficient, attraction of investment by initiating favourable policy, overhaul and maintenance of decaying infrastructure, prompt implementation of well thought and correctly designed power project, scaling up of transmission infrastructures on a steady basis, attraction of private investment in collaboration with the government and adoption of new technologies for effective and efficient supply (PCW, 2016)
- Nigeria must tinker with it in version of liberalism and think deeply on how to design policies that will see to the emergence of a sustainable, efficient and affordable electricity power generation, transmission and distribution to its citizens

and beyond. Genuine entrepreneurs could be raised to proffer solutions to challenge the bedevilling the players in the industry. Rent seekers should be identified and blocked from participating in the sector.

- The concept of state structure has to be reconsidered, not as constituents (regional grouping or ethnic entities, but as interest groups in terms of the elite and the masses or as professionals and Artisans/Craftsmen. This will reduce the feeling of exclusion from national economic life which is coordinated by the state in the process of governance.
- The government should engage policy analysts as consultants to study critically inputs made by international institutions or bilateral partners in the process of generation, designed, implementation and evaluation of policies. This will help in preventing institutional transplant and stimulate critical thinking among policy makers thereby improve the performance in critical sector of the economy.
- And finally, policy formulation mechanism should consider when to automatically roll in or out the state in accordance with the prevailing economic conditions if Nigeria agrees that it has finally settled for neo-liberal economic policies. This will facilitate the emergence of the Nigerian model of neo-liberal economic policy. Laws should put in place to spell out the ways the rolling in and out of the state should be done in order to win the confidence of both the elite and the masses in advancing their fortune and standard of living.

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Needs Assessment for Effective Development in the Rural Areas of the Niger Delta Region, Nigeria

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Abstract. The lack of needs assessment is the leading cause of ineffective and uneven development in rural areas. Previous studies on needs assessment have largely focused on urban development. However, little is known about needs assessment in the rural areas of the Niger Delta Region. This study, therefore, aimed at assessing the developmental needs of rural areas in the Niger Delta Region. A descriptive cross-sectional survey was conducted in three states: Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers State. A total sample of 450 respondents (aged 18-50 years) were randomly selected in 15 rural communities within the selected states, while 15 focus group discussions and 30 in-depth interviews were conducted among the residents to complement the quantitative data. A structured and pre-tested questionnaire and interview guides were used as methods of data collection. Descriptive statistics and content analysis were used as analytic strategies respectively. Although findings showed that majority of the rural dwellers in Rivers, Delta and Bayelsa States were faced with the challenges of flooding, poor educational facilities, poverty/unemployment, poor medical facilities, poor/electricity supply and poor communication network; the provisions of portable water, healthcare facilities, educational facilities, skill acquisition programmes, electricity and business start-up capital were mostly desired by the participants. This study, therefore, has policy implication direction for rural development by stakeholders for effective initiation and implementation of community-based projects in the Niger Delta rural communities.

Keywords: Needs assessment, rural development, infrastructure, poverty, Niger Delta Region

1. Introduction

The area known as the Niger Delta region located in the South-South region of Nigeria has been of much interest to both the Nigerian government and the international community. The Niger Delta region is naturally endowed with a high deposit of petroleum that has been the source of its focus of interest for the federal government and multinational oil corporations. Given her huge resource deposit, it will be generally expected that the area will experience a high economic regeneration and prosperity, human development, social stability, and peaceful political atmosphere.

Surprisingly, the region happens to be one of the least developed regions in the country despite the huge financial commitment made by the government at various levels (Obi, 2014; Kaur, 2013; Eneh, 2011). Although, the federal government has established agencies like; Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC), Nigerian Content Management and Development Board, etc. to facilitate rapid and sustainable development projects within the region especially on ecological, human and infrastructural developments, the area is still low in her development indices (Otega, Dani, & Badariah, 2015).

In recent times, the Nigeria government has reinforced her efforts in the region by the sustenance of the amnesty to militant youths as well as the establishment of the Ministry of Niger Delta Affairs to formulate and coordinate policies of actions for the development, peace and security of the region. The different initiatives and programmes are meant to create a socially, economically, politically, ecologically stable and peaceful environment within the Niger Delta region. However, development in the region is not proportionate with the level of its contribution to national income and does not reflect the enormous financial commitments and efforts made by both federal and state government (Obi, 2014; Kaur, 2013).

A 2013 United Nation Development Programme report in the region (cited in Otega, Dani, & Badariah, 2015), indicated that the human development index of the region is at 0.433 compared

to other oil-producing communities found in Gabon, Libya and Malaysia put at 0.668, 0.791, and 0.791 respectively. Similarly, a study by Eneh (2011) showed that there is a low rate of access to literacy and secondary education compared to other non-oil producing regions. While the Niger Delta region has 87.9 per cent access to youth literacy and 70.3 per cent on secondary education, the south-west with little petroleum resources has 94.7 per cent and 87.5 per cent respectively. With regards to unemployment in 2010, the region was estimated to have the highest unemployment rate with 9.5 per cent, while the north-east 3.2 per cent, north-west 2.2 per cent, north-central 4.3 per cent, south-east 6.6 per cent and south-west 4.5 per cent respectively (Eneh, 2011).

Also, a report from the Niger Delta Environmental survey 2010 shows that the ratio of primary school to people leaving within communities in the region is I primary school to 3,700 people serving 3 or more communities while that of secondary school is 1 to 14,679 people which is 1 school to 8 or more communities. Eneh, (2011), further reported that only 45.5 per cent of the people in the region have access to the safe water source while north-west had 50.2 per cent, North-central 48.5 per cent and south-west 73.1 per cent respectively.

Several studies (Aghalino, 2012; Akinwale, & Osabuohien, 2009; Okolo, 2014) have shown that despite the colossal efforts by the NDDC through her robust master plan in developing the Niger Delta region, not much has been accomplished. Wilson (2011) confirmed that the NDDC master plan has not been able to address the socio-economic needs of the area adequately. He, therefore, suggested for an all-embracing strategic approach.

Emphatically, Okolo (2014) observed that the NDDC master plan can address the infrastructural and human development issues in the region if only the commission can redirect her developmental approach to community development. Given this, the study seeks to investigate how community participation can be employed to facilitate the activities of developmental agencies in achieving sustainable human development in the Niger Delta region.

Despite the laudable strategies adopted by the government in ensuring lasting solution in the region's underdevelopment, scholars however criticized some of the strategies. For example, Aghedo (2013) argued that the post-amnesty in Niger Delta failed because the programme was not designed to develop communities and human capacities in the Niger Delta, but as a way to entice the militants to give up their arms. Similarly, Dode (2012) suggested the need for the government to adopt the approach of community participation and capability building in the developmental agenda in the region. Based on the above note, critical gap this study intends to fill is what Dode (2012) identified as lack of strategic method, greed and bad governance in Nigeria as factors contributing to the region underdevelopment, unemployment and poverty amid her rich natural resources. Conclusively, Davidheiser and Nyiayaana (2011) maintained that there are incessant unrest and violence in the region due to government failure to incorporate a robust strategy of peacebuilding. They further added that human development and capability building is a vital tool in the restoration of peace and tranquillity for sustainable development to any warring community.

A study by The Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Programme (NSRP) in 2014 on 'Assessing the Contribution of Youth Employment and Empowerment Programmes to Reducing Conflict Risk in Nigeria' reported the failure of development policies in the Niger Delta Region due to non-inclusion of community members when it reported thus:

Another factor affecting the quality of programme design and implementation is the limited communication between policy-makers and young people in designing and delivering interventions. Nearly all of (sic) the youth and civil society representatives interviewed for this report pointed to this as a major obstacle. State-level research revealed the same picture, with youth participants in FGDs (Focus Group Discussions) highlighting inadequate participation of youth in formulation (sic) of initiatives supposedly designed to assist them. Youth (sic) have the best understanding of the realities and challenges they face, and so are well placed to help determine what will and will not work. Including young people at every stage of the design, implementation and monitoring of programmes would ensure that interventions have greater legitimacy and ownership, encourage active participation in society, and help mitigate frustration, apathy and social exclusion. It would also ensure that policies and practices are more targeted, context-specific and thereby more effective (NSRP, 2014).

A Top-down approach to policy formulations is always fraught with ineffectiveness in its implementation. It is against this backdrop this study seeks to investigate a better approach which will directly involve the people in making decisions with regards to their development. Most studies on investigating the development needs of the people of

the Niger Delta are conceptual reviews. Hence, there is a gap between theory and practise. This study seeks to bridge this gap by carrying out an empirical investigation to determine the needs of the people of the Niger Delta.

2. Theoretical Framework: Community-Driven or Bottom-Up Model (CD/BUM)

This model is most critical to this study in its application to community development. This model (Community-driven or bottom-up model) postulates that the communities to which the projects are to be executed have the ownership of their resources and also have the rights and responsibilities in harnessing these resources for their benefits (Gillespie, 2004). Therefore, community-driven development model in itself is in line with community-driven development/reconstruction approach (CDD/R), the asset-based community development approach (ABCD), the rights-based model (RBM), and the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) as propounded by Ostrom in 1994.

Practically, the CDD/R is the model used by the World Bank group to extend interventional support to the poor communities and people when they are critically in need especially after the outbreak of war or disasters (Wong, 2012). With regards to the ABCD model, a survey of the community assets is taken into consideration, such as the capacities and assets of local individuals, associations and institutions, rather than focusing on its needs or deficiencies. The idea behind ABCD is that the identification of assets and resources within a community can empower communities that have typically been viewed that as needing help from outside the community (Kretzmann, & McKnight, 1993).

The RBM, on the other hand, focuses on empowering communities to exercise and claim their rights, and enable those responsible to fulfil their duties. These rights include civil and political rights (such as freedom of speech, political affiliation and assembly) as well as social, cultural and economic rights (such as access to land, shelter, education and health) (DFID, 2001). Community participation and empowerment are the key aspects of the SLA. It is in this light, that Gunjan (2011), and Platteau and Gaspart (2003) seem to agree that some of the weaknesses of BUM are further marginalization of the poor, and being prone to elite control as well as the predisposition of the elites to competition with government programmes.

Also, BUM is faced with difficulties as scaling-up and sustainability problems do terminate external funding before projects become financially self-sufficient, which may not be helpful for big developmental projects. Despite the weaknesses, ABCD and SLA models have been used successfully to address the shortcomings of previous development models (Gunjan, 2011; Platteau & Gaspart, 2003).

Therefore, the Community-driven or bottom-up model is most suitable for this research because it appropriately provides the basis for engaging citizens' participation in defining their developmental needs and aspirations for the government or other relevant agencies to address. Similarly, where the developmental needs of the Niger Delta region are concerned, the BUM is more appropriate in enhancing the developmental processes. This is because BUM is essentially participatory thereby relying on a variety of ideas that involves everyone in the community to which the developmental projects are to be planned and executed. When these are considered as the spectrum for community development, the specific needs and aspirations of the people coupled with the government and non-governmental organizations collaborative efforts, a holistic view of community developmental challenges would be addressed and bring about holistic and sustainable community development.

3. Material and Methods

A descriptive cross-sectional survey was conducted in 15 selected rural communities in Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers States respectively. The choice of these states was informed by its strategic location in the Niger Delta region where there were some rural communities producing oil, yet faced with a high level of poverty and marginalization in the region. The study employed a mixed-method approach of quantitative and qualitative method. A sample of 450 respondents (aged ≥18 years) were randomly recruited using a structured and pretested questionnaire, with 30 from each community selected based on Cochran's (1977) quantitative sample size determination formula as stated below:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 P(1-P)}{e^2}$$ Where n = Sample Population; Z = Statistics level of confidence (1.96);
P = Expected prevalence or proportion to be sampled in the population [0.50];
1 = Constant;
e = Marginal error (0.05).

$$n = \frac{1.96^2[0.50(1-0.50)]}{0.05^2} = \frac{3.8416[0.50(0.50)]}{0.0025} = 384.16.$$

n = 384.16 + 65.3 (17% of 384)

n = 449.5 = 450

Because of the triangulation of methods (quantitative and qualitative method) adopted in the study, 30 participants were also purposively interviewed, two from each community comprising community leaders and youth leaders respectively; while fifteen focus group discussion sessions, one from each community, were held with selected residents (aged 18-50 years). Table 1 shows a summary of the sampled distribution by the communities selected for the study.

Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 21.0), while qualitative data were analysed using content analysis method. Ethical clearance was obtained from the Ministry of Health in Bayelsa State. Verbal informed consents were also sought from all respondents and participants before the commencement of the study. They were also assured that their participation in the research was voluntary and anonymous. Also, the confidentiality of their responses is abided by during and after the study.

Table 1: Quantitative and Qualitative Sample Size distribution by states, Local Government Areas (LGAs) and communities

S/N	States	LGAs	Communities	Quantitative sample size	Qualitative sample size	
					FGD	IDI
1.	Delta State	Ndokwa East	Aseomuku	30	1	2
2.	Rivers State	Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni	Odugiri	30	1	2
3.	Delta State	Isoko North	Ibrede	30	1	2
4.	Rivers State	Ogba/Egbema/Ndoni	Okwuzi	30	1	2
5.	Rivers State	Ahoada West	Idu-Ekpeye	30	1	2
6.	Bayelsa State	Sagbama	Agbere	30	1	2
7.	Rivers State	Ahoada East	Ubeta	30	1	2
8.	Bayelsa State	Yenagoa (Biseni)	Tuburu	30	1	2
9.	Delta State	Ndokwa East	Umuolu	30	1	2
10.	Bayelsa State	Sagbama	Ekperiwari	30	1	2
11.	Bayelsa State	Southern Ijaw	Apoi	30	1	2
12.	Bayelsa State	Ekeremor	Azagbene	30	1	2
13.	Bayelsa State	Southern Ijaw	Ikenghenbiri	30	1	2
14.	Bayelsa State	Southern Ijaw	Igbomotoru	30	1	2
15.	Bayelsa State	Southern Ijaw	Kokologbene	30	1	2
**	**Total**			**450**	**15**	**30**

FGDs=Focus Group Discussions
IDIs= In-depth Interviews

4. Results

4.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 2 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents by the state of residence, which ranged from gender, age group, educational attainment, marital status, religion and occupation to income level. As indicated in the table, more than half of the respondents were males with those in Rivers State having the highest percentage compared to their female counterparts. In aggregate, the majority of the respondents were within the age brackets of 20 – 39, which suggests that they were mostly dominated by young population compared to those who were above 50 years.

About half the respondents both in Bayelsa and Rivers except in Delta State had attained secondary school education as at the time of the survey compared to those who had attended tertiary education. This means that a limited percentage of the respondents had attained higher educational levels at the time when the survey was conducted in the selected rural communities in the three states. On the marital status of the respondents, more than half of the respondents in Bayelsa and Delta were married while the majority of those in Rivers State were single. Despite this, more than half of the respondents across the three states were married compared to other categories of marital status in the three states.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Socio-demographic variables	State of the respondents (Column %)			
	Bayelsa	**Delta**	**Rivers**	**Total**
Gender				
Male	139 (57.9%)	53 (58.9%)	94 (78.3%)	286 (63.6%)
Female	101 (42.1%)	37 (41.1%)	26 (21.7%)	164 (36.4%)
Age group (in years)				
Less than 20	23 (9.6%)	10 (1.1%)	17 (14.2%)	50 (11.1%)
20 – 29	59 (24.6%)	15 (16.7%)	43 (35.8%)	117 (26.0%)
30 – 39	59 (24.6%)	33 (36.7%)	31 (25.8%)	123 (27.3%)
40 – 49	48 (20.0%)	23 (25.6%)	16 (6.7%)	87 (19.3%)
50 – 59	33 (13.8%)	9 (10.0)	8 (6.7%)	50 (11.1%)
60 and above	18 (7.5%)	-	5 (4.2%)	23 (5.1%)
Educational level				
No formal education	17 (7.1%)	15 (16.7%)	3 (2.5%)	35 (7.8%)
Primary	58 (24.2%)	10 (11.1%)	9 (7.5%)	77 (17.1%)
Secondary	121 (50.4%)	41 (45.6%)	68 (56.7%)	230 (51.1%)
Tertiary	44 (18.3%)	24 (26.7%)	40 (33.3%)	108 (24.0%)
Marital status				
Single	91 (38.1%)	31 (34.4%)	71 (59.2%)	193 (43.0%)
Married	140 (58.6%)	51 (56.7%)	46 (38.3%)	237 (52.8%)
Divorced/separated	-	5 (5.6%)	-	5 (1.1%)
Widow/widower	8 (3.3%)	3 (3.3%)	3 (2.5%)	14 (3.1%)
Religion				
Christianity	237 (98.8%)	77 (85.6%)	117 (97.5%)	431 (95.8%)
Islam	-	-	-	-
Traditionalists	3 (1.2%)	13 (14.4%)	3 (2.5%)	19 (4.2%)
Occupation				
Farmer	87 (37.0%)	25 (27.8%)	14 (11.9%)	126 (28.4%)
Fishermen	17 (7.2%)	7 (7.8%)	-	24 (5.4%)
Trader	56 (23.8%)	16 (17.8%)	18 (15.3%)	90 (20.3%)
Oil worker	1 (0.4%)	5 (5.6%)	4 (3.4%)	10 (2.3%)
Labourer	9 (3.8%)	9 (10.0%)	15 (12.7%)	33 (7.4%)
Artisan	8 (3.4%)	6 (6.7%)	9 (7.6%)	23 (5.2%)
Civil service	17 (7.2%)	5 (5.6%)	19 (16.1%)	41 (9.3%)
Others	40 (17.0%)	17 (18.9%)	39 (33.1%)	96 (21.7%)
Income level				
Low income (Less than N20000)	181 (75.4%)	62 (68.9%)	89 (74.2%)	332 (73.8%)
Medium income (N20000-N39000)	37 (15.4%)	14 (15.6%)	15 (12.5%)	66 (14.7%)
High income (N40000 and above)	22 (9.2%)	14 (15.6%)	16 (13.3%)	52 (11.6%)

While it was observed that none of the respondents indicated that they practised Islam, nearly all the respondents were adherents of Christianity. This suggests that the rural communities in the three states were dominated by those who practised the Christian religion. On the occupation of the respondents, although the proportions of all occupational categories seem to spread across the selected rural communities in the three states, the proportion of those who engaged in farming was greater than other categories of occupation except for those in Rivers State whose highest proportion of respondents were those who indicated 'others' which included drivers, students, etc. On their average income, majority of the respondents earned low-income level (less than N20000) compared to one-tenth who earned high-income level every month. This suggests a high level of poverty among the rural communities in the states.

4.2 Developmental Challenges faced by Rural Communities in the Selected States

The developmental challenges of the respondents were ascertained, Figure 1 reports the various developmental challenges dwellers of rural communities were facing by their states of residence. The results of the challenges faced varied by states. While more than half of the rural dwellers in Rivers State were faced with flooding (51.3%), poor educational facilities (53.8%), poverty/unemployment (89.0%) and poor medical facilities (53.8%); the majority of their counterparts in Delta state had developmental challenges of poor educational facilities (94.8%), poverty/unemployment (61.0%), poor medical facilities (85.7%) and poor/electricity supply (54.5%).

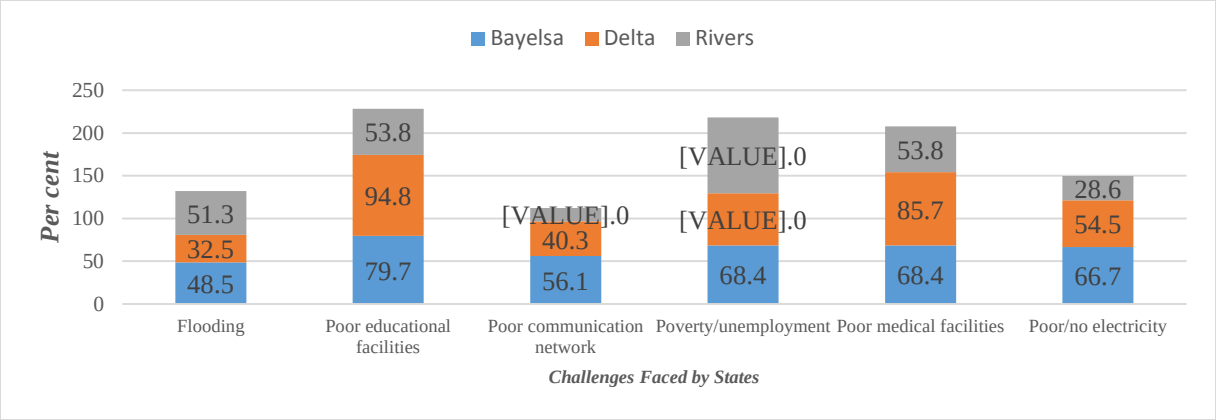

Figure 1: Percentage distribution of respondents by the developmental challenges faced by rural communities in the selected states

Similar developmental challenges were also observed in Bayelsa State with the majority of the respondents having poor educational facilities (79.7%), poor communication network (56.1%), poverty/unemployment (68.4%), poor medical facilities (68.4%) and poor or no electricity supply (66.7%). These results suggest that though dwellers of rural communities faced almost the same developmental challenges, the proportion of their challenges varied by categories.

4.3 Infrastructural needs assessment of rural communities

Respondents were asked the specific areas of infrastructural facilities requiring intervention in their respective communities, table 3 shows the percentage distribution of the respondents by infrastructural facilities. In multiple responses, it was revealed that the highest proportions of the respondents Bayelsa State require interventions in the supply of potable water, health care, educational facilities, agriculture, skill acquisition, business start-up fund other areas of need which included supports for business equipment and housing facilities.

Table 3: Relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and special areas most requiring interventions

Socio-demographic variables	Special areas most requiring interventions (Column %)							
	Portable water	Health care	Educational facilities	Agriculture	Skill acquisition	Business start-up fund	Electricity	Other needs
State								
Bayelsa	61.7%	56.5%	51.0%	60.4%	46.9%	54.0%	66.2%	52.8%
Delta	20.8%	21.6%	26.9%	25.3%	23.0%	15.3%	23.1%	32.1%
Rivers	17.4%	21.9%	22.1%	14.3%	30.1%	30.7%	10.6%	15.1%
Gender								
Male	51.0%	61.3%	64.7%	60.4%	62.0%	63.3%	62.0%	67.9%
Female	49.0%	38.7%	35.3%	39.6%	38.0%	36.7%	38.0%	32.1%
Age in group (in years)								
Less than 20	8.7%	10.5%	13.5%	11.0%	13.5%	10.7%	9.7%	9.4%
20 – 29	20.8%	26.7%	23.7%	24.0%	26.1%	31.3%	25.0%	18.9%
30 – 39	32.2%	24.8%	27.9%	17.5%	27.9%	22.7%	30.6%	24.5%
40 – 49	21.5%	21.0%	21.5%	29.2%	19.0%	19.3%	21.3%	26.4%
50 -59	13.4%	8.9%	8.3%	11.0%	8.6%	12.0%	11.1%	13.2%
60 and above	3.4%	8.3%	5.1%	7.1%	4.9%	4.0%	2.3%	7.5%
Marital status								
Single	32.4%	41.1%	39.9%	44.4%	44.6%	43.0%	33.0%	34.0%
Married	63.5%	53.2%	55.9%	49.0%	50.8%	51.0%	63.3%	64.2%
Divorced/separated	1.4%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	1.5%	0.7%	1.4%	1.9%
Widow/widower	2.7%	4.1%	2.6%	5.9%	3.1%	2.3%	2.3%	-
Educational level								
No education	7.4%	9.2%	9.6%	11.7%	8.0%	10.0%	6.9%	7.5%
Primary	20.8%	17.5%	15.7%	18.2%	16.3%	15.3%	23.1%	34.0%

Secondary	49.7%	50.2%	49.4%	48.2%	54.9%	49.3%	47.2%	30.2%
Tertiary	22.1%	23.2%	25.3%	21.4%	20.9%	25.3%	22.7%	28.3%
Religion								
Christianity	96.0%	94.3%	95.5%	93.5%	94.8%	95.3%	94.0%	98.1%
Islam	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Traditionalists	4.0%	5.7%	4.5%	6.5%	5.2%	6.0%	1.9%	1.9%
Occupation								
Farmer	30.9%	33.2%	26.1%	36.7%	26.2%	24.0%	28.2%	30.2%
Fishermen	4.7%	6.1%	5.8%	6.0%	4.0%	6.1%	6.1%	1.9%
Trader	23.5%	15.8%	21.0%	21.3%	20.4%	23.0%	23.0%	24.5%
Oil worker	3.4%	2.3%	2.9%	1.3%	1.2%	0.5%	0.5%	-
Labourer	7.4%	10.0%	5.8%	8.0%	8.3%	6.6%	6.6%	3.8%
Artisan	3.4%	4.8%	5.5%	1.3%	6.2%	5.6%	5.6%	13.2%
Civil servants	11.4%	9.4%	9.4%	8.7%	9.0%	10.8%	10.8%	5.7%
Others	15.4%	18.4%	23.5%	16.7%	24.7%	19.2%	19.2%	20.8%
Income level								
Low income	13.5%	17.5%	20.3%	8.3%	14.1%	10.3%	11.1%	-
Medium income	37.8%	40.4%	39.0%	12.5%	32.4%	6.9%	26.7%	55.6%
High income	48.6%	42.1%	40.7%	79.2%	53.5%	82.8%	62.2%	44.4%

In terms of occupation categories, the results revealed that farmers are more likely to require specific areas of interventions in all infrastructural facilities when compared to others. This may not be unsurprising as this study was conducted in rural areas where a large number of people engaged in farming more than other occupational categories. Finally, those of high income seem to desire all areas of intervention compared to those who were of low and average income. These results indicate that although there are many areas of needs require interventions in the rural areas, yet the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents related to the specific areas. Conversely, the summary of the qualitative data gathered from the respondents to provide a piece of more robust information about the needs of rural communities is presented in table 4.

Table 4: Specific areas of interventions in rural communities based on the magnitudes of needs by states

Specific areas of interventions	**Bayelsa**	**Delta**	**Rivers**
Portable water	√√√	√√	√
Health care facilities:			
Establishment of new health centres	√√√	√√	√√
Supply of medical personnel	√√√	√√	√√
Supply of drugs	√√√	√√√	√√√
Supply of ambulances	√√√	√√√	√√√
Upgrading of health facilities	√√√	√	√√
Educational facilities:			
Establishment of new primary schools	√	√	√
Establishment of new secondary schools	√√√	√	√
Supply of qualified teacher	√√√	√√√	√√√
Renovation of school buildings	√√√	√√√	√√√
Upgrading of laboratory	√√√	√	√√
Supply of books	√√√	√√√	√√√
Supports for desks	√√√	√√	√√
Upgrading of school library	√√√	√√√	√√√
Supports for school fees	√√√	√√√	√√√
Scholarship to higher institutions	√√√	√√√	√√√
Agriculture:			
Fishing equipment	√√√	√	√
Farming equipment	√√√	√√√	√√√
Improved seedling	√√√	√√√	√√√
Farm inputs (extension services)	√√√	√√√	√√√
Soft loans	√√√	√√√	√√√
Storage facilities	√√√	√√√	√√√
Value-added chain	√√√	√√√	√√√
Marketing of products	√	√	√
Start-up business capital/supports:			

Sales of farm products	√√	√√	√√√
Sales of provisions	√√√	√√√	√√√
Computer business centre	√√	√√	√√√
Transportation business supports	√√√	√√√	√√√
Fish farming business supports	X	√√	√√√
Arable farming business supports	√√√	√√	√
Stationeries business supports	√√	√√	√√
Skill acquisition programmes:			
Training programmes (tailoring, welding, computer, etc.)	√√√	√√√	√√√
Supports for equipment	√√√	√√√	√√√
Supports for adult education	X	X	√
Training on business skills	√√√	√√√	√√√
Electricity supply:			
Need connection to the national grid	√√√	√√	√
Need to improve power supply	√√√	√√√	√√√
Need an alternative power source	√√√	√√√	√√√

NB: √√√ = where the specific area of intervention is highly needed, √√= where the specific areas of intervention are not highly needed, √ = where specific areas of intervention are less needed, X = where it is not needed.

These are reported based on the degree to which the specific areas of intervention were needed by states, and are ranged from the need for portable water supply, health care facilities, educational facilities, agricultural supports, start-up business capital and skill acquisition programme to an electricity supply. The symbols were shown to indicate whether the specific needs are highly needed (√√√), not highly needed (√√), less needed (√) and not mentioned as needed (X) in their respective communities at the time of the survey.

5. Discussion of Findings

This study focused on the needs assessment for effective development in rural communities of the Niger Delta Region (Nigeria). In line with the findings of the study, a large majority of the respondents were males with those in Rivers State having the highest percentage compared to their female counterparts. This suggests that there were more male respondents than female ones. Despite this, the needs and aspirations of the rural people, there seem to be no variations in the needs and aspirations of rural communities in the region. It was also revealed that the majority of the respondents were within the age brackets of 20 – 39 years. This means that a large number of people in rural communities of the Niger Delta Region were young population compared to those who were above 50 years. This may have implications on their needs. For example, while it is expected that the younger population would desire more of educational facilities, the older population may be more of health needs.

Further findings from the study indicated that about half the respondents both in Bayelsa and Rivers except in Delta State had attained secondary school education. This suggests that educational needs of rural communities in the study areas could be targeted at pursuing more higher educational qualification for the young adults through scholarship and bursaries while the young adolescents of the rural communities are targeted with the provisions of basic school facilities. Findings also revealed that more than half of the respondents in Bayelsa and Delta were married while the majority of those in Rivers State were single. This may also have implications on the social or infrastructural needs of the rural communities in the future.

Moreover, the findings revealed that the majority of the study participants were Christians when compared to other religion. This could also have policy implication on the provision of future spiritual needs of the rural populace. The finding showed that almost all categories of occupations were engaged in all rural communities of the selected states though with variations among those who engaged in farming being greater than other categories of occupation except for those in Rivers State in proportion. This could also mean a lot to the needs and aspirations of the people based on their occupation. On the average income received by the respondents, a large majority of the respondents earned low-income level below USD55 (less than N20000) compared to those who earned above USD55 on monthly basis. This points to the fact that there is a high level of poverty among the rural communities in the states.

Conversely, findings from this study corroborate those of earlier studies in the region, which had

highlighted the majority of the challenges of the rural dwellers were faced with. This study indicated that more than half of those in Rivers State was faced with flooding, poor educational facilities, poverty/unemployment and poor medical facilities; the majority of their counterparts in Delta state had developmental challenges of poor educational facilities, poverty/unemployment, poor medical facilities and poor/electricity supply, while it was observed that majority of the respondents in Bayelsa State were being faced with the challenges of poor educational facilities, poor communication network, poverty/unemployment, poor medical facilities and poor or no electricity supply. This is by implication suggesting that although the rural communities in the three states had similar challenges, the magnitude to which they were affected varied by communities such as education, poverty, among others. These findings affirm Otega, Dani and Badariah (2015), Eneh (2011), and Davidheiser and Nyiayaana (2011), who identified education, poverty and poor health facilities as major challenges facing communities in the Niger Delta Region.

Because of the peculiarity of oil exploration in most rural communities of the Niger Delta Region (Nigeria), they are more vulnerable to environmental hazards (Enyoghasim et al., 2019), and consequently poor availability of portable water (Owamah, 2020), health hazards (Nnaemeka, 2020), low access to education (Eneh, 2011), among others. Findings from this study, however, revealed that the majority of the respondents in their respective rural communities do not only desire the provisions of potable water suitable for drinking, health facilities for its teeming population but education facilities as well as start-up business capital, among others to cushion the effects of environmental-induced hazards and lack of social amenities in the rural areas of the region.

Furthermore, the study revealed that the needs of the rural communities varied by socio-demographic characteristics, thus, it has no significant variations by the socio-demographic variables. This means that the needs of the rural areas of the selected states are almost similar. This is by implication pointing to the fact that there is a need to adopt the master plan of infrastructural and human development issues of the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) in the region if only the commission can redirect her developmental approach on community development as earlier suggested by Okolo (2014).

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

While most of the developmental projects executed in the study communities tended towards top-down approach with the exclusion of targeted members of the communities to which the projects were executed, community-driven or bottom-up approach has not been given the utmost attention it required for successful implementation of developmental projects/programmes in some of the communities in the region. Because community members are the end-users of the developmental projects, it is needful that they are involved in the process of developmental projects by concerned agencies of government, NGOs and the oil companies.

Although most communities in the region benefit from the benevolence of the government, NGOs and the oil companies in terms of provision of basic needs, human factors are found to impede their successful and satisfactory implementation. These factors are ranged from hijacks, nepotism, favouritism among other corrupt practices by community leaders. Community leaders in the region must be orientated to cooperate with the communities they are leading to a successful implementation of community development projects.

Given the findings of this research, the following are policy recommendations for defining a successful citizen participation model of development in the Niger Delta region:

- All development partners including; governmental agencies, oil operators, and non-governmental agencies should encourage effective citizens' participation in the initiation of community development projects in the Niger Delta area to sustain the purpose and viability of such projects.
- The above agencies should also carry out feasibility studies to determine the needs assessment of the people before embarking on such projects.
- To prevent the hijack of aids/supports by the leadership of communities in the region, the delivery of aids/supports to individual members across communities by the government, NGOs and oil companies should be done and monitored by neutral/independent bodies who will, in turn, be found responsible to the institutions from which aids/supports are delivered.
- To alleviate the suffering of people in the region, it is needful that basic social amenities such as health care centres, schools, electricity, jetties, communication networks among others are provided in all communities. Where they are available, efforts to equip them with necessary facilities and manpower should be made.

- To cushion the effects of youth unemployment in the region, there should be constant youth empowerment programmes through skill acquisition programmes, scholarships etc.
- Those who are into one business or the other should be taught soft skills such as; investment, management, marketing, etc. and if possible be encouraged to expand their business through soft loans. This will enable them to employ others.

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Amnesty for Militants and Sustainable Peace in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria

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Abstract. The objective of this study is to ascertain the extent to which the amnesty programme for the militants in the Niger Delta has stemmed the tide of restiveness in the region. The study relied on secondary data sourced from textbooks, journals and newspapers and employed relative deprivation theory as a framework of analysis. The findings showed that the amnesty programme for the militants was a child of necessity adopted by the Nigerian government to check the incessant acrimony in the Niger Delta region to stabilise oil production. On the one hand, the disarmament and demobilisation components of the programme to a large extent, reduced hostilities in the region. This trend led to an increase in oil production. On the other hand, contradictions inherent in the implementation of the programme particularly the reintegration of the ex-militants, suspension of the sponsorship of their education, the deployment of force by the government and failure of the policy to address issues of infrastructural development, environmental degradation, youth employment among others spurred fresh hostilities in the region. The study concluded that for the programme to be successful, reintegration efforts must be comprehensive, constant dialogue with all stakeholders as well as meaningful infrastructural development in the region should be central in the agenda of the government.

Keywords: Amnesty, Disarmament, Demobilisation, Militancy, Niger Delta, Peace-building, Reintegration

1. Introduction

The Niger Delta region of Nigeria is one of the important wetlands and marine ecosystem in the world. The region is made of up nine of the thirty-six states of the Nigerian federation and having a population of about 31,224,587 million people (NPC, 2006) and heavily endowed with large oil deposits. It has been estimated that oil extracted from the Niger Delta region accounts for over 70% of revenue accruing to the federation account (Ikelegbe & Umukoro, 2016). Paradoxically, even though the Niger Delta region is the economic hub of the Nigerian State, attaining peace in the region particularly since the commencement of the Fourth Republic in 1999 had been a thorny issue which has continued to attract national and global attention.

The Niger Delta region had become a great concern because of pervasive civil disturbances, violence and economic sabotage**.** The hostilities and violence unleashed in the region have continued to spawn a series of contradictions such as threats to lives and property, lawlessness and criminal activities for the Nigerian State (Ikelegbe, 2010). The crisis has equally led to the wanton destruction of oil installations, which has been undermining the production, storage and transportation of oil (Tamuno 2011).

Several attempts have been made by successive Nigerian governments to bring peace to the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, but such attempts did not assuage the hostilities in the region. However, in the year 2008, the Yar'Adua led administration came up with the idea of granting amnesty to the militants as a mechanism to restore peace to the Niger Delta. The amnesty programme was targeted at achieving three primary objectives, namely: Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR) of ex-militants into the society. Since 2009 when the policy came into being, its impact on the Niger Delta region is viewed with mixed feelings. To some people, with the implementation of the amnesty policy, the federal government has been able to restore peace into the region **(**Omokhoa & Ikelegbe, 2016).To others, the amnesty policy has not achieved the desired results given the resurgence of increased militancy as evidenced in the emergence of the Niger Delta Avengers (NDA) and other groups whose activities have truncated oil production in the region under the President Muhammadu Buhari led administration (Okechukwu & Inyikalum, 2016). Succinctly put, the resurgence of hostilities and the emergence of new

militant groups showed that the amnesty had not addressed the fundamental causes of militancy in the Niger Delta region (Ebiede, 2017). It is against the backdrop that this study appraises the amnesty programme in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria with the view to analysing the components of the amnesty programme and ascertaining reasons for the resurgence of militancy and emergence of new militant groups.

2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to:

- identify the causes of militancy in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria,
- discuss the components of the amnesty programme for the militants in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria,
- ascertain the extent to which the amnesty has served as a peacebuilding mechanism in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria,
- explain the resurgence of hostilities in the Niger Delta region despite the implementation of the amnesty programme, and
- highlight measures capable of promoting peace in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

3. Methods and Materials of study

This study relied primarily on secondary data which are sourced from textbooks, journals and newspapers publications on militancy as well as the amnesty programme for the militants in the Niger Delta region. The argument canvassed in this study is that the little attention paid to the development of the Niger Delta region as well as the use of brutal force to suppress agitations by the people of the region transformed the non-violent protests to militancy. Apart from these preliminary remarks that comprise the introduction, objectives of the study, as well as the methods of study, the remaining part of the study is divided into six sections. Section one focuses on conceptual and theoretical issues. Section two delves into the framework of analysis. Section three delves into militancy in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, while the fourth section discusses amnesty as a peacebuilding mechanism in the Niger Delta. The fifth section focuses on the roadblocks to sustainable peace in the Niger Delta region, while section six concludes the study.

4. Conceptual and Theoretical Issues

The concept of amnesty has been variously defined in different ways by different writers. Amoda (2009) avers that amnesty approach to security, politics and conflict is a legal approach which refers to a general pardon of offence by the government and a deliberate overlooking of offences against a government. Viewed in this sense, when amnesty is granted, the criminally culpable person or persons are released from just punishment of the law. It also means, to cancel or not to exert punishment due to an offence. The views expressed by Ikelegbe (2010) are in consonant with that of Amoda. He asserts among other things that "amnesty is a guarantee of exemption from prosecution and pardons from punishment for certain criminal, rebel and insurgent actions hitherto committed usually against the state"(p.6). He asserts further that amnesty:

indemnifies affected persons in terms of safety and protection from punitive actions, retributions and associated losses and that it is usually within a specific time within which offenders admit the crime and take advantage of the general pardon. There are, however, certain commitments or remediative actions such as hand over of illegal arms and confession of illegal actions (p.7).

Ogege (2011) asserts that amnesty refers to a strategic state policy which takes a form of executive or legislative clemency in which offenders or those involved in illegal actions are formally pardoned. He asserts further that, once a person or group is granted amnesty, all records of the person's accusation, trial, conviction and imprisonment must be cast into oblivion or people must lose the memory of whatever atrocities the person had committed. Ogege (2011) argues further that an amnesty process in most cases is conditional. It requires the recipients to perform specific tasks such as providing information, admitting the truth about their actions and showing remorse. Amnesty is designed to achieve a series of objectives. Andreas (as cited in Ogege, 2011) advances the view that the philosophy behind the design of amnesty is to achieve the followings: To alleviate internal pressure, protect state agents from prosecution, promote peace and reconciliation, respond to international pressure, provide reparations, encourage exiles to return and to adhere to religious or cultural traditions. Regarding the Nigerian situation, the amnesty for the militants in Niger Delta was designed to restore peace.

In terms of the causes of militancy in the Niger Delta region, two lines of arguments are discernible in the literature. The first argument posits that militancy manifesting in hostage-taking, kidnapping, pipeline vandalisation and hijacking among others resulted mainly from frustration spawned by pervasive poverty, increasing unemployment and idleness of youths in the region. The argument is that despite the

centrality of the region to the Nigerian economy, in the opinion of the people of the Niger Delta, the region has both been marginalised and deprived of access to the proceeds from the oil resources exploited from their soil and that all entreaties to receive attention from the government had failed to yield positive results (Tamuno, 2011). The argument is that the people resorted to militancy to prevent further alienation, exploitation and environmental degradation in the region. To this school of thought, the observed inadequate attention on the part of the government towards the development of the Niger Delta communities gave rise to community agitations mainly championed by the youths which started with the testimonies before Sir Willink Commission of Inquiry set up by the colonial authorities few years before independence.

This narrative of militancy in the Niger Delta shows that when independence was granted to Nigeria in 1960, the emergence of Nigerians in leadership positions did not address the grievances of the oil-rich region of the Nigerian State. Consequently, in the early days of independence, Isaac Adaka Boro who was an undergraduate student at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka led an armed protest against the Nigerian state over the exploitation of oil and gas resources in the Niger Delta area. He was the leader of Niger Delta Volunteer Force (NDVF), an armed militia with members consisting mainly of his fellow Ijaw ethnic extraction. Isaac Adaka Boro with his 40 member's armed group blew up oil pipelines, attacked police stations and declared the independence of Niger Delta Republic on February 23, 1966. This act was suppressed by the federal government of Nigeria, sanctioning Boro and his men to a death sentence. Ebienfa and Nwaodike (as cited in Ugwu, 2010) summarized the situation as a paradox of suffering amidst plenty and the realization of that stirred people in the Niger Delta to make demands on the Nigerian State and multinational oil companies to improve their living conditions.

The second explanation for militancy in the Niger Delta is that the people of the region did not resort to agitations mainly because of the neglect by the government but due to the fact that the series of the agitations did not yield any meaningful positive response on the part of the government. Instead, the agitations were met with state violence, a trend that resulted in the aggressive approach by the youths in the region. Simply put, the use of force by the government transformed the agitations to militancy manifesting in errant violent movement, sea piracy and bunkering of oil installations, agitation for resources control, hostage-taking of foreigners and local oil workers and communal clashes among others.

The direction of this narrative is that the neglect of the Niger Delta region and the attendant use of brutal force to suppress the agitation of people of the region for the development of their communities and the refusal of successive Nigerian governments to respond positively to their demands transformed the agitations of the people in the Niger-Delta to militancy (Ebienfa &Nwaodike (as cited in Ugwu, 2010). The struggle that started as a peaceful agitation became militarised in response to the violent posture of the insensitive Nigerian State to the plights of the people of the Niger Delta region. Succinctly put, militancy resulted from the application of force by the Nigerian government in quelling non-violent agitation/protests for development and resource control.

5. Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on Relative Deprivation Theory (RDT) as espoused by writers such as Gurr (1970), Rummel (1977) and Berkowitz(1989) among others. These writers linked aggressive behaviour to deprivation and frustration. Gurr a leading exponent of the (RDT), defined relative deprivation 'as 'actor's perception of the difference between their expectations and capabilities' (p.24). The central tenet of this theory is that when people consider what they are entitled to and what they have and there is a discrepancy, they may feel frustrated, and in the long run, aggression may set in. According to Runciman (cited in Schmitt, Maes & Widaman 2009;, Grasso,Yoxon, Karampampsa & Temple 2017) relative deprivation can be divided into two types. These are egoistic deprivation which is about individual deprivation and it relates to a situation where an individual compares himself or herself with other persons. The second typology is fraternal, which refers to a group deprivation, that is when a group of citizens compare themselves with other groups. The gap between what they perceived to be their entitlement and what they have is relative deprivation, and it creates frustration, aggression and violence. Dollard Dollard, Miller, Doob, Mowre and Sears, (cited in Berkowitz, 1989), explicitly established the nexus between frustration and aggression. To them, aggressive behaviour is caused by frustration, meaning that the manifestation of aggresive behaviour presupposes the existence of frustration. Simply put, frustration leads to aggression.

In this study, we advanced the position that the crisis in the Niger Delta region is attributed to deprivation

and frustration. The region is blessed with oil resources, but despite its contributions to the nation's economy, the people of the region have little to show for the presence of oil in their territory. The principle of revenue allocation, which ought to assuage the plight of the inhabitant of the region, has had a little positive impact on the people of the Niger Delta region. Series of attempts at drawing the attention of the government to address the grievances of the people of the region have not received the expected response. Thus, relative deprivation experienced by the people and the attendant frustration explains the aggressive behaviour such as militancy in the region.

6. Militancy in the Niger Delta Region

Militancy in the Niger Delta region is not a recent development that started with the return to civilian rule in 1999. Similarly, government response to the demands and agitation of the Niger Delta people is not equally a recent phenomenon. Both the agitations by the people of the region and the responses of the government started before the attainment of independence. The people of the Niger Delta started agitating against marginalisation, neglect and politics of exclusion by the majority ethnic nationalities before independence. Though the Willink Commission rejected their demands for a separate region, it nevertheless led to the setting up of the Niger-Delta Development Board (NDDB) to fast track the development of the region (Ikelegbe, 2005; Report of the Technical Committee on the Niger Delta, 2008). From all intents, it was not implemented to its logical conclusion hence the resurgence of a series of protests in the immediate years after independence. Such protests in the early years of independence included the Kaiama declaration by Isaac Adaka Boro earlier mentioned. Though the government eventually crushed the uprising, but sadly, it did not succeed in putting an end to agitations in that region.

The period of the civil war did not significantly witness many agitations; the period was, however, an era the federal government came up with legislations that transferred ownership of oil resources from the region and placing them under the control of the federal government. However, when the country returned to civilian rule in 1979, issues on oil resources took new dimensions. Governors of the major oil-producing states initiated legal actions against the federal government questioning the revenue allocation formula, which made little provision for the compensation of states where oil explorations were being carried out. Similarly, during the military era, particularly under the Abacha administration, the agitations extended to environmental issues. Prominent leaders of such agitations included Ken Saro Wiwa and other Ogoni eight who were executed by the military. This trend transformed agitations into militancy in the Niger Delta region.

With the enthronement of civilian government in 1999, one would have expected that the use of brutal force against the activists would cease and a more refined path to peacebuilding would be taken. This did not happen as the Obasanjo led administration continued with the authoritarian streak of the military. Military personnel were deployed to the region, and hapless and helpless civilians were attacked and killed as evidenced in the invasion and occupation of communities such as Uwuechem, Ogoni, Tombia, Kaiama, Soku, Odi, Agee, Ezetu, Gbanramatu, Oporoza, Peremabiri among others by the Nigerian military.

7. Amnesty as a Peacebuilding Mechanism in the Niger Delta Region

As noted earlier, the use of force did not deter agitations in the Niger-Delta. Instead, it transformed such agitations to militancy. This made the region to be unsafe for meaningful economic activities. Determined to put an end to the crisis in that region, late President Yar' Adua, on September 5, 2008, set up a 45 member Niger Delta Technical Committee, to review all previous reports on the Niger Delta region and come up with appropriate recommendations on the way forward for the region. The Committee which was headed by the then President of the Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People (MOSOP) Mr. Ledum Mitee has the following terms of reference:

To collate, review and distil the various reports, suggestions and recommendations on the Niger Delta from the Willinks Commission Report (1958) to the present and give a summary of the recommendations necessary for government action.

To appraise the summary recommendations and present a detailed short medium and long term suggestion for the challenges in the Niger Delta.

To make and present to the government any other recommendations that will help the Federal Government achieve sustainable development, peace, human and environmental security in the Niger Delta region (Report of the Technical Committee on the Niger Delta, 2008)

The Committee made far-reaching recommendations capable of returning enduring peace to the Niger Delta region. Part of the recommendations included the appointment of a mediator to facilitate discussions between government and militants; granting of amnesty to some militant leaders; launching disarmament, demobilisation and rehabilitation campaign, and increase in the percentage of oil revenue to the Niger Delta region to 25 per cent from the 13 per cent; establishing regulations that compel oil companies to have insurance bonds; making the enforcement of critical environmental laws a national priority; exposing fraudulent environmental cleanups of oil spills and prosecuting operators, ending gas flaring by December 31, 2008, as previously ordered by the Federal Government (Report of the Technical Committee on the Niger Delta, 2008).

The government accepted some of the recommendations of the Committee, particularly that of amnesty for the militants. It, therefore, set up a Presidential Panel on Amnesty and Disarmament of Militants in the Niger Delta on May 5, 2009, to implement the recommendations concerning the granting of amnesty to the militants. In furtherance of this, President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua on June 25, 2009, announced a general amnesty for militants. President Yar'Adua stated among other things:

The pardon shall take effect upon the surrender and handing over of all equipment, weapons, arms and ammunition and execution of the renunciation of Militancy Forms specified in the schedule hereto, by the affected persons at the nearest collation centre established for government in each of the Niger Delta States (Idonor, 2009)

The amnesty which was in three phases included the disarmament and demobilisation of militants; the rehabilitation and integration of ex-militants and the final stage of massive infrastructural development. The main thrust of the amnesty programme was that the militants were to surrender their arms and be pardoned for their nefarious activities. Each repentant militant was to receive the sum of N65, 000 (about US$420) as a monthly stipend. The Nigerian government considered the amnesty programme as a child necessity to halt insurgents who ought to have been punished for engaging in treasonable offences and criminal activities from facing the wrath of the law for peace to reign

The aim of the Federal Government in granting amnesty was to disarm, demobilise, rehabilitate and reintegrate the militants into the society, for peace to reign and to put an end to the wave of violence, destruction and other criminal activities in the region which have stifled oil production in the region. As noted by Ushie (2013), the decision to grant amnesty to the militants is a novel approach to the resolution of the crisis in the Niger Delta that is different from previous attempts characterised by the use of state power to suppress agitations of the people of the Niger Delta. It is an equally an acknowledgement that the crisis in the Niger Delta region requires a democratic, participatory solution and not the use of force to suppress the oppressed and impoverished maritime communities.

In the first stage of the amnesty which commenced on August 6, 2009, and ended on October 4, 2009, the militants were requested to surrender their arms at designated centres to allow for appropriate documentation, rehabilitation and reintegration. At the end of the exercise, it was recorded that a total number of 26,358 militants surrendered arms in their possession. The rationale behind the disarmament was the belief that voluntary submission, mopping up and collection of arms being used by the militants would, to a considerable extent incapacitate them. Though with the mopping of arms, there was ceasefire and normalcy started returning to the region, it has been observed that the exercise was not all that successful given the disparity between the number of registered militants that participated in the amnesty programme and the number of arms and ammunition handed in by the militants. According to Agbo (as cited in Ekumaoko, 2013), a total of 1,798 riffles, 1981 guns of various types, 70 RPGs, 159 pistols, one spear and six cannons were surrendered by the repentant militants. This number was a far cry from the 26,358 militants that were beneficiaries of the amnesty programme (Ejovi & Ebie, 2013). The argument has been that if a weapon each was handed in by the militants, it should have been in the neighbourhood of the number benefiting from the programme. This suggests that not all the arms were handed in by the militants and as such a little provocation could lead to re-armament of the militants as evidenced in the resurgence of the activities of the Niger Delta Avengers (NDA).

The second component, that is, demobilisation focused on formal disbandment of the militant groups from carrying out the purpose of their formation. This was partially achieved as many of the militants renounced the membership of their groups. However, the success of this stage was marred by the issue of mismanagement of stipends granted the ex-militants, allowance unpaid or not paid regularly, huge disparities between payments made to foot soldiers and former militants commanders, limited access to

rehabilitation training and allowances for those who surrendered weapons after the deadline, inappropriate training provision, limited employment prospects, the absence of a broader political settlement involving the broader Niger Delta population that has borne the costs of conflict, and the politically motivated staffing of bodies responsible for implementing and coordinating the amnesty programme as part of the numerous flaws of the amnesty (Jombo, 2016)

The third stage that is, reintegration revolved around making the ex-combatants reacquire civilian status, gain sustainable employment and make a decent income was given priority. During the Dr Goodluck Jonathan led administration, the government embarked on skills acquisition for the ex-militants. The reintegration component of the amnesty programme was progressively implemented. Efforts were targeted at offering the ex-militants practical training and formal education within and outside the shores of Nigeria. Many of ex-militants were allowed to study one course or the other in foreign countries (Ebiri, 2018). The federal government was not only responsible for the tuition of these militants but also gave them upkeep allowance. During this period, a lid was placed on militant activities, a modicum of peace and peaceful cohabitation was achieved

8. Roadblocks to Sustainable Peace in the Niger-Delta

The preliminary analysis of the implementation of the disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration components of the amnesty programme which was designed to bring back peace and security to the Niger Delta region shows that it initially yielded the expected results. Before the declaration of the amnesty, it was estimated that Nigeria was losing over one million barrels of crude oil per day estimated to be in the range of (N8.7billion) ($58m) as of May 2009. Similarly, the crisis was seen to have claimed over 1000 lives in 2008 alone (OSAPND, 2018).

During the regime of Dr Goodluck Jonathan (2010-2015), the region witnessed safer waterways, reduction in kidnapping cases and destruction of oil installations, and reduction in the hostilities against the multinational oil companies and the fact the local population was supporting the government in apprehending criminals and trouble makers. The ceasefire at the wake of the implementation of the amnesty programme led to an increase in the country's oil output which rose to 2.3million oil barrels per day from the meagre production of 800,000 barrels of oil per day between 2006 and 2008 (Ejovi & Ebie, 2013; Nwobueze & Inokoba, 2017). However, this could not be sustained due to the following reasons.

First, the emphasis on demobilisation of the militants was a hoax. The belief that mopping up arms would incapacitate the militants in embarking on offensive attacks on military formations and oil installations proved otherwise. Apart from the fact that the total arms surrounded were far below the number of repentant militants, demobilisation had little answer to the plight of the people of the Niger Delta region. Efforts were not directed at factors that led to increased militancy. Instead, attention was on the instruments used by the militants. Ibaba (2011) aptly captured this when posited the question that:
Does the surrender of arms and renunciation of violence by militants bring the frustration of the entire population to an end? Are the militants the only deprived in Niger Delta? Are the amnesty programme and the attention given to the ex-militants not reinforcing the frustration of those who did not take up arms against the Nigerian state? My answer to the first two is No, but the answer to the third question is in the affirmative. This brings us to the point that violence could rear up or recur in the region if the frustration which supports insurgency is not resolved. Resolving these frustrations is, therefore, a requirement for peacebuilding in the region (Ibaba, 2011:264).

In a similar vein, it has been noted that the amnesty was exclusive because it targeted only militants without consideration for the victims of militancy and hostage-taking in the region (Akinwale, 2010; Ebiede, 2017). Similarly, Dahou (as cited in Oluduro & Oluduro, 2012) equally posits that families (mothers and children) who lost fathers and sons and homes and have been displaced by the conflict were not included in the amnesty package. Moreover, the state's monetisation of community grievances has been viewed as unsustainable, because it implies that the state was merely paying militants to be peaceful based on oil revenues which are finite and volatile (Ushie, 2013)

Secondly, apart from the issue of the target group, it was alleged that about 80 per cent of the budget was expended on payments of consultants and contractors leaving a paltry 20 per cent for the rehabilitation of the ex-militants. There was also allegation on the over bloating of the numbers of registered ex-militants and that some of the training centres did not meet acceptable standards and were operating with inadequate facilities, among others (Ezeamalu, 2019).

Thirdly, it has been observed that the amnesty policy was not comprehensively enough hence not capable of addressing the problems that spawned agitations and militancy in the Niger-Delta. We have referred to poverty, the inadequacy of infrastructure, environmental degradation, pollution, dislocation associated with the oil prospecting, among others as part of the reasons for militancy in the region. These have not been captured by the amnesty thus corroborating the view that the amnesty was designed to palliate the people of the Nigeria Delta to permit the various oil companies in the region go about their regular business and in the process stabilise the revenue accruing to the government from that sector and region (Ebiri, 2018).

Fourth, the payment of stipends to the ex-militants could not be sustained. This led to the resurgence of militancy. During the early days of the first tenure of the Buhari led administration (2015-2019), specific measures put in place for the reintegration of the ex-militants under the amnesty programme, especially in the area of education suffered a severe setback when the dues - tuition and upkeep allowances of the ex-militants were not made available (Akasike, 2019). This led to a series of protests both within and outside Nigeria. Some of the ex-militants undergoing university education, especially in the United Kingdom and Malaysia were sent packing from their respective schools. The circumstances further aggravated the fragile peace in the Niger Delta region.

Fifth, in recent years the government resorted to the use of force to suppress agitations in the Niger Delta region. For instance, President Muhammadu Buhari was quoted to have said the federal government would not fail to use force should the militants refuse to embrace dialogue as offered by the government (Ikeke, nd). This was followed by the massive deployment of military personnel to the region. The activities of the military coded 'Operation Crocodile Smile' which aimed at protecting military and oil installations did not deter militancy but sparked off fresh hostilities in the region.

9. Conclusion

Despite the above-observed shortcomings of the amnesty programme in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, the programme according to many pundits has, to a considerable extent restored peace in the Niger-Delta which has led to an increase in oil production (Ejovi & Ebie, 2013; Nwobueze & Inokoba, 2017; OSAPND, 2018). However, the resurgence of violence and destruction of oil installations suggests that all is not well with the amnesty programme as already discussed. The issues of revenue allocation, environmental pollution, particularly the cleanup of Ogoni land, infrastructural development, youth employment, among others, have not received adequate attention (Ebiri, 2018).

There is no doubt about the fact that the need to have sustainable peace in the Niger Delta region has been the desire of successive Nigeria government due to the importance of the region to the nation's economy. The failure of the various intervention programmes to bring about socio-economic development from Niger Delta Development Board (NDDB), Oil Mineral Producing Areas Development Commission (OMPADEC), Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC), and Ministry of Niger Delta to mention but few have been attributed to lack of political will. The amnesty programme may go in the way of other intervention programmes if the federal government fails to do the needful in keeping the programme afloat to sustain peace and peaceful cohabitation in the Niger Delta region. The following are therefore recommended for sustainable peace in the region.

- Reintegration of ex-militants under the DDR arrangement is a long term investment, and concerted effort must be made to see it through. It is rather disturbing that ex-militants under the amnesty programme that are undergoing university education and practical training both within and outside Nigeria, who are yet to complete their training are left in limbo, to either fetch for themselves or abandon such training. This will be not only a wasted investment on the part of the federal government that had sponsored the training/education for one or two years but also the bitterness that will generate from the victims who are unable to complete their education may relapse into hostility in no distant future.
- To avoid trashing the achievement of the amnesty programme, the government must put in place adequate and effective funding process into the post amnesty programmes. Similarly, social and economic infrastructure must be put in place in the Niger Delta region to stem the wave of agitations.
- The deployment of force from all indications has proven to be an ineffective measure aimed at suppressing agitation and militancy in the Niger-Delta region. All stakeholders must embrace dialogue as the pathway to

addressing the grievances of the people of the region.

- Marginalisation and deprivation must be critically looked into. A comprehensive development plan for the region must be put in place. The Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) must be well funded and monitored to ensure that funds released are judiciously utilised for the right purpose.
- Policies and programmes that have the capacity of addressing unemployment among Nigeria youths, in general, must be put in place and implemented vigorously. This, by extension, will reduce the activities of unemployed youths in the Niger Delta region that are restoring to militancy as a means for survival.

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Transnational Actors in the era of Complex Interdependence and Globalization

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Abstract. Of particular importance for International Relations (**IR**) are transnational actors (**TNAs**) that wield considerable influence on politics across borders, such as non-governmental organizations (**NGOs**), multinational corporations (**MNCs**), religious actors, terrorism rebels, criminal actors, and diasporas and ethnic actors. 'Transnational' is a frequently mentioned key word in International Relations (**IR**) today, to denote in a simplifying manner an organization working beyond state boundaries and acting independently from traditional state authorities. The scholarly recognition of such actors occurred relatively late in the field and advanced with the acceleration of globalizing economic, political, cultural and social processes. This paper emphasizes that despite the appearance of transnational actors (**TNAs**) as a topical and palpable concern for academics and practitioners alike, questions of conceptual vagueness and relational indeterminacy remain, and the continual proliferation of these entities lends urgency to more scholarly attention on these agents. This paper views transnational actors (**TNAs**) as political, social, cultural and economic agents or groups which operate trans-societal and/or trans-governmental across borders in pursuit of their goals, to a certain degree independently from domestic governmental considerations. This paper further stresses that the subject of International Relations (**IR**) originally covered simply the relations between states. Economic bodies and social groups, such as banks, industrial companies, students, environmentalists, and women's organizations, were given secondary status as non-state actors. It opines that this two-tier approach has been challenged, particularly by the effects of globalization. First, ambiguities in the meaning given to 'a state', and its mismatch with the contemporary world, result in it not being a useful concept. Greater clarity is obtained by analyzing inter-governmental and inter-society relations, with no presumption that one sector is more important than the other. Second, governments are losing sovereignty when faced with the economic activities of transnational companies and the violent threat from criminals, terrorists and guerrillas. Third, non-governmental organizations (**NGOs**) engage in such a web of global relations, including participation in diplomacy, that governments have lost their political independence. This paper concludes that events in any area of global policy-making have to be understood in terms of complex systems, containing governments, companies, and NGOs interacting in a variety of international organizations.

Keywords: Transnational, Transnational Actors, Transsocietal Relations, Transnational Agents, Transnational Relations, Transnational Organizations, International Relations, International Organizations, Political Actors

1. Introduction

While international institutions were long the exclusive preserve of national governments, the past decades have witnessed a gradual and partial shift from interstate cooperation to more complex forms of governance, involving participation by transnational actors (**TNAs**), such as non-governmental organizations (**NGOs**), advocacy networks, party associations, and multinational corporations (**MNCs**). Increasingly, states and international institutions are engaging transnational actors (**TNAs**) as policy experts, service providers, compliance watchdogs and stakeholder representatives. The World Bank, for instance, draws on the expertise of NGOs in the formulation of country reports, engages in operational collaboration with civil society actors in the field, and conducts policy dialogue through the NGO-World Bank Committee. Whereas only 21 percent of all World Bank funded projects involved civil society participation in 1990, this figure had risen to 78 percent in 2018 (Gotz 2019). The United Nations Environmental Programme (**UNEP**) provides another example, engaging transnational actors

(**TNAs**) by offering NGOs accreditation to its meetings, operating a Global Civil Society Forum, and drawing on civil society in the implementation of its programmes.

Transnational actors (**TNAs**) are, by definition, political, social, cultural, and economic agents or groups which operate trans-societal and/or trans-governmental across borders in pursuit of their goals, to a certain degree independently from domestic governmental considerations. "Transnational" is a frequently mentioned key word in International Relations (**IR**) lexicon today, often conflated with "international" or "supranational" to denote in a simplifying manner an organization working beyond state boundaries and acting independently from traditional state authorities. The scholarly recognition of such actors occurred relatively late in the field and advanced with the coinciding acceleration of globalizing economic, political, cultural, and social processes. Despite the appearance of transnational actors (**TNAs**) as a topical and palpable concern for academics and practitioners alike, questions of conceptual vagueness and relational indeterminacy remain, and the continual proliferation of these entities lends urgency to more scholarly attention on these agents.

In the original, groundbreaking work on interdependent transnationalism by Keohane and Nye (1972), all entities interacting across national boundaries with at least one non-state agent present were considered transnational, which arguably included intergovernmental organizations (**IGOs**). Transnational relations, then, were different and novel in that they represented "contacts, coalitions, and interactions across state boundaries that are not controlled by the central foreign policy organs of the government" (1972: 11). In their later work (1974), the authors retracted from the inclusion of IGOs and categorized them separately as transgovernmental actors, thereby creating a debate centered on the validity of political agents that were not traditional state representatives, as Huntington (1973) and Bull (1977) contested the (government-) exclusive reading of TNAs. While the former group of scholars wanted to challenge the state-centric system in view of the proliferation of non-traditional actors, the latter remained somewhat wedded to the state system and focused on the activity focus, rather than the nature, of these organizations. Thus, a narrow reading of the term does not count IGOs as they are part of governments, but others include them in the definition because they act mainly in a cross-border fashion and constitute global governance (Arts 2002; Munoz 2008; Tarrow 2018).

To avoid the debate on the labeling of IGOs, one could call International Organizations (**IOs**) transgovernmental actors and reserve the term "classic" TNAs to non-state actors such as civil society representatives and private interest groups acting transnationally. Recent years have seen an emphasis on private business regulation (Kolb 2015; Koenig-Archibugi and Zuern 2016) and social activism (Keck and Sikkink 2008; Dingwerth 2017; Joachim and Locher 2018), which tend to exclude IGOs as well.

Trans-national does not simply signify inter-national; it refers to the organization of power beyond the state (not between states) and is, thus, an open and somewhat nondescript term (Richter et al. 2006; Barnett and Finnemore 2014) denoting political coordination, exchanges, and regulation that transcend national boundaries. It should also be conceptually distinguished from supranational agents, as they represent a level of governance above the state. Transnational actors (**TNAs**), then, encompass a wide variety of boundary-crossing entities addressing a host of issues which cannot be resolved alone or are, for better or for worse, managed in a cross-border fashion. These activity areas vary from regime promotion to social activism to non-legitimate disruption of a political order and involve INGOs, transgovernmental epistemic communities, international advocacy networks, religious communities, and social movements as well as multinational companies.

In diplomacy, international law, journalism, and academic analysis, it is widely assumed that International Relations (**IR**) consist of the relations between coherent units called states. Better understanding of political change is obtained by analyzing the relations between governments and many other actors from each country (Della-Porta and Tarrow 2015; Orenstein et al. 2017). Global politics also includes companies and non-governmental organizations (**NGOs**). Thus the five main categories of political actors in the global system are:

- Nearly 200 governments in the global system, including 192 members of the UN;
- 77,200 transnational companies (**TNCs**), such as Vodaphone, Ford, Shell, Microsoft, or Nestle, with these parent companies having just over 773,000 foreign affiliates;
- More than 10,000 single-country non-governmental organizations such as Population Concern (UK), or the Sierra Club (USA), which have significant transnational activities;

- 246 intergovernmental organizations (**IGOs**) such as the UN, NATO, the European Union (**EU**), or the International Coffee Organization; and
- 7,300 international non-governmental organizations (**INGOs**), such as Amnesty International, the Baptist World Alliance or the International Chamber of Shipping, plus a similar number of less well-established international caucuses and networks of NGOs.

All these actors play a regular part in global politics and each government interacts with a diverse range of non-state actors. Sometimes guerrilla groups challenge the authority of particular governments. In addition, even though they are considered not to be legitimate participants in the system, terrorists and other criminal gangs have an impact, often minor, but sometimes in a major way. Very many more companies and NGOs only operate in a single country, but have the potential to expand into other countries.

Nobody can deny the number of these organizations and the range of their activities. The controversial questions are whether the non-state world has significance in its own right and whether it makes any difference to the analysis of inter-state relations. It is possible to define International Relations (**IR**) as covering the relations between states. This is known as the state-centric approach, or Realism. Then it is only a tautology (true by definition) to say that non-state actors are of secondary importance. A more open-ended approach, known as Pluralism, is based on the assumption that all types of actor can affect political outcomes. The very words, non-state actors, imply that states are dominant and other actors are secondary. An alternative phrase, transnational actors (**TNAs**), has been coined by academics in order to assert forcefully that International Relations (**IR**) are not limited to governments and other actors operate across country boundaries.

It is an acceptable analytical bias to decide, before research starts, that only states have any influence. Until the evidence indicates otherwise, we must assume that governments also interact with NGOs, companies, and international organizations. This paper will first examine the evolution of transnational actors (**TNAs**) in global politics. It will later consider how assumptions made about 'states' inhibit analysis of transnational actors (**TNAs**) and international organizations (**IOs**). Then it will emphasize that the major strands of international relations theories conceive of transnational actors (**TNAs**) differently, according to their stance on the substantive role of state governments and their assessment of changes in the international system. Following this, the nature of the different types of actor will be outlined. Finally, the case will be argued for always considering the activities of a diverse range of political actors.

2. The Historical Context of Transnational Actors

Historically, the precursory existence of trade- and activism-related transnational organizations has been observed since the days of colonialism starting in the fifteenth century (Risse 2002). Already in the fourteenth century, European merchant guilds along the main bodies of water established guidelines for the smooth exchange of commodities in an uncertain transnational exchange process threatened by foreign militaries and rulers (Hagel and Peretz 2005: 133; Zweifel 2015: 33). A few hundred years later, the nineteenth-century Concert of Europe represented an early form of supranational policy coordination among the major European powers at the time. Transnational actors (**TNAs**), however, gained in importance only with the advance of globalization processes in the twentieth century. Early on, the main such actors consisted in fact of large US and European agriculture, mining, and oil companies operating in their colonial territories (Willets 2018). After decolonialization commenced in the 1950s and 1960s, these subsidiaries continued their trade relationships and thus established an irreversible trend toward the transnationalization of the global political economy. Henceforth, some analysts prefer to call them transnational corporations (TNCs) rather than MNCs. The impact of the global political economy was such that it reshaped a previously protectionist state-centered global system and pushed it toward the liberalization and the removal of trade barriers, but simultaneously had a deteriorating effect on the less developed economies of the Global South (Willetts 1990; UNCTAD 2001; Appi 2008). Around that time, intergovernmental transnational politics was still in its infancy – the major exception being the League of Nations – compared to the vibrant world of nongovernmental transnational interactions that currently exists. In the interpretation of some analysts, the League was the first truly transgovernmental body in which delegates from the member states could "act as a wider transnational community of global citizens" (Willetts 1992: 322; Webster 2015: 494), and its task of protecting national minorities in the aftermath of World War I connected the IO with transboundary nongovernmental advocates of such groups.

Following the League's demise, the creation of the United Nations was in turn predated by many functional agencies, which began their existence regulating specific policy areas in a multilateral way. The UN as a system of coordinating transnational functional agencies coincided with the founding of the Bretton Woods institutions to address both political and economic concerns in the aftermath of World War II. To this end, separate organizations were created, which would avoid the complex process of reaching consensus and also provide increased political leverage for the victorious allied powers.

Reinforcing this transnational political coordination, the Bretton Woods institutions, including the UN-associated World Bank and International Monetary Fund (**IMF**) and the independently acting General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs – the precursor of the World Trade Organization (**WTO**) – augmented the already elevated power of the allies. All of these organizations were purely intergovernmental in character and they displayed fundamentally traditional power relationships in their relations to member states. The balance, however, was tipped when the UN began assisting for the decolonialization of the Global South's former colonies, thereby nominally improving the leverage of the developing world in the General Assembly. Evidence of this change in power relations can be found in the call for a new international economic order, the institutionalization of the Trade and Development body UNCTAD, and the UN Centre on Transnational Corporations (**UNCTC**) advocating a code of conduct for TNCs.

Despite the shortcomings of bureaucratic politics and national egotism, and the proliferation of non-state TNAs competing with it for influence in the world, the UN remains the transgovernmental vehicle for calling attention to global security, social, or environmental issues that are of concern to all constituents of the international community. Importantly, it also incorporated INGOs, interest groups, and non-profit organizations into its working procedures by affiliating them with the Economic and Social Council (**ECOSOC**), albeit only in a consultative fashion. NGOs were invited to provide their expertise in specific matters to the UN, to represent world public opinion, and, not to forget, bolster support for the institution. Over time, their influence spread to other functional agencies in the UN and expanded to include occasional hearings in the General Assembly and the Security Council (Stephenson 2010) aided by the Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations in Consultative Relationship with the UN (**CONGO**).

Reviving the debate on TNA characteristics, hybrid organizations composed of governmental as well as civil society representatives, such as the International Red Cross or Birdlife International, conflate the distinction of transgovernmental and transnational actors (Ackiss and Lorden 2006; Willets 2018). As such, the UN increasingly provides a platform for smaller nations, crises observers, and social justice activists to be heard (Kaul 1993; Puchala et al. 2017), while at the same time it continues to be constrained by the political will of its member state governments and the institutional access granted by UN accreditation.

In the 1970s and 1980s, after the detection of "complex interdependence" of states based primarily on economic exchange, MNCs and IGOs were the main entities theorized in the field. MNCs had varying impacts on the modernization of developing economies based on domestic characteristics rather than on TNCs' constituent characteristics (Risse 2002). TNCs, by virtue of their reliance on the market, are able to circumvent control of their home government and, because of the tremendous size of some companies – Walmart's revenue dwarfs the gross domestic product (**GDP**) of most states in the developing world– are capable of pressuring governments into trade- and fiscally related policies at home and abroad, as some of the more spectacular cases in the WTO have shown. The WTO, itself a branch of the Bretton Woods institutions that were created in the postwar period to regulate the global economy and finances under American auspices, experienced an impressive degree of expansion of transnational influence over private and public sectors alike. Over time, the main objectives of the Bank, providing loans for development projects, and the IMF's prevention of financial crises have come under pressure by transnational civil society agents (as well as beneficiary governments) for the ineffective and, at times, socially detrimental solutions that were prescribed in the "Washington Consensus" of the early 1990s and beyond (Cleary 2006).

The evolution of the WTO attests to the power of governments in promoting their "national champions," although, ironically, the protectionist ambitions of large companies and their backing governments speak against rather than for the much-touted neoliberal internationalism. Thus, while transnational actors such as TNCs did not eradicate state governments in the current global marketplace,

they certainly diminished and helped transform states' hold on power in the international arena and led to what analysts termed the "convergence hypothesis," the proposition that governments are increasingly exposed to the ups and downs of an integrated world economy (Strange 1996). As these agents amplified their power in the global economy, an augmentation of counter-movements and advocacy networks protesting the adverse developmental, social, and ecological effects of these firms occurred (Willets 2018; Smith 2018). This aspect became particularly accentuated as public exposure of companies in the global media by social justice movements and INGOs started to reach a transnational consumer audience, thus making customers aware of problematic production cycles involving, for instance, child labour, exploitative wages, and environmental degradation. Whereas TNCs from industrialized countries were the first to experience the wrath of an increasingly critical civil society, companies from emerging economies, mainly because of their impressive growth, are now being viewed as endangering the ownership and (labour) standards of industrialized economies. The regulation of TNCs through IGOs, however, remains rather weak, with most regulatory models based on voluntary codes of conducts (Mingst and Karns 2014: 407). In the economic sphere, another new set of actors entering the transnational marketplace are the so-called "sovereign funds," national wealth funds created by governments in search of an exploitation of global investment opportunities. Research into the lobbying and regulation of international trading schemes depicts the relationship between TNCs and the United Nations as an evolving, increasingly cooperative yet ambiguously interdependent one (Sagafi-Nejad 2018).

In contrast to the above mentioned examples, some transnational actors (**TNAs**) lack formal or popular legitimacy yet are able to exploit the connectedness of markets, countries, and people. Scholarly and political recognition of the augmented importance of "the dark side" of TNAs – transnational criminals (money launderers, pirates, human-, weapons-, and drug-smugglers), terrorist networks, etc., has occurred only in the past decade. Failed states and highly integrated regions alike provide fertile ground for illegal activities based on the lack of basic security and order or the acceleration of exchanges, respectively. Private mercenaries, questionable practices by multinationals, and disruptive civil protest movements add to the complexities of acting in the gray-zone of overlapping territorial jurisdictions. While they may be excluded from participation in regular state–society or state-to-state relations, extensive forms of illegitimate networks are increasingly able to exploit the manifold technological, spatial, and communicative interdependencies of a globalized world. This diminished the ability of domestic law enforcement agencies to respond appropriately to these groups. At the same time, transnational justice regimes are slowly responding to the challenges they face, for instance in the case of Interpol's police cooperation or the EU's judicial EuroJust coordination body. Similarly, academics have only begun to explore the ramifications of these dangerous developments on governments, IOs, and other transnational actors (**TNAs**), some theorized as counter-reactions to global processes of homogenization and Americanization/Westernization (Barber 2005), others as utilization of power vacuums created by economic liberalization and the spread of communication technologies (Bunker 2015). Few scholars in the field explore those illegitimate transnational practices and policies, either because they are too wedded to a state-centered analysis or they experience difficulties in systematically analyzing claims and estimates involved in these contentious areas (Friman 2013).

To sum up the historical overview of TNAs, they are often categorized as representing formal, transgovernmental relations (intergovernmental bodies) or the informal sort representing "classic" non-state TNAs ("civil society") (Alexandroff 2018). As Tarrow (2018) states, the focus on the characteristics of international organizations is one major avenue of research for academics, while the scholarly preoccupation with a specific area of activity exemplified by the workings of civil society organizations detailed below represents another. However, the integration of both of these, institutional and policy-based, areas of research remains one of the main challenges for future scholarship.

3. Problems with the State-Centric Approach in Global Politics

The great advantage of the state-centric approach is that the bewildering complexity of global politics is reduced to the relative simplicity of the interactions of less than 200 supposedly similar units. However, there are four major problems that suggest the benefits of simplification have been gained at the cost of the picture being distorted and blurred.

3.1 Ambiguity Between Different Meanings Of A 'State'

Writers who refer to the state often fail to use the term consistently and lack intellectual rigour by merging three concepts. The state as a legal person is a highly abstract fiction. This is easily confused with the concrete concept of a country, with a distinct political system of people sharing common values. Then there is a very dissimilar concept of a state as the apparatus of government. Unfortunately, no standard method exists to handle the ambiguity. From now on, this paper will use the word 'state' to indicate the abstract legal concept, while country and government will be used to analyze political behaviour.

Within traditional International Relations (**IR**) scholarship, civil society is understood to be part of the state, whereas for philosophers and sociologists, focusing on the state as government, civil society is separate from the state. Thus, in international law or when the state means the whole country, there is very little room to acknowledge the existence of distinct transnational actors (**TNAs**). Alternatively, when the state means the government and does not encompass civil society, we can investigate both intergovernmental relations and the inter-society relations of transnational actors (**TNAs**).

3.2 The Lack Of Similarity Between Countries

The second problem is that giving all 'states' the same legal status implies they are all essentially the same types of unit, when in fact they are not remotely similar. Orthodox analysis does acknowledge differences in size between the superpowers and middle and small powers. Nevertheless this does not suggest that at the end of the Cold War the United States economy was twice the size of the Soviet Union's economy, nor that at the start of this century the US economy was eight times China's, 64 times Saudi Arabia's, more than 1,400 times Ethiopia's, and over 100,000 times greater than Kiribati's. In terms of population, the divergences are even greater. The small island countries of the Caribbean and the Pacific with populations measured in tens of thousands are not comparable entities to ordinary small countries, let alone China or India: they are truly 'micro-states'. Alternatively, comparing the governments of the world reveals a diverse range of democracies, feudal regimes, ethnic oligarchies, economic oligarchies, populist regimes, theocracies, military dictatorships, and idiosyncratic combinations (Adwards and Caventa 2011: 222; Aeise 2015: 245). The only thing that the countries have in common is the general recognition of their right to have their own government. They are legally equal and politically very different.

The consequence of admitting the differences in size is to make it obvious that the largest transnational actors (**TNAs**) are considerably larger than many of the countries. In 2004, the 50 largest transnational industrial companies, by sales, each had annual revenues greater than the GNP of 133 members of the United Nations. Using people as the measure, many NGOs, particularly trade unions, churches, and campaigning groups in the fields of human rights, women's rights and the environment, have their membership measured in millions, whereas 42 of the 192 countries in the UN have populations of less than 1 million, of which twelve are less than 100,000. There is also great variation in the complexity and diversity of the economies and the societies of different countries and hence the extent to which they are each involved in transnational relations.

3.4 State Systems And International Systems

Third, there is an underlying analytical inconsistency in supposing 'states' are located in an anarchic international system. Whether it means a legal entity, a country, or a government, the 'state' is seen as a coherent unit, acting with common purpose and existing as something more than the sum of its parts (the individual people). At the same time, most advocates of the state-centric approach deny the possibility of such collective entities existing at the global level. The phrase the international system is denied its full technical meaning of a collectivity in which the component elements (the individual 'states') lose some of their independence. No philosophical argument has been put forward to explain this inconsistency in the assumptions made about the different levels of analysis. By exaggerating the coherence of 'states' and downplaying the coherence of global politics, both transnational relations and intergovernmental relations are underestimated.

3.5 The Difference Between State And Nation

Fourth, there is a behavioural assumption that politics within 'states' is significantly different from politics between 'states'. This is based on the idea that people's loyalty to their nation is more intense than other loyalties. Clearly, it cannot be denied that nationalism and national identity invoke powerful emotions for most people, but various caveats must be made about their political relevance. Communal identities form a hierarchy from the local through the

nation to wider groupings. Thus, both local communities and intergovernmental bodies, such as the European Community, can also make claims on a person's loyalty.

There has been a long-standing linguistic conjuring trick whereby national loyalty is made to appear as if it is focused on the nation-state. Both international relations and transnational relations cover relations across 'state' boundaries, although logically the words refer to relations between national groups, such as the Scots and the Welsh. In the real world, only a few countries, such as Iceland, Poland, and Japan, can make a reasonable claim that their people are from a single nation and in all such cases there are significant numbers of the national group resident in other countries, often in the USA. Most countries are multinational and many national groups are present in several countries. Thus national loyalty is actually quite different from loyalty to a country.

4. International Relations Theories and Transnational Actors

The major strands of international relations theories conceive of transnational actors differently, according to their stance on the substantive role of state governments and their assessment of changes in the international system. Among neorealist, neoliberal institutionalist, constructivist, and neo-Marxist theories, realism and neo-Marxism possess a largely negative attitude toward these agents. For realists, who maintain state integrity and power as ultimate objectives, the rise of transnationalism is hardly acknowledged and governmental action perpetuated. While Marxists exhibit transnational potential based on the internationality of class struggles, most of these critical theorists come to a similar pessimistic judgment about the viability of TNAs to improve governance, as they see market-based agents such as multinationals or IOs inextricably linked to state governments which, in turn, symbolize the extended arm of capitalism. Institutionalists and constructivists perceive the issue differently: liberal institutionalists find international bargaining and monitoring, particularly of transnational issues of common interest such as trade and environmental protection, useful tasks which could not be achieved domestically. Constructivists view the emergence of multiple transnational actors (**TNAs**) as a return to normalcy from the limited statist outlook of realists and institutionalists, thus reflecting a globally diverse world made up of a variety of actors, interests, and identities who aim at the normative advancement of pluralistic values in a transnational political space. Whereas neorealist, neo-institutionalist and neo-Marxist approaches are similar in that they tend to favor rationalist explanations based on expected gains, constructivists differ in that they base their predictions on the values and norms that they find present, or that they want to see constituted. Acknowledging the increasing role of non-state agents, alternative models of IR are evolving, ranging from neoliberal market-based conceptions to cosmopolitanism to alter-globalism, but have in common the opposition to state-centric theories and an empowered view for transnational actors (Marchetti 2019).

On an epistemological level, middle-level theories concerning the rational-institutional behaviour of TNAs gained interest over the past decade, aiming at reconciling rational applications of principled behaviour with the potential downfalls of bureaucratic politics (Rosenau 2008: 154; Koenig-Archibugi and Zuern 2016: 7). Irrespective of the ontological stance, research on transnational actors and governance mushroomed over the past two decades and knowledge about these agents is increasingly focused on the dynamic coexistence with other actors in the political field, as is pointed out below. Even skeptics in this arena submit to their influence and, as Risse stated in his 2002 survey of this topic, "most of the contemporary work in international affairs no longer disputes that TNAs influence decisions and outcomes" (Risse 2002: 262).

5. Transnational Companies as Political Actors

All companies that import or export are engaging in transnational economic activities. If they lobby foreign governments about trade, they become transnational political actors. However, they are not known as transnational companies (**TNCs**) until they have branches or subsidiaries outside their home country. The first companies to expand in this way were in agriculture, mining, or oil, operating in the European empires. Now they occur in all economic sectors, while industrialized countries that never had empires and most developing countries have seen some of their companies expand transnationally. In 2004, among the 100 TNCs with the highest levels of assets outside their home country, 53 were from eleven Western European countries, 25 from the USA, four with dual headquarters in Western countries, nine from Japan, three from Canada, one from Australia and one each from China, Malaya, Singapore, Hong Kong, and South Korea. Only developed countries, East and South-East Asia, a few Latin American countries, India, and South Africa host large TNCs. Nevertheless, there are now

transnational companies based in as many as 138 countries – 35 from developed countries and 103 from transition and developing countries, including 31 African countries.

5.1 Financial Flows And Loss Of Sovereignty

The consequences of the extensive trans-nationalization of major companies are profound. It is no longer possible to regard each country as having its own separate economy. Two of the most fundamental attributes of sovereignty – control over the currency and control over foreign trade – have been substantially diminished. The two factors combined mean governments have lost control of financial flows. In the case of the currency, the successive crises in the 1980s and the 1990s for the dollar, the pound, the French franc, and the yen established that even the governments with the greatest financial resources are helpless against the transnational banks and other speculators.

The effects of trade on finance are less obvious. When goods move physically across frontiers, it is usually seen as being trade between the relevant countries, but it may also be intra-firm trade. As the logic of intra-firm trade is quite different from inter-country trade, governments cannot have clear expectations of the effects of their financial and fiscal policies on TNCs. A company may respond to higher tax rates by changing its transfer prices to reduce its tax bill. Several other motives might induce a company to distort transfer prices, including evasion of controls on the cross-border movements of profits or capital.

5.2 Triangulation Of Trade And Loss Of Sovereignty

Governments have great difficulty regulating international transactions. Even the US administration was unable to prevent its citizens visiting communist Cuba during the Cold War. It may be possible to prevent the direct import or export of goods. However, there is no guaranteed method of preventing indirect trade from one country to another. This is known as triangulation. Only if an UN Security Council resolution obliges all the countries of the world to impose sanctions is there a reasonable prospect of a determined government preventing TNCs from evading sanctions. However, in such a situation, sovereignty over the relevant trade then lies with the Security Council and not with the individual governments.

5.3 Regulatory Arbitrage And Loss Of Sovereignty

It is difficult for government to regulate the commercial activities of companies within their country, because companies may choose to engage in regulatory arbitrage. If a company objects to one government's policy, it may threaten to limit or close down its local production and increase production in another country. The government that imposes the least demanding health, safety, welfare, or environmental standards will offer competitive advantages to less socially responsible companies.

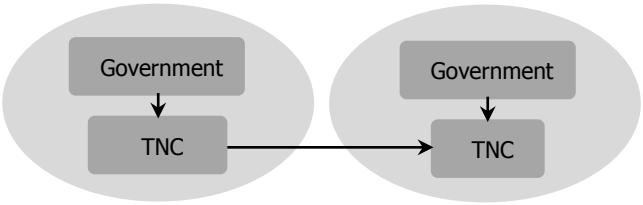

Figure 1.1 Who Controls the United Kingdom Subsidiary of a US TNC?

There is also a strong global trend towards the reduction of corporation taxes. It thus becomes difficult for any government to set high standards and maintain taxes. In the case of banking, the political dangers inherent in the risks of a bank collapsing through imprudent or criminal behaviour are so great that the major governments have set common capital standards, under the Basle Committee rules (Gotz 2019). Whatever control is achieved does not represent the successful exercise of sovereignty over companies: it is the partial surrender of sovereignty to an intergovernmental body.

5.4 Extraterritoriality And Sovereignty

In addition, transnational companies generate clashes of sovereignty between different governments. Let us consider the example of a company that has its headquarters in the United State and a subsidiary company that it owns in the United Kingdom. Three

lines of authority exist. The United States government can control the main company and the United Kingdom government can control the subsidiary. Each process would be the standard exercise of a government's sovereignty over its internal affairs. In addition, both governments would accept that the TNC can, within certain limits, control its own policies on purchasing, production, and sales. Under normal circumstances these three lines of authority can be exercised simultaneously and in harmony. However, when the US government decisions cover the global operations of the TNC, there is a clash of sovereignty. Does the subsidiary obey the UK government or the orders of the US government issued via its headquarters? This problem of extraterritoriality is inherent in the structure of all TNCs.

As a matter of routine policy implementation, clashes now have to be resolved between different decisions in different jurisdictions on competition policy, mergers and acquisitions, accounting procedures, and anti-corruption measures. Will US accounting standards apply to European companies because some of their operations are in the USA? Can the directors of parent TNCs be prosecuted for the payment of bribes by their overseas branches? The long-term trend is for such questions to be resolved by global standardization of domestic policy. For example, the OECD has developed a Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions.

5.5 From Domestic Deregulations To Global Re-Regulation

For most companies most of the time, their interests will be in accord with the government's policy of increasing employment and promoting economic growth. Conflicts will arise over the regulation of markets to avoid the risks of market failures or externalization of social and environmental costs of production. Domestic deregulation and globalization of economic activity mean regulation is now occurring at the global level rather than within individual countries. Three factors involving TNCs push towards the globalization of politics. First, governments can only reassert control by acting collectively. Second, consumer pressures are leading to global codes of conduct being accepted by companies and implemented in collaboration with NGOs. A third push is for global companies to submit to social and environmental auditing. These factors are coming together in the collaboration between governments, NGOs, and the UN Secretariat to recruit the major TNCs as voluntary partners in a Global Compact to implement ten principles of corporate social responsibility on human rights, labour standards, the environment, and anti-corruption.

6. Non-Legitimate Groups and Liberation Movements as Political Actors

A variety of groups engage in violent and/or criminal behaviour on a transnational basis. A distinction can be made between activity that is considered criminal around the world, such as theft, fraud, personal violence, piracy, or drug trafficking, an activity that is claimed by those undertaking it to have legitimate political motives. In reality, the distinction may sometimes be blurred, for example when criminals claim political motives or political groups are responsible for acts such as terrorism, torture, or involving children in violence. For all governments, neither criminal activity nor political violence can be legitimate within their own jurisdiction and generally not in other countries.

6.1 Transnational Criminals And Their Political Impact

Politically, the most important criminal industries are illicit trading in arms and in drugs. As travel has increased, trafficking in people has become easier and has increased significantly in recent years. There is a new slave trade, mainly for sexual exploitation of young women. TNCs are most concerned to prevent trade in counterfeit goods and theft of intellectual property, particularly of music, films, and computer software. The same four sovereignty problems arise with tackling criminals as with regulating TNCs. First, criminal financial flows can be massive and money-laundering threatens the integrity of banking and other financial institutions. Second, criminal trade has been so extensively diversified through triangulation that no government can confidently claim that their country is not a transit route for drugs or arms. Third, as with regulatory arbitrage by TNCs, police action may displace well-organized gangs to another country rather than stop their activities. Fourth, illicit drugs and money-laundering involve questions of extraterritorial jurisdiction. However, in contrast to the regulation of TNCs, transnational police activities involve high levels of cooperation.

6.2 Terrorists, Guerrillas, And National Liberation Movements

Political violence is most common when broadly-based nationalist movements or ethnic minorities reject the legitimacy of a government (Friman 2013;

Joachim and Locher 2018). These groups are often called terrorists to express disapproval, guerrillas by those who are more neutral, or national liberation movement by their supporters. In the past, nationalists were usually able to obtain some external support. Now, because of widespread revulsion against political violence, national groups and ethnic minorities are subject to pressure to negotiate instead of fighting. Political violence is more likely to be legitimate when a group has widespread support; when political channels have been closed to them; when the target government is exceptionally oppressive; and when the violence is limited to 'military targets'. Groups that fail to match these four characteristics only obtain very limited transnational support. When Palestinian groups first used terrorist methods, the Palestine Liberation Organization (**PLO**) gained attention, but not support. When terrorism stopped in the mid-1970s, they achieved membership of the Arab League, along with observer status at the UN. However, suicide bombing, targeted at civilians, by some Palestinians during the second intifada greatly reduced the Palestinian Authority's legitimacy.

Since 11 September 2001, the political balance has changed substantially. The scale of the destruction wrought by Al Qaeda organizing 19 hijackers simultaneously taking control of four passenger aircraft and using these as weapons against New York and Washington did much to delegitimize all groups who use violence for political purposes. Historically, terrorism has mainly been an instrument of internal conflict within a single society, but Al Qaeda suddenly presented the world with a new threat of a transnational global network (Kolb 2015; Alexandroff 2018). Within a few years they staged attacks in Kenya, Tanzania, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, the USA, Tunisia, Indonesia, Turkey, and Spain. Despite this, contemporary terrorism is not a single phenomenon. The Basque, Palestinian, Kashmiri, Tamil, and Chechnya disputes clearly have roots that are totally independent of each other and have little or no connection to Al Qaeda. There are different transnational processes for different conflicts generating terrorism. Even Al Qaeda itself is a disparate coalition of anti-American fundamentalist groups rather than a coherent disciplined organization.

Extensive political violence used by governments against their citizens was commonplace and immune from diplomatic criticism, as recently as the 1970s.because of a widespread desire to end the impunity of individual government leaders, soldiers, and officials responsible for the horrors of large-scale political violence at the end of the twentieth century, a revolution has occurred in international law. First, temporary tribunals were established to cover atrocities in Yugoslavia and Rwanda. Then a new permanent International Criminal Court (**ICC**) was created in July 2002 to prosecute those who commit genocide, war crimes, or crimes against humanity. The ICC is a modification of the inter-state system because it was created by political campaigning of human rights NGOs, because bitter opposition from the sole 'superpower' was defeated, and because the sovereign responsibility to prosecute criminals has been assumed by a global court. In September 2005, the United Nations went further, replacing state sovereignty with a collective responsibility to protect, when national authorities are manifestly failing (General Assembly Resolution 60/1).

6.3 The Significance Of Criminals, Terrorists, And Guerrillas

Before September 2001, analysis of transnational criminals and guerrillas did not present a challenge to orthodox state-centric theory. Criminals seemed to be marginal because they are not legitimate and are excluded from normal international transactions. The violent groups that gained military, political, and diplomatic status on a transnational basis could be presented as nationalist groups, aspiring to gain their place in the inter-state system. Such arguments ignore the way globalization has changed the nature of sovereignty and the process of government. The operations of criminals and other non-legitimate groups have become more complex, spread over a wider geographical area, and increased in scale because the improvements in communications have made it so much easier to transfer people, money, weapons, and ideas on a transnational basis. Government attempts to control such activities have become correspondingly more difficult. The legal concept of sovereignty may nominally still exist, but political practice has become significantly different. Now virtually every government feels it has to mobilize external support, to exercise 'domestic jurisdiction' over criminals. Defeat of Al Qaeda will not be achieved by military counter-terrorism, but by global political change that delegitimizes fundamentalism and violence. Oppressive action by governments is subject to extensive review under global human rights mechanisms and, in some situations, may be subject to prosecution at the ICC.

7. Non-Governmental Organizations as Political Actors

The politics of an individual country cannot be understood without knowing what groups lobby the government and what debate there has been in the media. Similarly, international diplomacy does not operate on some separate planet, cut off from global civil society. Because diplomats like to claim that they are pursuing the national interest of a united society, they will not admit to relations with interest groups or pressure groups and they use the bland title, non-governmental organizations or simply NGOs.

7.1 Consultative Status At The UN For NGOs

As a result of pressure, primarily from American groups, the United Nations Charter contains Article 71, providing for the Economic and Social Council (**ECOSOC**) to consult with NGOs. In 1950, the Council formally codified its practice, in a statute for NGOs. It recognized three categories of groups: (1) a small number of high-status NGOs, concerned with most of the Council's work; (2) specialist NGOs, concerned with a few field of activity and having a high reputation in those fields; and (3) a Roster of other NGOs that are expected to make occasional contributions to the Council. Since then the term NGO has, for diplomats, been synonymous with a group that is eligible for ECOSOC consultative status.

7.2 The UN Definition Of An Acceptable NGO

The ECOSOC statute and the way it has been applied embodies six principles:

- An NGO should support the aims and the work of the UN. However, it is very rare that objections are made to the political purposes of NGOs.
- Officially, an NGO should be representative body, with identifiable headquarters, and officers who are responsible to a democratic policy-making conference. In practice, many highly prestigious NGOs, particularly development and environment NGOs, are not membership organizations.
- An NGO cannot be a profit-making body. Individual companies cannot gain consultative status, but trade federations of commercial interests are recognized as NGOs.
- An NGO cannot use or advocate violence.
- An NGO must respect the norm of 'non-interference in the internal affairs of states'. This means an NGO cannot be a political party, but parties can, like companies, form international federations. Also, NGOs concerned with human rights should not restrict their activities to a particular group, nationality, or country.
- An international NGO is one that is not established by intergovernmental agreement.

Many NGO activists believe the UN should be more restrictive and only accept groups that are 'true' NGOs, contributing to 'prospective' social movements. Environmentalists are often upset that business federations are accepted and the whole NGO community at the UN agonized over the National Rifle Association being admitted to the Roster in November 1996.

7.3 Globalization And The Expansion Of NGOs

The creation of a complex global economy has had effects way beyond the international trade in goods and services. Most companies, in each distinct area of activity, have formed organizations to facilitate communication, to harmonize standards, and to manage adaptation to complex change. Equally, the employees have found they face common problems in different countries and so trade unions and professional bodies have developed their own transnational links. Any form of international regime to formulate policy for an industry, whether it is non-governmental or intergovernmental, will encourage the strengthening of the global links among the NGOs concerned with its activities.

For most of the twentieth century, any individual could travel in person or communicate in writing to most parts of the world. The technical revolution in recent years lies in the increased density, the increased speed, and the reduced cost of communication. The political revolution lies in these changes bringing rapid global communication within the capabilities of most people. This includes even the poor, if they band together to fund a representative to articulate their case or gain access to the news media. Changes in communications constitute a fundamental change in the structure of world politics. Governments have sovereignty over the transnational relations of their citizens. They may attempt to monitor or control trans-boundary communications, but closing the border is no longer technologically possible.

7.4 The Shift Of NGOs From The Local To The Global

One effect of the globalization of communication is to make it physically and financially feasible for small groups of people to establish and to maintain cooperation, even though they may be based thousands of miles apart from each other. Thus it is very easy for NGOs to operate transnationally, but not all NGOs make this choice. They vary from local organizations solely operating in one small town to large global bureaucracies with a presence in most countries.

When NGOs cooperate transnationally, they may use one of four different types of structure. In the past, a formal joint organization, known as an INGO (an international **NGO**) was usually established, with a permanent headquarters, a secretariat, and a regular programme of meetings. With the advent of the Internet it is now just as likely that a looser network will be formed, often with a single NGO providing the technical support for e-mail communication and a joint website. The most famous networks, such as Jubilee 2000, the Coalition for an International Criminal Court, and the International Campaign to Ban Land Mines, have united around a single policy domain, brought together hundreds of NGOs from all around the world, and achieved major policy changes against the opposition of leading governments. These are known as advocacy networks. At the meetings of intergovernmental organizations, NGOs may combine in a caucus. This is a temporary network formed solely for the purpose of lobbying on the agenda items at the particular meeting. Finally, there are governance networks, formed by NGOs to maintain and enhance the participation rights of NGOs in intergovernmental meetings. They differ from advocacy networks and caucuses in not having common political goals, other than their common interest in being allowed access to the policy-making process.

8. International Organizations as Structures of Global Politics

International organizations provide the focus for global politics. The new physical infrastructure of global communications makes it easier for them to operate. In addition, when the sessions of the organizations take place, they become distinct structures for political communication. Face-to-face meetings produce different outcomes from telephone or written communications. Multilateral discussion produces different outcomes from interactions in networks of bilateral communications.

8.1 International Organizations As Systems

It was argued earlier that it is inconsistent to see ‘states’ as coherent entities, while asserting that anarchy exists at the global level. We can be consistent by accepting the existence of systems at all levels of world politics. In the modern world, human groups are never so coherent that they are independent, closed systems (perhaps excepting monastic orders). Equally, once distinct organizational processes are established, they are never so open that the boundaries become insignificant. Thus international organizations of all types transcend country boundaries and have a major impact on the governmental actors and transnational actors (**TNAs**) composing them.

For a system to exist, there must be a sufficient density of interactions, involving each of its elements, at a sufficient intensity to result both in the emergence of properties for the system as a whole and in some consistent effect on the behaviour of the elements. Generally, international organizations will have founding documents defining their goals, rules of procedure constraining the modes of behaviour, secretariats committed to the status and identity of the organization (or at least committed to their own careers), past decisions that provide norms for future policy, and interaction processes that socialize new participants. All these features at the systemic level will be part of the explanation of the behaviour of the members and thus the political outcomes will not be determined solely by the initial goals of the members. The statement that international organizations form systems is a statement that they are politically significant and that global politics cannot be reduced to ‘inter-state’ relations.

Normally a sharp distinction is made between intergovernmental organizations and international non-governmental organizations. This conveys the impression that inter-state diplomacy and transnational relations are separate from each other. In practice, governments do not rigidly maintain the separation. There is an overlapping pattern of relations in another category of international organizations, hybrid INGOs, in which governments work with NGOs. Among the most important hybrids are the International Red Cross, the World Conservation Union (**IUCN**), the International Council of Scientific Unions, the International Air Transport Association, and other economic bodies combining companies and governments.

In order to be regarded as a hybrid, the organization must admit as full members both NGOs, parties, or

companies and governments or governmental agencies. Both types of member must have full rights of participation in policy-making, including the right to vote on the final decisions. When the principle of formal equality of NGOs and governments is acknowledged by both sides in such a manner, the assumption that governments can dominate must be totally abandoned.

9. Conclusion

The review of transnational actors (**TNAs**) and transnationalism is dominated by European, and, to a lesser extent, North American authors – this may reflect the degree to which transnational actors (**TNAs**) operate in these environments already, but it is also an expression of the international North–South divide and Eurocentrism in existence. Future scholarship should contribute to more diversity in this area so that it may become truly "transnational." The negative transnational externalities of market-driven globalization, such as recessions, pandemics, or terrorism, have caused many TNCs to increasingly retreat to their home territory, governments to rethink liberalization, and IGOs to be reshaped to respond to economic and monetary crises. Although it proves the limitations of transnational actors – and states alike – to contain such crises, the globalizing effect of these agents has spread too far and too deep to be held back by such medium-term processes. It is indicative, however, of implications for the future development of TNAs, particularly IGOs and TNCs, which may become more conscious of the ambiguous volatility caused by mutual interdependence. In this sense, the systemic interaction of governments, IGOs, INGOs, social movements, and TNCs under the growing influence of market forces has received too little scholarly attention thus far and remains to date under-researched.

State-centric writers accommodate transnational activities by distinguishing the high politics of peace and security, taking place in military alliances and UN diplomacy, from the low politics of other policy questions, debated in specialist UN bodies, other IGOs, and INGOs. Then, by asserting it is more important to analyze peace and war, actors in low politics are defined out of the analysis. In practice it is not so simple. Scientists, the Red Cross, religious groups, and other NGOs are involved in arms control negotiations; economic events may be treated as crises; social policy can concern matters of life and death; and heads of government do at times make the environment a top priority. It is useful to analyze global politics in terms of a variety of dimensions describing each policy domain and the actors within it, but the different dimensions do not correlate. A single high/low classification does not work.

The move from a state-centric to a Pluralist model depends on rejecting a static unidimensional concept of power. Actors enter a political process possessing resources and seeking particular goals. However, contrary to the Realist view, capabilities alone do not determine influence. Explaining outcomes requires examining whether the resources of actors are relevant to the goals being pursued, describing the degree of divergence between the goals of the different actors, and analyzing how they are changed by the interaction processes.

Governments are usually characterized as having legal authority and control over military capabilities and economic resources. They may also have high status, possess specialist information, have access to communications and be able to articulate widely shared values in support of their goals, but all these latter four capabilities can also be attributes of transnational actors (**TNAs**) and international organizations (**IOs**). In the process of political debate something else is crucial. It is the ability to communicate in a manner that commands the attention and respect of other actors. While this is enhanced by possession of status and resources, in practice – when making speeches, during interviews for the news media, in negotiations or when lobbying – the ability to communicate is a personal attribute of the speaker. Some presidents and prime ministers fail to command respect, while some NGO activists are inspiring and cannot be ignored. If power is seen solely in military terms, governments are expected to be dominant. If power is seen solely in economic terms, TNCs are expected to be dominant. However, if power includes possession of status, information, and communication skills, then it is possible for NGOs and international organizations to mobilize support for their values and to exercise influence over governments. Most real- world situations will see a mix of different capabilities being brought to bear upon the policy debate.

	Apartheid in South Africa	Human Rights	Population Planning	Environment
Main Governments Involved	South Africa, UK, USA versus African Governments	Democratic versus Authoritarian Governments	All Types of Governments	Those Who Feel Threatened By Problems versus Those Who Do Not
Transnational Companies	Wide Range, but especially Mining and Oil	Any Working with Oppressive Governments	Medical, Pharmaceutical, and Food	Mainly Industrial, Energy, and Transport
Guerrillas	ANC, PAC, and SWAPO	Any Taking Hostages	Any in Control of Territory	Generally not Concerned
Grass roots of NGOs	Anti-Apartheid Movement	Human Rights Groups and the Oppressed	Religious, Women's and Health Groups	Friends of the Earth, WWF, Greenpeace, etc.
UN Inter-Governmental Policy Forum	Committee Against Apartheid and Security Council	Human Rights Council	Commission on Population and Development	Commission on Sustainable Development
UN Secretariat	Centre Against Apartheid	Office…for Human Rights	UNICEF, UN Population Fund	UNDP, UNEP
Other IGOs	Organization of African Unity	Council of Europe, OAS, and AU	WHO, World Bank	World Bank
International NGOs	Many Involved, with a Secondary Concern	Amnesty International and Others	International Planned Parenthood Federation	Environment Liaison Centre International and Other Networks
Hybrid INGOs	Those Concerned with Trade	ILO	None	World Conservation Union (IUCN)

Table 1.1 The Variety of Political Actors Involved in Different Policy Domains

The types of authority, status, resources, information, and skills that are relevant to political success are issue-specific. (They vary from one issue to another.) Thus which actors will have the ability to exercise influence varies according to the issues invoked by a policy problem. Table 1.1 illustrates the point that there is not a single international system of nearly 200 'states', but a variety of policy domains, each involving their own distinct actors. Governments have a special role, linking the different domains, because membership of the UN obliges governments to form policy and vote on most issues. In practice, they are less centralized and cohesive than it appears in the UN, because different departments of government handle the different policy questions. The transnational actors (**TNAs**) and international organizations generally are more specialist and involved in a limited range of policy questions (Djelic and Sahlin-Anderson 2006: 423). Amnesty International rarely has significance in environmental politics and Greenpeace rarely is concerned with human rights, but each is central to its own domain. Being a specialist generates high status, provides command over information, and enhances communication skills. These capabilities enable a challenge to be made to the governments that control military and economic resources.

Within both domestic and global politics, civil society is the source of change. Companies usually initiate economic change and NGOs are usually the source of new ideas for political action (Marchetti 2019). At any one point in time, economics and politics may seem to be relatively stable and under governmental control. Under the exceptional circumstances of war or under exceptional leadership, governments can generate change. However, NGOs generally provide the dynamics of politics. The European empires were dismembered by nationalist movements, with support from lawyers, journalists, unions, and the churches. Democracy and human rights have been extended by women's groups, ethnic minorities, and dissident groups.

The environment has moved up the agenda in response to grassroots anger at the loss of natural beauty, protests against threats to health, and warnings from scientists about ecosystems being at risk of collapse. The right to have access to family planning has been established as a global norm. In some countries, notably the USA, this initially required women to go to jail to challenge repressive laws, but since 1953 the International Planned Parenthood Federation has grown to become the world's second largest NGO, even operating in virtually all Catholic and Islamic countries. The start of the Cold War was not simply the formation of military alliances: it was a political struggle of communism as a transnational movement against the transnational appeal of democracy, the Catholic Church, and nationalism (Arts 2002; Mingst and Karns 2014). The arms race and the process of détente included conflict between arms manufacturers and peace movements, with scientists being crucial to both sides. The end of the Cold War was driven by economic failure within communist

countries and the political failure in response to demands from unions, human rights dissidents, the churches, and environmentalists. The response to refuge crises has been dominated by the media, the UN, and NGOs. The shift from seeing development as increasing a country's GNP to meeting ordinary people's basic needs and using resources in a sustainable manner was driven by development NGOs and the environmental movement. The International Relations (**IR**) of the twentieth century have all occurred within complex, pluralist political systems.

We have certainly moved beyond treating the question of whether or not TNAs matter vis-a-vis state governments or intergovernmental organizations. Also, a preoccupation with the exclusion of transgovernmental actors has been replaced by the acknowledgment that states are inevitably involved, either as addressees of claims by civil society or in the establishment of and cooperation with IGOs. It has become clear that all of these actors have become significant interlocutors for the management of global issues. Rather, the focus of contemporary research is on the interactive dynamics between governments and TNAs as well as between IGOs and non-state actors, aiming at an integrated view of the participating agents. New hybrid forms such as public–private partnerships, stewardship councils, and networks conflate the distinct labels scholars used to examine TNA actorness and activity in the past. Thus, the major research challenge is to provide evidence of the mutual constitution of transnational politics among a complex set of actors, structures, and other contributing variables.

The institutional decline of IGOs under the unilateralist policies of past US administrations may well end and IOs become stronger in the next few years, initiated by a multilateral commitment of the international community and a genuine interest on the part of emerging states and regions to refashion the current international system. In this increasingly abundant transnational system, questions still awaiting academic explanation are focused on the horizontal and vertical dynamics and mechanics of transnational "actor-ness," including issues relating to the self-representation of civil society actors and the empowerment of specific bodies within IGOs, such as dispute settlement bodies and secretariats. In a larger context, the impact of bureaucratization and judicialization of IOs on the strategic behaviour of state representatives and non-state actors requires reevaluation and warrants further and more detailed investigation. With regard to non-state TNAs, truly empirical research into the politics of civil society actors is scant and often coloured by normative values rather than rigorous empirical analysis. Coupled with all of these open questions, the rise of transnational actors (**TNAs**) in numbers and complexity will thus continue to reshape global politics and occupy scholars for decades to come.

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Health, Education and Industrial Output in Nigeria: An Interactive Effect

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Abstract. This study investigates the interactive impact of human capital investment and industrial output in Nigeria during the period 1990-2013. Various econometrics techniques were used to analysed the data sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) statistical bulletin (2013). The findings revealed that health and education expenditure interactively within the time under study impacted positively and significantly on manufacturing output. Government investment proxy as gross capital formation had a positive and significant effect on manufacturing output. Exchange rate had a negative impact on manufacturing output. The Johansen co-integration technique showed that a long-run co-movement relationship exists between the variables employed in the study. The study concludes that human capital investment plays a significant role in the growth of the manufacturing sector. The major recommendation was that, government should increase its expenditure on health and education expenditure in Nigeria, in order to increase the manufacturing sector output.

Keywords: Education and Health Expenditure, Industrial Output, Exchange rate, and Gross Capital Formation.

1. Introduction

In recent decades, more accentuating attention has been given to the need to develop the health and education of individuals towards enhancing sustainable growth. Theories have explained much about the importance of human capital in promoting the growth of the developing countries. The united nation (2010) refer to human capital as a stock of knowledge, ability, time, physical and managerial endowment of labour that are used in the production process for the production of goods and services for final consumption. Previously, natural resources and capital formation are measurement of socio-economic development across nations. But recently, the stock of skills, knowledge, health and habits of the population in the development process are considered more, because it determines how well the country develops in terms of productivity and standard of living (Shultz 1961).

For any nation to grow, especially Nigeria, the focused expenditure on the manufacturing sector should not be underestimated, thus, by all available means; the government should improve and encourage the output of the manufacturing sector (Ishola, 2012). Investing on human capital, the skills, knowledge and productivity of labour lean to increase, which as an upshot increase the sustainable development of the economy. The contribution of human capital investment on industrial performance has been less than satisfactory in Nigeria. This is because the country has been faced with the problem of continuity in maintaining the previous government agenda and the economy has been governed mostly by self-centered leaders (Olayemi, 2012). Ekesiobi, Dimnwobi, Ifebi and Ibekilo (2016) submited that increased government spending improves education outcome. Through this the manufacturing sector experiences an increased growth. An increase in a country's industrial output increases its income through levies. Aderibigbe (2004) submits that manufacturing industry contributes significantly to the nation's economic development by: increasing government revenue through tax; improving the standard of living; infrastructural growth; contribution to Gross National Products (GNP); employment generation; enhance manpower

development, among others. Adejumo, Olomola, and Adejumo (2013) also submitted that the output generation of human capital in the industrial sector is low. This is because of the poor output effect of the health and education sector on labour productivity.

Having noted from these studies, much concentration has been on the individual effect of human capital investment on industrial output. The question in study is Does human capital variables (health and education) have a joint effect on industrial output in Nigeria. This study therefore aims at examining the interactive effect of education and health investment on industrial output in Nigeria.
The rest of the paper is therefore structured as follow; Section 2 reviews related literature. The sources of data and methodology, and model specification of the study is discussed in Section 3. Section 4 presents the analytical framework of the study. Finally, Section 5 presents the conclusion and recommendations of the paper.

2. Literature Review

Grossman (1972) provided the first formal contribution on the determinants of individual health status. He predicted the possibility of observing a positive relationship between education and health. Most especially, he argued that education has a positive impact on the likelihood of enjoying a good health because it increases the production of health technology by enhancing productive efficiency and distributive efficiency. Silles (2009) investigated the impact of the reform of Minimum School-Living Age, which was an exogenous source of education change, on the health condition of the population of the United Kingdom, employing ordinary least squares method and found that the coefficient that measures the impact of education on all health indicators was positive. In the view of Bhargava*et al*. (2001), a better health is more important for wages in low-income countries than in high income ones. Colantonio *et al*. (2010) argued that health influences GDP indirectly through time preferences and education.

2.1 Harod-Domar Growth Theory

Harod (1939) and Domar (1946) propounded their theory around investment in a country. They argued that for a nation to increase its output or growth part of her income must be saved to augment investment. They opine that doing this will have both demand and supply side effect on growth (that is increasing the country's income and productivity respectively). In explaining their theory they propounded three types of growth rate; warranted, natural, and actual growth rate (Gw, Gn, G). Warranted growth rate (Gw) measures the rate at which investors reduces their payroll scheme and employed hands in production process in the recession period. Natural growth rate (Gn) explains how output increases as a result of increase population and technological progress, while Actual growth rate is the increase in the economy's GDP per year. A situation where by there is an unequal increase in the three growth rate leads to inflationary effect in the economy. Through the model opinion of savings part of income, investment is encouraged, therefore bringing about more skillful, knowledgeable and healthier hand employed in the process. With this, human capital investment becomes more important to increase the economy's productivity.

2.2 The Endogenous Growth Theory

Romer (1986) relates the endogenous growth model to be increasing returns to scale at the economy-wide level and constant returns to scale at the firm level. In his view, he noted that increased growth in a country is accompanied with human capital role
Lucas (1988) in replacing physical labour in the production function introduces investment on human capital as an additional education. Lucas argued that investment on human capital exhibit constant returns to scale in nature, which implies that the additional skills, knowledge, and ability individual acquire in the production process remains the same and add no value to the productive capacity of the economy. A major critic of Lucas is the assumption of constant returns to scale. Theories argue that the values added to individuals in terms of education and health are not constant in nature as it increases their ability and knowledge towards increased productivity in the production process to spur growth.
Schultz (1961) argued that the acquisition of knowledge, skills and increase in health care services is a function of willing investment or deliberate investment. He argues that the difference between the incomes of individuals is as a function of the additional value they add to their qualifications in terms of health quality and education (knowledge and skills) which determines the productive capacity of the individuals. He submits that the cost of acquiring this factors in the short-run is high and, but in the long-run, the cost catered for through the returns accrued to by the individuals involved.

2.3 Empirical Literature

Ekesiobi, Dimnwobi, Ifebi, and Ibekilo (2016) examine the impact of public sector education

investment on manufacturing output in Nigeria using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) technique to analyse the relationship. The study revealed that that public education spending has a positive but insignificant effect on manufacturing output growth in Nigeria.

Olayemi (2012) investigate the relationship between human capital investment and industrial productivity in Nigeria from 1978 to 2008 using Co-integration and Error Correction Mechanism (ECM) techniques. The study found that government expenditure on education maintained a positive long run relationship with index of industrial production while government expenditure on health and Gross Capital Formation exhibited long run negative relationship with the dependent variable.

Bennett, Ayanwu and Kalu (2015) investigated the effect of industrial development on economic growth in Nigeria from 1973 to 2013 using the Personal Computer (PC) give package to analyse the data employed. Their findings revealed that the impact of industrial output on economic growth is not significant, though positively related to (economic growth) GDP but does not hold strong enough. Savings impacted positively and significantly on the economy. Inflation had a negative relationship, while net foreign direct investment is positively and significantly related to economic growth. They recommended that government and its agencies should ensure political stability and also the implementation of strategic policies that will create a fair playing ground for foreign investors which will also improve the establishment of industries especially the manufacturing industries to encourage industrialization of the Nigerian economy as this will facilitate the strengthening of economic growth (GDP).

Elijah and Uchechi (2012) investigated the linkage between financial development sector and industrial production in Nigeria using the Auto-regressive Distributed Lag from the period 1970 to 2009. Their result revealed that a co-integrating relationship exist between financial sector development and industrial production. Both the long run and short run dynamic coefficients of financial sector development variables have negative and statistically significant impact on industrial production. They recommended that government should further introduce financial sector reforms to improve the efficiency of the domestic financial sector which is a pre-requisite for the achievement of industrial development.

Otalu and Keji (2015) assessed the determinants of industrial sector growth in Nigeria adopting the co-integration and error correction model approach to analyse the variables used in the study. Their result showed that all the identified determinants have more of permanent effect on industrial output than transitory effect. Both labour and capital have significant impact, exchange rate shows a positive and significant impact indicating that currency appreciation might be inimical to the growth of the industrial sector.

Owolabi and Adegbite (2014) examined the monetary policy impact on industrial growth in Nigeria within the period 1970 to 2010 using a multiple regression analysis. They concluded from their findings that Rediscount Rate, and Deposit had significant positive effect on industrial output but Treasury Bills had a negative impact on industrial output. They recommended that government should develop the industrial sectors of the economy through its capital expenditure. With this, capital expenditure on productive activities and social overheads capital will contribute positively to industrial growth which will invariably enhance economic growth.

Adejumo et al (2013) examined the role of Human capital in industrial development in Nigeria using a time series data analysis within the period 1980-2010. It was discovered that human capital has to a large extent impacted on industry value-added, but in terms of output generated industrially, the effect of human capital remains low in Nigeria.

Falade and Olagbaju (2015) investigated the impact of Government capital expenditure on manufacturing sector output in Nigeria within the period of 1970 and 2013. They employed co-integration and error correction techniques to analysed the data employed but first subjects the data to unit root test. Their result revealed that there exists a long-run relationship between the variables employed in the study while the error correction model showed that while government capital expenditure has positive relationship with manufacturing sector output in Nigeria, recurrent expenditure exerts negative effect on manufacturing sector output.

Adofu, Taiga and Tijani (2015) empirically investigated the relationship between Manufacturing sector and Economic Growth in Nigeria for the period 1990 to 2013 using ordinary least squares method to ascertain the relationship between manufacturing, its components and economic growth. Their results showed that the output of the manufacturing sector contributed negatively and had an insignificant relationship to real gross domestic product growth, which was indicative of the fact that

the manufacturing sector of the Nigerian economy is presently experiencing decay as a result of non-implementation of policies aimed at boosting the sector; the average manufacturing capacity utilization rate contributed positively and had a significant relationship to real gross domestic product growth; the exchange rate and interest rate did not contribute to real gross domestic product growth, which shows a sign of macroeconomic instability; inflation rate contributed positively to real gross domestic product growth but, the insignificant nature of the inflation rate was indicative of the fact that the inflation in the Nigerian economy is not properly managed; government expenditure was significant indicating that the expenditure made by the government in the Nigerian economy was adequate but not properly managed, but nevertheless, contributed positively to economic growth.

Isaksson (2010) empirically assessed the relationship between public capital, infrastructure and industrial development in 57 advanced and developing countries for the time period of 1970 to 2000. In estimating the impact of public capital on industry special care is taken to deal with country-specific effects, reverse causality and endogeneity bias. His findings revealed that public capital has important explanatory power for why some countries have managed to industrialize, while others have not.

Akinmulegun and Oluwole (2014) examined the importance of manufacturing sector in the era of globalization using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression techniques to analyse the data used in the study. The study found that though Nigeria manufacturing sector benefited from globalization process, the level of the development in the sector was found to be highly negligible. Meaning that globalization exerts little impact on economic growth via manufacturing sector of the economy.

Johngbo (2014) investigated the impact of real exchange rate fluctuations on industrial output in Nigeria using Ordinary Least Squares regression technique to analyse the data used. He founds that real exchange rate play a significant role in determining the industrial output. Also, availability of foreign exchange increase through contentious export drive from both oil and non-oil products will contribute tremendously to increase industrial output. The study further reveals that the capacity utilization ratio is low the cases of which may not be too far away from, partly epileptic power supply, lack of adequate and appropriate technology and so on and also that the impact is bidirectional (real exchange rate on industrial output and vice-versa)

Okoye, Nwakoby and Okorie (2016) used the vector error correction method and granger causality test to assess the relationship between economic openness and industrial development in Nigeria from 1986 to 2014. Their findings revealed that the rate of change in exchange rate, trade openness and lending rate exert significant negative impact on industrial output. There is also evidence of significant positive impact of financial deepening on industrial output. The Granger causality estimate showed a weak causal impact of financial deepening on industrial output as well as bi-directional causation between trade openness and industrial output. There is also evidence of causal impact of industrial output on lending rate, an indication that industrial development generates demand for financial resources.

3. Research Methods

The nature of the data used in this study is secondary, sourced from the central bank of Nigeria Statistical bulletin and World Development Indicators (WDI) (2013). The study at first subject all the variables employed to a multcollinearity test in order to avoid a contradictory result. The unit root test was adopted to test for the presence or absence of unit root among the variables used. This is done because of the fluctuations in the data availability. The co-integration technique was employed to test for the long-run co-movement among the variables employed as a result of the unit root test. However, the Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) regression technique was employed to assess the interactive impact of human capital investment on industrial output in Nigeria.

3.1 Model Specification

Following the neo-classical model of growth which was based on the Cobb-Douglas production function;

$Y = f(A, K, L)$---------- (1)

Romer and Weil (1992) considering the role of human capital on economic growth incorporated human capital in the framework and the model was written as:

$Y_{(t)} = K_{(t)}\, \alpha H_{(t)}\, \beta (A_{(t)}\, L_{(t)})^{1-\alpha-\beta}$---------- (2)

Where; Y is output; K = Physical capital and H = the Human Capital Stock; L = Labour force; A is level of technology and α, β, < 1, implying decreasing returns to capital. By implication, there is a strong and positive relationship between investment in human capital and output growth.

Following the model, Olayemi (2012) adopts the model by incorporating public expenditure on health and education as a proxy for human capital and

replace Y proxy for economic growth as industrial index production output. The model was written as;

IIP = F(TED, THE, GCF) ---------- (3)

Where, IIP- industrial index production, TED- total expenditure on education, THE- total health expenditure, and GCF- gross capital formation proxy for K- capital. In line with these studies, the empirical model adopted for this study is written as;

*Y = F(HE*ED, GCF, EXR)* ---------- (4)

Where, Y- industrial output, HE*ED- interactive function of health and education expenditure, GCF- gross capital formation proxy for investment, EXR- Exchange rate. Exchange rate is included in the model in other to account for the rate at which the value of the country currency in the stock market affects the output of the sector. Looking at the current devaluation in the country currency gave an impetus to include this variable in the model. Interactively, education and health are examine jointly rather than individual assess in previous studies such as Adejumo et al (2013), Olayemi (2012), among others.

4. Analytical Framework

4.1 Pre-estimation test

Table 4.1: Correlation Matrix

VARIABLES	LOG(MOTY)	LOG(HE*ED)	LOG(GCF)	EXR
LOG(MOTY)	1.000000	0.863114	0.560032	0.781397
LOG(HE*ED)	0.863114	1.000000	0.730167	0.923386
LOG(GCF)	0.560032	0.730167	1.000000	0.771277
EXR	0.781397	0.923386	0.771277	1.000000

Source: Authors computation (2016)

The decision criteria for the correlation test follow the criteria of Iyoha and Ekanem (2004) and Hamsal (2006), that a multicollinearity exist among variables if the correlating value is greater than 0.95. From the result, none of the variables correlation value exceeds 0.95, which implies that there is no multi-collinearity among the variables employed in the study. Therefore, the variables are accurate to use in the analysis.

Table 4.2: Augmented Dickey Fuller Test

Variables	**Level**	**first difference**	**order of integration**
LOG(MOTY)	2.377777	(-5.288506)**	I(1)
LOG(HE*ED)	0.502704	(-6.573209)**	I(1)
EXR	1.121207	(-4.002849)**	I(1)
LOG(GCF)	1.882881	(-3.688995)**	I(1)

Source: Authors computation (2016)

The unit root result revealed that all the variables are stationary at first difference and also at the same order of integration, which implies that there is presence of unit root among the variables employed in the study. As a result of this, the johansen co-integration technique was employed to check if there exists a long-run co-movement among the variables employed in the study. the result is presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Johansen Co-integration test results

No. of CE	Trace Test	P-value	Max-Eigen Test	P-value
R = 0*	80.40671	< 0.05	31.39762	< 0.05
R ≤ 1*	49.00909	< 0.05	24.52094	< 0.05
R ≤ 2	24.48815	> 0.05	16.49798	> 0.05
R ≤ 3	7.990163	> 0.05	7.978693	> 0.05
R ≤ 4	0.011470	> 0.05	0.011470	> 0.05

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at 5% significance level. Likelihood ratio test of both Trace and Max-Eigen indicates 2 co-integrating equation(s)

Source: Authors computation (2016)

The co-integration test revealed that there are at least two co-integrating vectors, which lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis that there exists no long-run co-movement among the variables employed at 5% level of significance at both trace and max-eigen test. Having tested the variables for a long-run co-movement, the Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) was used to check the interactive effect. The result is presented below in **Table**

Table 4.4: Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares Regression Result.

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
@LOG(HE*ED)	0.187588	0.053028	3.537544	0.0021
@LOG(GCF)	0.234880	0.007576	31.00345	0.0000
EXR	-0.007023	0.003527	-1.991411	0.0603
R-squared	0.670897	Mean dependent var		5.993476
Adjusted R-squared	0.637987	S.D. dependent var		0.537246
S.E. of regression	0.323247	Sum squared resid		2.089777
Long-run variance	0.139896			

Source: Authors computation (2016).

The FMOLS result revealed that interactively, health expenditure and education expenditure impacted positively and significantly on manufacturing output in Nigeria. This implies that, the joint role of health and education in the industrial sector growth is significant. Government investment proxy as gross capital formation, impacted positively and significantly on industrial output in Nigeria. This is because; the expenditure allocated to the industrial sector has been well monitored and implemented towards developing the sector. Exchange rate had a negative and significant effect at 5% level of significance. This implies that, the rate of exchange of the country currency has not favoured the value of the industrial output. This could be as a result of inappropriate policy implementation towards increasing the value of the sector output. The R-squared value is 0.670897, which implies that, about 67% disparities in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study investigates the interactive effect of human capital investment on industrial output in Nigeria from 1990-2014 using various econometric technique. The findings revealed that, interactively, health and education expenditure had a positive and significant impact on industrial output in Nigeria. Gross capital formation also had a positive and significant impact on industrial output in Nigeria. Exchange rate had a negative impact on industrial output in Nigeria. The study therefore concludes that, the role of human capital investment in the growth of the industrial sector output cannot be ignored, which implies that human capital (health and education) jointly play a significant role in industrial growth. This result conforms to the study of Adejumo et al (2013), Olayemi (2012), Johngbo (2014), Ekesiobi et al (2016). From the findings, the following are therefore recommended that; Government should increase its expenditure on health and education in the economy. Government should create an efficient on the job training to increase labour skills in the industry. The monetary sector policy should be reviewed towards increasing the value of the country's output in the world market. Government investment should further be well monitored towards increasing the growth of the economy. Government should supply more facilities needed in both the health and education sector, in order to increase individual knowledge and ability status in the industrial sector.

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Environmental Impact of Solid Waste Treatment and Disposal Facilities on Residents of Ijebu Ode Local Government

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Abstract. This study examined environmental impact of solid waste treatment and disposal facilities on residents of Ijebu-Ode Local Government Area. Descriptive research design was adopted for the study and a simple random sampling techniques was used to select 100 respondents for the study. A self-developed questionnaire was used to obtain information from the respondents. Data obtained through two research hypotheses formulated were analyzed and tested with chi-square statistical tool. The findings at the end of the study revealed that there is significant impact of solid waste disposal on the health status of Ijebu –Ode people. It further revealed there is significant impact of indiscriminate disposal of waste on environment problems in Ijebu Ode Local Government. The study recommended that government increased the per-capital income of the people in the study area, this will enable them to manage and dispose their waste properly and effectively, and that urgent attention should be given to environmental education for the people in the study are. This will create public enlightenment and awareness on proper management of solid waste and development of environment friendly attitudes. It further recommends that the existing environmental laws and regulation be reviewed and effectively mechanism for the enforcement of the laws and regulations be put in place.

Keywords: Waste Treatment, Solid Waste, Disposal Facilities, Environmental Education, Recycle, Refuse Dump Site.

1. Introduction

According to Fayemi (2017) we need clean environment at the same time we cannot but have wastage's. Waste management problems as it affects water, land and air in Nigeria cities and Ijebu-Ode In particular calls for serious concern. The study of problems associated with the efficient management of waste in Ijebu-Ode as a commercial town in Ijebu province is critical, necessary and essential to the sustainability of the human environment.

Ayotamuno and Gobo (2014), assert that the continuous indiscriminate disposal of municipal solid waste is accelerating and is linked to poverty, poor governance, urbanization, population growth, poor standard of living and low level of environmental awareness and inadequate management of environmental knowledge. Most of these wastes are generated from domestic sources and are mostly characteristics of household waste.

Corroborating the above statement Akinola & Salami (2011), argues that some of the factors influencing solid waste generation in Ijebu Ode and Nigeria at large include inadequate technology facilities for separation at the source, strength of solid waste management policy and enforcement of environmental education and awareness laws together with income status of individuals among others. Over the years, various waste collection methods have been adopted in different part of Nigeria including Ijebu-Ode.

Lasisi (2007) identified six methods including house to house, communal depots, curbside, block systems, commercial and industrial collection and bulk loading. Abel (2009), reported that in Ijebu Ode, waste collection was initiated by both public and private sectors, although the effectiveness of this is largely a function of location and where the collection is done or been carried out is a function of income of the owner of the waste to be able to pay for the service rendered.

Indiscriminate solid waste disposal is actually a menace and embarrassment to Ijebu Ode and its

environs where heaps of refuse litter most part of the city. Considerably percentage of solid wastes generated in Ijebu-Ode are either deposited on the roads or road sides, unapproved dump sites, in water way's (drainage system), or in ope sites which adversely affect flora and fauna as well as the environment especially when it is not appropriately collected and disposed.

Many studies in the last twenty years or more on social-demographic variables and environmental perception have helped in understanding people's views, and thinking about the environment. They have attempted to predict environmental awareness and attitudes of people based on their social-demographic characteristics. However, this study focused on investigating the impact of solid waste treatment and disposal facilities on the environmental problems in Ijebu-Ode and the health of the people in particular.

2. Literature Review

Abila & kantola (2013) defines waste as a substances and materials which are disposed of according to the provision of the national law. Urban wastes are those materials that are generated, used and have no further value and are thrown away in the environment, these materials can be valuable raw materials located at a wrong place (Sharma, 2010) Miller (2004) argues that municipal solid waste are regarded as discarded materials arising from operational activities taken place in different land use such as residential, commercial and industrial. Domestic or residential wastes are those that are collected from dwelling places on a regular basis, such waste include organic matter resulting from preparation and consumption of food, rags, nylon and ashes which remains after various cooking and heating processes. The industrial wastes are those generated by the industries, these could be solid, liquid, sludge. (Omole and Alakinde 2013).

Waste can be categorized into five according to Gordon(2010):

The biodegradable: which includes things like food, and kitchen waste such as meat trimmings or vegetable peelings, yard or green waste and paper.
Recyclable Materials: this includes non-biodegradable items like glass, plastic bottles, other plastics, metals and aluminium cans.
Inert Waste: inert materials which include construction and demolition waste are not necessarily toxic to all species but can be harmful to humans.
Composite Waste: items composed or more than one materials such as clothing, plastics as well as children toys.
Households Hazardous: this includes medicines, paints, batteries, light bulbs, fertilizers and pesticides containers and electronic waste (e-waste) like computers, printers and cellular phones.

3. Environmental Impacts and Management of Solid Waste Disposal

Solid waste has been a major environmental issue everywhere since industrial revolution. Besides the waste we generate at home, school, market and other public places there are also those from the hospitals, pharmaceuticals, industries, farms and other sources (Fantola and Oluwade, 2010). Humans rely so much on material things and these materials almost end up as waste. Thus, Matejicek and Benesova (2002), considered solid waste as something which the owner discards or intends to discard because they have become useless and unwanted. These include papers, plastics, containers, bottles , can, food , car tyres, old refrigerators, scraps of electronics, broken furniture, hospitals waste and other packaging materials. Some of these materials are biodegradable, that is, materials that can decay after been discarded while others are non-biodegradable which do not easily decay or cannot even decay. They pile up in refuse dumps and landfills, these bring great harm to the land, water and people around. Sango-doyin (2011), notes that apart from these wastes there are other groups of hazardous and harmful solid waste which can potentially threaten public health or cause environment problem generally, such waste could be inflammable or difficult to treat, keep, or dispose off. They may contain substances which are reactive (can easily explode), corrosive (can easily eat through metals) or toxic, infectious, carcinogenic (poisonous to human and animals).

However, human being ought not to neglect environmental sanitation, since they know that their health and well- being is connected and dependent on the quality of the environment, this is unfortunate. Studies have revealed that household account for about half of the solid wastes generated, that is, by weight in the cities such as Ijebu-Ode (Omole & Alakinde 2013, Lasis, 2007). It has been observed that Ogun State and Nigeria in general paid more attention to solid waste management, despite this attention, collection, disposal, processing treatment, recycling and utilization have defied solution as a result of the attitude of some Nigerian. Onokerhorayae (2007), in

his study related the issue of the decomposing un-cleared solid wastes in urban centers to lack of comprehensive land use system. He assert that poorly maintained winding street and roads do not give room for the efficient evacuation of solid wastes to the incineration centers at the outskirts of the cities.

In their study, Akinola and Salami (2011) noticed that management of solid waste generated within the urban centers has become one of the most obstinate problems of development. Their study revealed that in the last two decades, there had been a phenomenal increase in the volume and range of waste generated in many developing countries of the world, Nigeria inclusive. The rapidly growing metropolis in developing countries has been identified as one of the major factors responsible for solid waste problems or treatments.

4. Study Area

Ijebu-Ode is a local government area and city located in south - western part of Nigeria. The city is located 110km by road north-east of Lagos, it is within 100km of the Atlantic ocean in the eastern part of Ogun State and possesses a warm tropical climate Ijebu-Ode became the seat of Ijebu-Division council when created as Ijebu-Division.

Several tones of municipal solid waste is left uncollected on the street of Ijebu-Ode each day like most cities in the developing world. These waste block drainages, creating breeding ground for vectors and spreading diseases and creating a myriad of related health and environmental problems. A substantial part of the town has little or no access to solid waste collection services. This is due to lack of proper land use planning which is making it difficult for collecting trucks to reach many areas. This result is that a large portion of the population is left without access to solid waste management making them particularly vulnerable (Nabegu, 2008).

5. Research Methodology

This study adopted descriptive research design to obtain first-hand information from the studied population. Two hypotheses were formulated and analyzed in this study. There are:

Ho_1 There is no significant impact of solid waste disposal on the health states of Ijebu-Ode.
Ho_2 There is no significant impact of solid waste disposal on the environment problems in Ijebu-Ode.

The target population for the study consisted of all residents of Ijebu-Ode local government area of Ogun state. Simple random sampling technique was used to sample one hundred respondent for the study. The main instrument used for data collection was a self-developed questionnaire which was divided into two sections. The instrument was validated by researcher to ensure face and content validity, the reliability was also done through test-retest test method. The researcher personally visited the respondents to administer the instrument for data collection.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant impact of the solid waste disposal on health status of ijebu-ode people. The data used in testing this hypothesis is from the responses to question 5 in the instrument.

Table 1: Reponses of the people to impact of solid waste disposal on the health status of Ijebu-Ode people.

Attribute	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/E$
Strongly Agreed	32	25	7	49	1.96
Agreed	58	25	33	1089	43.56
Disagreed	10	25	-15	225	9
Strongly Disagreed		25			
Total	**100**				**52.56**

Degree of freedom= (C-1)(R-1)
=(4-1)(4-1)
= 3 X 3
= 9
Decision Rule: X^2 tab at 5% level of significance = 9.49

Interpretation:

From the above table, it can be observed that the computed value was more than the critical value indicating that the observed frequencies differ significantly from the expected frequencies. The Null hypothesis was rejected since the calculated value of $X^2 = 52.56$ was greater than its critical value (9.49) at 5% level of significance. This means that there is significant impact of solid waste disposal on the health status of Ijebu-Ode people.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant impact of indiscriminate disposal of waste on the environmental problems in Ijebu-Ode.

The data used in testing this hypothesis is from the responses to question 8

Table 2: Responses of people to impact of indiscriminate disposal of waste on the environmental problems in Ijebu-Ode.

Attribute	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/_E$
Strongly Agreed	40	25	15	225	9
Agreed	58	25	33	1089	43.56
Disagreed	2	25	23	529	21.16
Strongly Disagreed		25			
Total	**100**				**73.72**

Interpretation:

From the above table, it can be observed that the computed value was more than the critical value, indicating that the observed frequencies differ significantly from the expected frequencies. The null hypothesis was rejected since the calculated value X^2 =73.72 was greater than its critical value (i.e 9.49) at 5% level of significance. This means that there is significance impact of indiscriminate disposal of waste on environmental problems in Ijebu-Ode.

6. Discussion

From research hypothesis one, it was revealed from the data collected that solid waste poses various threats to public health and adversely affects flora and fauna as well as environment especially when it is not appropriately collected and disposed.

More so, considerable percentage of solid wastes generated in Ijebu-Ode are either deposited on the road sides, unapproved dump sites, in water ways (drainage system), or in open sites which adversely affect environmental friendliness. The findings go in line with the study of Adewusi and Onifade (2006) which focused on the effects of urban solid waste on physical environment and property transactions in Surulere Local Government Area of Lagos State, Nigeria, which posited that if the solid wastes are not managed properly, decomposition and putrefaction may take place, causing land and water pollution when the waste products percolate down into the underground water resources.

Form the data collected and the analysis of hypothesis two, it was revealed that indiscriminate disposal of solid wastes generates in Ijebu Ode such as maize cobs, leaves, charcoal, ashes, papers, vegetable and fruit left over, polythene bags, metals, bottles, and electronics part. The findings corroborate the findings of Butu (2013) who argued that the huge heaps of refuse dumps that are commonly seen on open space and on the major street are been removed by rainstorm into drainage channels thereby preventing easy flow of water and finally lead to flooding of the highways and sometimes people's homes. These blocked drainage channels often contain a lot of materials including decomposable substances with offensive odour which welcomes different types of flies and other harmful bacteria carrying insects which are harmful to humans.

7. Conclusion

A critical examination of the waste disposal methods clearly show that the area under investigation was traditional and slums part of the town. These areas are not well planned thus it is not easy to evacuate waste by the government waste vehicles. The municipal solid waste is very high in Ijebu-Ode because of the recent increase in population couple with the fact that the town is a commercial centre of Ijebu division.

The municipal solid wastes noticed in Ijebu Ode include biodegradable wastes such as leaves, woods, animal dungs, human faeces and non-biodegradable waste such as plastics, bottles, glass, electronics wastes, polythene bags also called pure water sachet among others. These non-biodegradable wastes are very dangerous to human health and the sustainability of human environment.

8. Recommendations

- Poverty has been identified as the major problem of many developing countries such as Nigeria. Therefore, the government should increase the per-capital income of the people in the study area, this will enable them to manage and dispose their waste properly and effectively.
- Urgent attention should be given to environmental education for the people in the study area. This will create public

enlightenment and awareness on proper management of solid waste and development of environmental friendly attitudes.

- The existing environmental laws and regulations should be reviewed and effective mechanism for the enforcement of the laws and regulations be put in place.
- Environmental law enforcement officer should be recruited at the Local Government levels and be empowered to enforce environmental laws at the grassroots levels.
- Enough funds should be made available for the government agencies in-charge of the environment for the effective management of human environment.
- Government should establish recycling plants at various levels i.e. local, state, and federal to recycle the non- biodegradable solid wastes materials.

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International Labour Organization Decent Work Agenda for Nigeria: Prospects and Challenges

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Abstract. Human beings are at the core of any production process in any given economy, indicating the importance of the human activity. This is why the International Labour Organization in its global pursuit of establishing human right in employment relations have charted decent work guides for member nations to follow for work places to be conducive and elicit performance from employees for ultimate good of the people and the nation generally. This paper examined the concept of decent work, the conventions of decent work as outlined by International Labour Organization, the challenges to decent work in Nigeria and the ultimate gains of decent work to employers, employees, and all stakeholders in the Nigerian workplace environment. The paper revealed the in capability of both the State and employers align with the various ILO conventions for smooth industrial harmony of the industrial players. The paper thus recommends the strict adherence of all industrial players to the guidelines stipulated by ILO Charters and Conventions to create a peaceful, safe and progressive working environment for all industrial players as well as present the Nigerian State as a committed organ of the international comity of nations as reliable and worker friendly State.

Keywords: International Labour Organization, Decent Work Agenda, Conventions, Nigeria, Challenges, Prospects.

1. Introduction

The International Labour Organization, a subsidiary of the United Nations Organization, committed to global employment and labour relations matters of peoples and nations of the world expressed concern at its 87th International Labour Congress in 1999 (ILO, 1999) on the objective of member states not only to create jobs but with acceptable standard quality. Further, the International Labour Congress adopting Convention 189, 2011 in 2013 reaffirmed the Declaration on Decent Work Agenda to members "to respect and promote and realize in good faith" the principles concerning four (4) categories of fundamental rights at work.

Categories of Fundamental Rights at Work

Areas	Core Conventions
Freedom of association and effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining	No. 87- Freedom of Association and Protection of the right to organize, 1948; and 98-Right to organize and Collective Bargaining, 1949
The elimination of all forms of forced labour or compulsory labour	No. 29- Forced Labour, 1930; and No. 105- Abolition of Forced Labour 1957
The cancellation of Child Labour	No. 138-Minimum Age, 1973; and No. 182- Worse forms of child labour.1999
The elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation	No. 100-Equal remuneration, 1951; and No.111- Discrimination (Employment and occupation), 1958

Source: www.molsmed.gov.tt/portals/0/Decent%20work%20Agenda accessed 10/13/2019

The perspective of the ILO in recent time towards compliance level of nations with decent work agenda

in the face of dwindling resources, economic recession and increasing population particularly in Nigeria stirred this study.

2. Concept of Decent Work

Okafor, (2012) defined decent work as the availability of employment in conditions of freedom, equity, human security and dignity. The ILO opined that decent work involves advantages for work that is productive and creates a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, valuable prospect for individual development and social integration, freedom for people to voice concerns, organize and involve in decisions that influence lives and equality of opportunity for men and women (Levin, 2003, Kayode and Agboola, 2019). Therefore, decent work in totality is what people hope for in their working lives: opportunity and income; rights, voice and recognition; family stability and personal development; public health and wellbeing; and fairness, gender and racial equality. Furthermore, decent work covers access to employment in conditions of freedom, allowing basic rights at work that guarantee the absence of discrimination or harassment, an income that allows one to afford basic economic, social and family needs and responsibilities, an adequate level of social protection for the worker and family members and the exercise of voice and participation at work, directly or indirectly through representative organizations (ILO, 2005).

The United Nations Economic and Social Council has given a general comment that defines "decent work" and requires satisfaction of Article 7 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: decent work is employment that "respects the fundamental rights of the human person as well as the rights of workers in terms of conditions of work safety and remuneration as well as respect for the physical and mental integrity of the worker in the exercise of his/her employment." In discussing decent work, Nazani & Prasad (2017) says it applies to both the formal and informal sector of the economy as it must reflect in all kind of jobs, people and families. Decent work is a multidimensional concept because it touches the humane grounds. It is implicit in the meaning of the job or income is good, meeting one's expectation and those of one's community and at the same time, it is not exaggerated and is falling within the reasonable aspirations of reasonable people.

The ILO Decent Work Agenda (2015) is the balanced and integrated programmatic approach to pursue the objectives of full and productive employment and decent work for all at global, regional, national, sectoral and local levels. It has four pillars: standards and rights at work, employment creation and enterprise development, social protection and social dialogue. The Sustainable Development Goals (2019) also proclaims decent work for sustainable economic growth. The Goal aims to increase labour productivity, reduce the unemployment rate, and improve access to financial services and benefits. Encouraging entrepreneurship and job creation are key to this, as are effective measures to eradicate forced labour, slavery and human trafficking. With these targets in mind, the goal is to achieve full and productive employment, and decent work, for all women and men by 2030. In other words, it is in order to say that that the ILO decent work agenda is intended to advance economic and working conditions that give all workers, employers and governments a stake of lasting peace, prosperity and progress. The decent work agenda is much related to the employment generation, support for small and medium enterprises, addressing informality, securing better working conditions and safety and health, and freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives, with gender equality. A dimension to this decent work agenda is about the statistics of Nigerians in employment as at 2017 approximated to 85million people (NBC, 2018). It further revealed that in the third quarter of 2017, unemployment rate increased by 18.8 percent with increase in the number of school graduates not matched by job opportunities increases (ILO, 2019).

3. Decent work trends in Nigeria

The problem associated with non-availability of decent work has stirred global attention making the United Nations Secretary-General at the 2015 Congress to advice nations to increase their efforts in promoting job opportunities for men and women in order to foster decent and productive work environment, in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity (ILO, 2010, TUC, 2014; Ban Kimono,2015) which has inspired several studies in the area of labour and industrial relations, (ILO,2010, 2011) with United Nations to include the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with the need to “promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all” as the eighth goal of the Sustainable Development Goals Agenda.

This extends to job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation. There is no doubt that SDG

(8) which is geared towards promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable employment and decent work for all is meant to set a new path to economic growth and development for a country like Nigeria which has 112,519 million people living in poverty and over 20 million people without jobs. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), the number of unemployed persons globally in 2017 is estimated to stand at just over 201million with an additional rise of 2.7 million expected in 2018 as the pace of labour force growth overshadows job creation. The Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) states that unemployment stood at 6.4% for the final quarter of 2014 in Nigeria and increased to 7.5% for the first three months of 2015 and had further risen from 13.3 per cent in the second quarter to 13.9 per cent in the third quarter of 2016.

In its report, NBS stated the number of people that were unemployed or underemployed increased from 24.4 million as at the end of the first quarter of 2016 to 26.06 million persons. The report further expressed the number of underemployed in the labour force (those working but doing menial jobs not commensurate with their qualifications or those not engaged in fulltime work and merely working for few hours) increased by 392,390 or 2.61 per cent resulting in an increase in the underemployment rate to 19.3 per cent in Quarter 2of 2016 from 19.1 per cent in Quarter 1 of 2016.This statistics shows that Nigeria is not free from the global trend of rising unemployment. The inference from this is that the rate at which the labour force is growing is faster than the rate of job creation. This means that the few jobs that are available are not enough for the unemployed. Hence, the labour market is becoming fierce and more competitive that most people just settle for any job even though it is not decent enough. The lack of decent jobs is causing issues such as social unrest, suicide, terrorism and migration in many parts of the world.

4. Provisions of decent work in Nigeria: The ILO intervention

The attention on provision of decent work is stirring global momentum, Juan Somavia as Director General of ILO stressed the deficit of the provision of decent work across countries of the globe. Based on the Decent Work Agenda, the ILO had been collaborating with Nigeria through the Decent Work Country Programme (DWCP) under the Declaration for fair and globalization framework of action. Decent work is linked to the concept of human development, a process of enabling choices, freedom to live one's value and manage one's affairs which are key indicators of which are long and healthy life, education and a decent standard of living. However, these indicators are measured by UNDP Human Development Index. The ILO (2004) enunciated four strategic objectives of decent work which are fundamental principles and rights at work and international labour standards, employment and income opportunities; social protection and social security and tripartism (Adewumi, 2008). Barrientos (2007:1-2) pointed some challenges associated with these objectives which reflect in the Nigerian situation in connection with nonstandard employment relations. These include the following:

Job creation: This objective states that economy is to create opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, skills development, job creation and sustainable livelihoods. Barrientos (2007) is of the opinion that the employment challenge created arose from the diversity of employment generated by the global production system. He explained that decent work requires permanence, regularity, and to be secured in it as a worker. Relating this to the Nigerian context, it is clear that the economy is incapable of generating employment to the teeming population Nigerians in dire need of job will accept whatever being offered. Many employers have provided in decent jobs, not considering the global standards. Government ought to create jobs as well the conducive environment to facilitate job creation, otherwise nonstandard employment relations will continue to flourish wrongly.

Guarantee rights at work: This second objective expresses the need to give recognition and protect workers' rights. Barrientos (2007) is of the view that rights of workers could be protected by organization as well as the representatives of the workers union. In Nigeria, workers who work in nonstandard environment are grossly undermined; denied of several rights because they cannot unionize (Okafor, 2012). Succinctly put, (Uvieghara, 2000; Okougbo, 2004, Adewumi, 2008, & Okafor, 2010) says any employment relation that does not allow the workers to unionize in decision making, denies workers of their rights and such organization does not provide decent work.

Extending Social Protection: It attempts to highlight the need for inclusion and productivity ensuring women and men enjoy good and safe working conditions have free time, rest and family, social values are considered as well view issues of compensation and health care regarded. In the Nigerian setting, many workers in nonstandard work environment are denied access to most of this probably because the labour laws are not obeyed

even though Nigeria is a signatory to ILO conventions (Okafor, 2012).

Promoting Social Dialogue: This objective states the inclusion of strong and independent workers and employer's organizations being germane to increased productivity, avoiding disputes at work, and building cohesive societies. In the view of Barrientos (2007) the social dialogue challenge arises from lack of effective voice or independent representation of such workers in the process of dialogue with employers, government or stakeholders. This hampers production of such workers whose morale, motivations are low.

The ILO remarks about the Decent Work deficits in the Nigeria Decent Work Country Programme 11 indicated that even though Nigeria ratified 40 ILO Conventions with 35 in force, Nigeria is yet to ratify a number of conventions which are crucial to addressing decent work issues. These include ILO Conventions C122, C129, C150, C187, and C188 that relate to labour market governance, C102 on social security, C181 on Private Employment Agencies and C189 on Domestic Workers. However, the implementation of the ratified conventions has not been effective due to capacity challenges in ensuring compliance, lack of awareness of the provisions of such conventions. Reviewed Labour Laws were delayed in receiving legislative attention for about nine years. It can be said that the efforts of ILO in reducing this scourge is being evaded in the Nigerian situation, the current depressed economic situation is biting harder, employers of labour, both public and private are using all forms of unacceptable avenues to exploit their workers. Some of these are low wages and long hours of work, gender and age discrimination, in humane physical work environment, disrespect for freedom of association and poor industrial relations, inadequate social protection, thus eroding the dignity of the Nigerian worker (Okafor, 2012; OECD, 2012; World Economic Forum 2014). According to ILO in the Nigeria Decent Work Country Programme II (2015 - 2018) the country has had a decade of jobless growth given that years of economic growth has not translated to more wage employment opportunities and poverty alleviation. The report further states that over half of the entire 170 million population live in urban areas with unsustainable conditions, with high rate of unemployment. Nigeria is hardly on pursuit of meeting the MDGs, more so in the area of reducing extreme poverty and hunger. Therefore, in line with ILO 2011 convention 98 that has made public the importance of decent work agenda to individual employees, organizations and the society and probably one of the most important issues in labour and employment relations, as it leads to poverty, increase in insecurity and inclusive sustainable development, efforts must be stepped up by all stakeholders to stem the further drift in Nigeria (Report of the E- Discussion 2012; Ban Kimoon, 2015). ILO (2007) emphasized that, employment that will guarantee decent work for the people should start from national policy, adapted to national priorities and incorporating such to national development policies.

Rogers (2007) elucidating on decent work agenda says it is base for social policy which shows concern for dignity of work and gender equality in work, the role of work in social integration and personal development. Thus efforts need to be channeled towards aggressive job creation, international cooperation, entrepreneurship and skills training of citizens, creating a better working condition for the employed, while promoting decent employment. Governments of developing countries are mostly faced in creating efficient labour markets that can guarantee decent work agenda. To promote decent work agenda is to serve as a universal principle which will drive economic system, propel organizations to increase the quality of work through improved working conditions, better occupational safety and health, and higher incomes that will secure a more environmentally sustainable economy (ILO, 2013). Importantly workers are to be seen as adding value to organizations and as the most valued asset for organizational development and growth than been seen as a tool of production (ILO,2011;Torrington, Hall and Taylor,2008; Stiglitz.2009; Armstrong,2011)
Providing decent work is a serious issue across the globe for human beings who have attained the working age to as a fulfillment of the human right and obligation of states to her citizens. The essence of providing decent work is to improve standard of living of employees, create a decent and productive work environment, and create conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity (ILO, 1999).

Literature reveals that many vices and issues surround the non-availability of decent work to the citizenry. Adebayo (1999); Fajana (2005) associated idleness, unemployment leading to frustration, depression, hostility and criminal behaviour. Chigunta (2002) is of the view that many youths engage in casual work, stealing, prostitution and other unwholesome activities due to lack of decent work. Accordingly, ILO (2018) further enunciated the lists of Decent Work deficits in the Nigerian environment to include non-availability of social

security to protect all the citizens, inadequate pensions system, trafficking of women and the use of child labour more so working in non-standard workplaces.

The ratification of the ILO conventions by Nigerian government to the point of getting it enshrined in some of the provisions of the constitution has probably not been really effective from record of events about the observance of these human rights. The 2009 World Bank report captured half of Nigeria's 170 million people as living in urban areas with high rates of unemployment. This high level of unemployment reflected in the death of about 18 job seekers who died and many injured in the nationwide recruitment test conducted by the Nigeria Immigration Service in 2014. In September 2015, there was the report of death of a worker in a Steel company in Lagos. The report indicated the anomaly of forced work under conditions near slavery, even at the point of evacuation of the corpse reflects employers not meeting the provision of safety standard environment of work. The 2015 event of World Day of Decent Work remarked the picketing of some companies accused of not providing decent work environment. The President of the NLC made an address requesting that workers deserve the best in terms of decent work and welfare.

The ILO government partner or operative unit is the Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment (FMLE) in Nigeria. Since 1959 when the ILO opened its First African Office in Nigeria, the ILO has been providing technical cooperation assistance to Nigeria through the FMLE. It has assisted in enhancing the human and institutional capacities of the FMLE, especially in the areas of social dialogue, HIV/AIDS, employment issues, etc. This has enabled the ministry to be proactive in fulfilling its mandate as a labour and employment organ of government and to contribute to decision making on labour and economic issues (ILO, 2014).

ILO (2009) asserts that for most people and their families and communities the main route out of poverty, and the key to reducing the risk of falling into poverty, is decent and productive work. Decent work aims at a substantial reduction in the levels of unemployment and a major improvement in the quality of jobs available to women and men. In Nigeria, the number of labour market entrants has outpaced the economy's ability to absorb them, resulting in high unemployment, underemployment and discouragement.

Fapohunda (2004) reported that, on a national basis, open unemployment was over 10%. Most of the unemployment is concentrated in the urban areas. As at July 2018, urban unemployment was over 20% in some Nigerian states. The unemployment is not only of unskilled workers; it includes unemployment of highly skilled people including graduates of universities and of other institutions of higher learning (ILO, 2018).

ILO (2018) reported that employment expanded by about 30 per cent between the 1990s and the mid-2000s. However, the period was characterized by a contraction of formal employment and decent work (full-time, formal, regular and permanent contracts covered by labour legislation) and a proliferation of various types of non-standard work in Nigeria. The bulk of new employment in recent years, in Nigeria, has been in the informal economy. Such forms of work are generally precarious and poorly paid, with few benefits and not covered by labour legislation or social protection.

Fapohunda (2012) affirmed that recent estimates suggest that informal work now accounts for more than 80 per cent of total non-agricultural employment in Nigeria. Several factors are responsible for the rise of non-standard work. The downsizing of the public sector and privatization of state-owned enterprises are contributory factors, as retrenched public-sector employees often turn to the informal sector for a living.

The search for flexible labour arrangements in an increasingly competitive global environment has led multinational firms to relocate different stages of or entire production processes from Nigeria in order to take advantage of differences in wage costs, factor endowments or congenial investment climates. Owing to these trends, there have been changes in the distribution of income and low decent work. ILO (2018) adds that the share of wages in total income declined between the early 1990s and the mid-2000s and during the same period, the income gap between the top and bottom wage earners increased. The decrease in the proportion of unionized labour has reinforced these trends. Access to labour markets and to decent work remains particularly limited for adults in Nigeria. For Nigeria to achieve its decent work potential, the priority is to realize labour market opportunities to create more and better jobs for women and men. Accordingly, the Nigeria DWCP II, which provides a framework for the Nigerian Government and the Social Partners to collaborate with various public and private sector stakeholders with technical and financial assistance from the ILO and builds on the lessons learnt from the Nigeria DWCP I (2005 – 2009). It aligns with national

development priorities as outlined in the Vision 20: 2020, Transformation Agenda and UN Development Framework of Assistance (UNDAF) in Nigeria (ILO, 2014).

The labour market in Nigeria has not reflected the impressive level of economic growth experienced from 2005-2013. Although the economy recorded an average of 9.8 percent of GDP growth per annum between 2008 and 2010, the official unemployment rate for the working age population ranged between 12 and 15 percent between 2002 and 2007. Today, half of the country's 170 million people live in urban areas with unsustainable conditions, including high rates of unemployment. With the official rate of unemployment of 19.7 percent, achieving the target of reduction of extreme poverty and hunger is a far cry in the country as more than 71 million people are still in the threshold of abject poverty. Nigeria is hardly on track to meet the MDGs, particularly the number one (eradicating extreme poverty and hunger). (Agu & Udoh, 2011)

The Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment (FMLE) play an interlocutor role between the employers' and workers' organizations and is the Chair of the National Labour Advisory Council (NLAC). The ministry has been limited in its capacity in moving the agenda of the NLAC forward and also in dealing with labour issues. It has failed in its capacity to organize NLAC meetings originally scheduled to hold every quarter of the year and is weak in its role of a facilitator of tripartism and social dialogue and in its role as the coordinating body for the implementation of the DWCP.

The Nigeria Employers' Consultative Forum (NECA) was founded in 1957 as the umbrella organization of employers in the organized private sector of Nigeria. It represents the employers' organization as the tripartite member of the ILO. Though NECA remains the central organization for employers, there are other organizations that have been established, such as the Chambers of Commerce, and the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN). Accordingly, the NECA faces stiff competition in terms of members from these other organizations. On the other hand, in terms of the workers' organizations, there are two trade union organizations in Nigeria the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress of Nigeria (TUC). All these are statutory members of the ILO Governing Body.

The organized trade union movement dates back to 1912 when the Nigeria Civil Service Union was established. In February 1978, the NLC was formed and now has 39 affiliates. On the other hand, the TUC was formed in 2004 and has 11 affiliates. The NECA and NLC are members of the National Labour Advisory Council while TUC is an observer. While there is a cordial relationship of the ILO tripartite members in Nigeria, the relationships has been weakened due to lack of regular meetings of the NLAC. The NLAC has not been meeting regularly and not fulfilling its role as an advisory body to the government on labour issues which is due to lack of funding by the government (ILO, 2014).

The government, employers' and workers' organizations in Nigeria have participated actively in the formulation, validation and revision of the DWCP I & 2. However, all the constituents have capacity shortcomings in their technical and financing capacities in terms of implementing key elements relating to their mandates in the DWCP.

The Nigerian government responses to the foregoing decent work deficits and development challenges have included economic planning studies, poverty response projects and action plans. Nigeria's development plans during the military regimes were in the times of major political upheavals and economic crises that necessitated transitory and sporadic actions from the incumbent administrations until 1999 when democratic governance was instituted (ILO, 2014).

In 2004, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) document was developed. It was Nigeria's plan for prosperity outlining comprehensive action, goals and principles of a new Nigeria. The core of the strategy was to fight poverty, improve incomes and tackle social and political factors that lead to poverty. NEEDS was a strategy of wealth creation and by implication, employment generation and poverty reduction and the first government development strategy with a gender-sensitive lens. However, the achievements in the medium term from 2003- 2010 have not measured up to the huge expectation.

In the earlier part of 2011, a Presidential Employment Summit whose objective was to facilitate discussion amongst stakeholders on the strategies for employment generation in Nigeria was convened. The report from this summit is intended to provide the blue print for future employment creation interventions in Nigeria by both the Public and the Private sectors. Addressing the poverty challenge and the decent work deficits facing Nigeria will certainly continue to require policy reforms and large-scale investments in many key areas, but most importantly, targeted investments with regards to employment

creation, more commitments to fighting the scourge on human trafficking and child labour, reviewing the social security schemes in accordance to the social protection, funding initiative and building the capacities of government, employers' and workers' organizations to effectively be a voice in labour and economic issues; and promotion of gender equality (ILO, 2014).

The DWCP 1 ended in 2009 and as a prerequisite to the formulation of the DWCP II, there was a review of the DWCP I in March 2010. Key findings of the review were that: (i) the 3 priority areas namely: Job creation especially for women and youths through self-employment; elimination of human trafficking and child labour; and prevention and mitigation of the impact of HIV/AIDS in the world of work reflected the decent work deficits at that time as still significant .(ii)The DWCP 1 was formulated at a time unemployment, particularly youth unemployment had reached alarming dimension and was gradually threatening social cohesion, security and the nation's nascent democracy while the growing army of unemployed youths were increasingly alienated and finding ready 'employment' in anti-social activities. It was also pointed out that Nigeria was then blacklisted by the international community, for unprecedented number of Nigerians were trafficked to Europe and other parts of the world for exploitative labour while the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS was one of the highest in the Sub Saharan Africa; and (iii) the DWCP 1 priority areas were consistent with the national development priorities especially NEEDS 1 which focused on empowering people through creation of 7 million jobs by 2007 (ILO, 2014).

The DWCP 1 did not achieve much except the activities and outcomes from the technical cooperation projects being implemented by the ILO Abuja Office. The programme also lacked a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) plan encompassing the various underlying assumptions, indicators, and baselines on which the deliverables of the project activities would be assessed. While huge financial outlays were proposed in the budget, there was no resource mobilization strategy developed and no information on who was responsible for funding the DWCP programmes and activities. With respect to the institutional and operational arrangements of the DWCP I, the review also revealed that there was lack of awareness on the roles and responsibilities of the various implementing partners (ILO, 2014).
In order to prevent the likelihood of similar problems arising in DWCP II, in April 2010, with the technical and financial support of the ILO, key stakeholders were taken through a two-day workshop on steps and procedures in formulating DWCPs. Sessions included concepts and practice of results-based management; as well as an introduction to monitoring and evaluation. As the DWCP I priorities are still very much relevant today, the DWCP II builds on the lessons learnt of the DWCP I while priorities anchors on the DWCP 1 (ILO, 2014).

Though the Nigerian government adopted the SDG Agenda in New York in 2015, her effort in the direction of attaining the SDG 8, with targets as follows amongst others has not indicated success, sustaining per capita economic growth; achieving higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation including high value added and labour intensive sectors; 2030 set to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities and equal pay for work of equal value; 2020 date to reduce the proportion youth not in employment, education or training; eradicate forced labour, end slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment of and use of child soldiers by 2025; protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers and those in precarious employment

5. The Challenges of Decent Work in Nigeria

Decent work as advocated by the ILO may be an ideal but not a reality for most workers in nonstandard employment relations. In a country like Nigeria with capitalist driven profit motives, and where labour market is highly saturated, indigenous and foreign employers capitalize on this, decent work will be very difficult to achieve. Nonstandard employment relations is a worldwide phenomenon, however, in some countries, it is driven by choice not by compulsion to survive (Fapohunda, 2012).

Paradoxically, in the case of Nigeria, the practice is driven largely by compulsion to survive and not by choice. Of course decent work may be a journey, not a destination; it is a standard which each country strives to attain. In line with the four components of decent work such as creating employment, guaranteeing workers' rights, extending social protection and promoting social dialogue; the challenges shall be discussed.

According to Barrientos (2007) the employment challenge arises from the diversity of employment generated by global production systems. For a job to be decent it should be permanent, regular and secure in order to guarantee continuous income for a worker. However, even within the same firm there may be employment that is flexible, insecure and informal. Relating this within the context of Nigerian situation, it is evidential that the economy as presently structured and run is incapable of generating jobs for millions of able-bodied men and women willing to work. This implies that people are desperately searching for means of survival even if it means picking up any kind of job offered to them not minding the take home. Against this background, most employers, both local and expatriates usually capitalize on this desperate situation of the massive job seekers to exploit, oppress and dehumanize this category of people who are in nonstandard employment (Mokwenye, 2008; Abideen and Osuji, 2011).

The point here is that when concerted effort is not made by the government to create jobs or provide conducive environment for the people to create their own jobs, nonstandard employment relations will continue to flourish to the delights of the employers driven by profit motives. With this the decent job as advocated by the ILO will simply remain a mirage in relation to nonstandard employment relations in Nigeria.

Without collective power to negotiate with employers, workers are not in a position to access or secure other rights. In Nigeria, workers in nonstandard employment are denied of several rights. The Nigeria labour law does not empower this category of workers to join a trade union. When workers are not allowed to join trade unions in their place of work so many of their rights could be denied. In such situation, the employers dictate terms and conditions of work with little or resistance from the workers (Barrientos, 2007).

Also, because of inability to unionize, the nonstandard workers cannot negotiate or bargain collectively with their employers especially as it relates pay, hours of work, health and safety measures and such related issues (Adewumi, 2008). In a nutshell, any employment relations that will not allow workers to unionize or participate in decisions that affect their work and advance their right in the place of work is far from being a decent work (Okafor, 2010).

The social protection implication relates to the lack of access many flexible and informal workers have to a contract of employment and legal employment benefits. They are therefore often denied access to other forms of protection and social assistance by the state (Adewumi, 2008). Within the Nigerian context, nonstandard workers do not enjoy any form of social protection either from their employers or the state. For example, these workers are not included in pension scheme by their employers neither do they enjoy any form employment benefits from the state even though the state can afford this (Okafor, 2010).

This leaves many workers in this category very vulnerable to economic shocks both in their places of work and in the large society. The implication here is that this category of employees in relation to social security are despised by their employers and rejected by the state. This hardly promotes decent job as advocated by the ILO which Nigeria is a signatory.

The social dialogue challenge arises from the lack of effective voice or independent representation of such workers in a process of dialogue with employers, government or other stakeholders. Relating this objective to the pervasive nature of nonstandard employment relations in Nigeria, this category of workers lack a very strong voice both within and outside the place of work due to their inability to unionize. Hence, their chances of engaging in social dialogue of whatever type with their employees and other stakeholders are very limited (Okafor, 2010).

When the employers exploit and oppress their workers because the workers do not have real choice or alternative, the dedication, commitment and behaviour of such workers to their work, the organization and the state will be questionable. This has a very serious implication for productivity in both the workplace and in the large society (Okafor, 2010).

6. Prospects of Decent Work in Nigeria

Decent work is a standard which each country strives to attain. However, to make decent work a reality in a country like Nigeria, there is the need for total review of not only the labour law but also the practice of industrial relations to protect this category of workers from the greedy and lawless indigenous and multinational employers who take delight in violating labour standards to their own selfish advantage. The prospect of decent work is to promote opportunities for adults to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity. Employment promotion is a central objective of the decent work. The defense of rights at work necessarily involves the responsibility to promote the possibilities of work itself. Decent work is therefore concerned with the unemployed, and with policies to

overcome unemployment and underemployment, as it is with the promotion of rights at work (Fapohunda, 2012).

An enabling environment for enterprise development lies at the heart of these objectives. The goal is not just the creation of jobs, but also the creation of jobs of acceptable quantity. However, the quantity of employment cannot be divorced from its quality. It could relate to different forms of work, and also to different conditions of work, as well as feelings of value and satisfaction. The lack of decent work has been identified as the primary cause of poverty (Fapohunda, 2012).

7. Recommendations

- Based the ILO conventions on Decent Work arrangement for nations, organizations and employers, particularly the Nigerian State should be seen to pursue the implementation of the various documents it has ratified to create a peaceful and progressive work environment to allow for performance and effective productive process.
- Dignity of labour is a pride to employees who work in suitable work places, with robust remuneration and welfare packages. This is enshrined in ILO Convention on decent work, employment standard for member nations. It is advised that Nigeria should stand up to fulfilling these conditions for workers to enjoy ultimately as pivotal to their performance. Many employers repress workers from freedom of association and effective recognition of collective bargaining, the State is also guilty of this in the government owned workplaces, maybe the reason why she has not been able to regulate well on the employers found culpable. This requires the Nigerian State interference. However, it is suggested that this is addressed.
- The provision of good jobs in demanding quantity, security in such work as well as adequate pay are areas of concern to the teaming population of unemployed Nigerians. The Nigerian government is advised to address these issues with a view to improving the lot of unemployed people.

8. Conclusion

Decent work plays an important role in development and good standard of living, which is the key element of success in any economy. The preserve of pervasive and persistent poverty, unemployment and under-employment lead to a static or retrogressive development. Decent work promotes opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work rather than discriminating on sex, ethics and age distribution. This implies that, the standard of living will be high and also it will overcome discrimination of employment in the labour market, including the progressive eradication of inequality between men and women in the world of work. Furthermore, it will also create conducive environment for development.

The FMLE requires further enhancement of its capacity in all the afore-mentioned areas and particularly to develop a comprehensive strategy in integrating the DWA into national development strategies and frameworks. The capacity also needs to be built to enable it spearhead the current employment creation initiatives of the government.

The central place of decent work in the new development paradigm must not be underscored. Organizations must strengthen decent employment links between economic growth and aggregate poverty reduction, it must be prerequisite for creating decent employment including the transformation of the economy from low productivity, traditional Agriculture to labour intensive high value agriculture and ago-processing and to the growing industrial and services sectors by taking the advantage of globalization opportunities.

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Oil Resource Dependence, Financial Sector Development and Sectoral Performance in Nigeria

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Abstract. This study examined the impact of oil resource dependence on the relationship between financial sector development and economic growth in Nigeria and explores whether the effect differ among key sectors of the economy. Time series econometrics analysis anchored on an aggregate production function theoretical framework of the augmented Solow's model is employed for the period 1981-2016. The study used a more robust measure of oil dependency. The effect of financial development when account is taken of oil dependence is negative in both manufacturing and agriculture sector but positive in the service sector and in the aggregate economy. This supports the hypothesis that oil resource dependency influences the finance-growth nexus in Nigeria with varied impact on the key sectors.

Keywords: Dutch Disease, financial sector, sectoral performance

1. Introduction

The quest to industrialize pulses with the desire to achieve sustained economic growth in Nigeria since independence. Industrialization as a key driver of economic growth is expected to instigate structural change in the economy. It does this by shifting resource from low productivity to high productivity uses. To facilitate this shift, both in theory and history, the development of a well-functioning and efficient financial sector could be crucial (Bittencourt, 2012; Barajas,Chami and Yousefi, 2013; Swamy, V. and Dharani, M. 2019 among others).However, the way the financial development growth facilitating or structural change stimulating impact play out in a natural dependent economy plays out appears little understood.

A well-functioning financial system could help transform the massive rent derivable from a resource endowed country into financial assets that can be deployed towards the development of other sectors within the economy. Contrarily, the abundant natural resources can have negative impact on the financial sector and other key sectors like agriculture, manufacturing and services resulting in poor growth performance. This is advocated in the Dutch disease hypothesis (Bedeeb and Lean, 2017). Nigeria economy is manifestly highly dependent oil resources. This is shown in total export that is more than 90% from oil over the last two decades. The same can be said of central government revenue of more the 70% coming from oil sector.

The question that arise from the foregoing are:

- How do the finance-growth nexus play out in the context of an oil dependent economy like Nigeria?
- Do the effects defer on the performance of agriculture, manufacturing, and service sector respectively?

This paper examines the impact of oil resource dependence on the relationship between financial sector development and economic growth in Nigeria. In addition it explores whether the impact differ in three key sectors of agriculture, manufacturing and services. Following the introduction is section II contains literature review while section III comprises methodology. Section IV dwells on presentation and

analysis of results while section V concludes the paper.

2. Literature Review

Nili and Rastad (2007) posit that oil revenue hampers investment that supposed to be ingredient for economic growth because of its negative effect on the financial system. Moradbeigi and Law found that better financial development overwrites the negative impact of oil abundance on economic growth. Beck (2011) argues that dependence on natural resources could lead to low level of financial development. Van der Ploeg and Poelhekke (2009) argues that oil resource dependence economies usually suffers from macroeconomic which is likely to dampen growth and lead to underdevelopment of the financial sector. Kurronen (2015) in study of 128 countries suggests three alternative hypotheses- demand, interest group and volatility, for the low level of financial sector development in resource dependent economies. The study conclude that there is the possibility that financial sector development based on large resource endowments might constitute the resource curse. Frankel (2010) in the survey of natural resource curse posit that the possession of oil, natural gas, or other valuable mineral deposits or natural resources does not necessarily confer economic success. Sachs and Warner (1995, 2001) found that economic dependence on natural resource is correlated with slow economic growth, and t that countries with great natural resource wealth grow more slowly than resource-poor countries. Other studies {Ross (2001); Sala-i-Martin and Subramanian (2003); and Smith (2004) also find that oil have negative effect of oil on economic performance. Badeeb and Lean (2017) posits that the possession of natural resources is not synonymous to economic success because many countries that are in oil and other natural resources are experiencing low per capita income and low quality of life. They found in their study on Natural Resources and Productivity that natural resource dependence negatively related to productivity which in turn depends on the level of banking development. The Algeria experience also supports the fact that oil has not contribute significantly to enhance economic growth (Elhannani, Boussalem and Benbouziane, 2016). Meanwhile, the study on Angola using Granger causality shows that the oil sector has been the great engine of Angolan economic growth (Quixina and Almeida, 2014)

3. Methodology and Data

The Model

The model used for the empirical analysis of the effects of oil dependence (ODI) and financial sector development (FD) on economic growth follows Fosu and Magnus (2006). We adopt the aggregate production function model as they did with some modifications. The model is specified thus:

$$Y_t = A_t K_t^{\beta} L_t^{\phi} \quad (1)$$

Where Y_t represent the aggregate output of the economy or sectors at time t, and A_t, K_t , L_t are total factor productivity (TFP), the capital stock, and stock of labour respectively.

In per capita we have:

$$\frac{Y_t}{L} = \frac{A_t}{L} * \frac{K_t^{\beta}}{L} * \frac{L_t^{\phi}}{L} \quad (2)$$

Then equation (1) becomes:

$$y_t = \alpha_t * k_t \quad (3)$$

Where y_t is output per capita in year t, α_t is TFP per capita in year t and k is capital stock per capita in t

It is posited as per Fosu and Magnus (2006) that the effect of ODI and FD on output in the economy will operate through TFP. We assume therefore that TFP is a function of ODI,FD and other exogenous factors (C_t) . Thus :

$$\alpha_t = f(ODI, FD, C) = ODI_t^{\phi} * FD_t^{\delta} * C_t \quad (4)$$

Combining equation (3) with (4) gives

$$y_t = c * k_t^{\beta} * ODI_t^{\phi} * FD_t^{\delta} \quad (5)$$

Where β, φ, δ, are constant elasticity coefficients of output with respect to k, ODI and FD after the usual logarithmic transformation.

From equation (5) the basic estimable equation after taking log of both sides becomes:

Log y_t=ct + β$\log k_t$ + φlog ODI_t +δlog FD_t + U_t (6)

C is constant parameter and U_t is the error term. All other variables are as defined.

From equation 6 the following are then derived :

$\text{LogGDP}_t = C + \beta \text{logPGFC}_t + \phi \text{logODI}_t + \delta \text{log FD1}_t + U_t$ (7)

$\text{LogGDP}_t = C + \beta \text{logPGFC}_t + \phi \text{logODI}_t + \delta \text{log FD2}_t + U_t$ (8)

$\text{LogGDP}_t = C + \beta \text{logPGFC}_t + \phi \text{logODI}_t * \text{FD1}_t + U_t$ (9)

$\text{LogGDP}_t = C + \beta \text{logPGFC}_t + \phi \text{logODI}_t * \text{FD2}_t + U_t$ (10)

$\text{LogPMVA}_t = C + \beta \text{logPGFC}_t + \phi \text{logODI}_t + \delta \text{log FD1}_t + U_t$ (11)

$LogPMVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t + \delta log\ FD2_t + U_t$ (12)

$LogPMVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}FD1_t + U_t$ (13)

$LogPMVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}\ FD2_t + U_t$ (14)

$LogPAGVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t + \delta log\ FD1_t + U_t$ (15)

$LogPAGVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t + \delta log\ FD2_t + U_t$ (16)

$LogPAGVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}FD1_t + U_t$ (17)

$LogPAGVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}\ FD2_t + U_t$ (18)

$LogPSVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t + \delta log\ FD1_t + U_t$ (19)

$LogPSVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t + \delta log\ FD2_t + U_t$ (20)

$LogPSVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}FD1_t + U_t$ (21)

$LogPSVA_t = C + \beta logPGFC_t + \phi logODI_t{*}\ FD2_t + U_t$ (22)

The Data

From equations 7 to 22, k is proxied by real value of per capita gross fixed capital formation (PGFC), financial sector development is proxied by two indicators FD_1 and $FD_{2..}$ FD_1 is obtained as broad money supply (M_2) as a share of GDP while FD_2 is determined as total credit to the private sector as a share of GDP. $ODI_t{*}FD1_t$, $ODI_t{*}\ FD2_t$ were used to measure the interaction of oil dependency with financial sector development. Other variables are as follows:

PMVA is per capita manufacturing value added

PAGVA is per capita Agriculture sector value added

PSVA is per capita service sector value added

PNOGDP is per capita non-oil sector value added

PGDP is per capita gross domestic product

The indicator for oil resource dependency ODI is the main contribution of this research. The index is constructed using a modified format of Hailu and Kipgen (2017) extractive sector dependency index thus:

$ODI_t = \sqrt{[OIXt * (1 - MEXt)] * [REVt * (1 - NORt)] * [OVAt * (1 - MVAt)]}$

Where

ODI_t is oil dependency index in year t

EIX_t is export revenue from oil as a share of total export revenue in year t

MEX_t is export of manufactured goods as a share of global MEX in year t

REV_t is revenue generated by the oil sector as a share of fiscal revenue in year t

NOR_t is total tax revenue collected from non oil sector as a share of GDP in year t

OVA_t is oil sector value added as a share of GDP in year t

MVA_t is manufacturing sector value added a share of GDP in year t

The annual time series that are used covered the period 1981-2016. Data for PGFC, MEX and population are sourced from World Bank Development Indicators 2016. All other series are computed with data sourced from Central bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin 2016.

Estimation Procedure

The analysis of the data proceed by first examining the time series properties of the variables. The involved carrying out the unit root tests, cointegration tests before estimating the specified equations. ADF statistic was used for the unit root tests while Johansen Cointegration Test was used to check for cointegrating relationships. Ordinary least square method that has heteroscedastic-autocorrelation consistent standard errors was applied for the equations estimation.

4. Results and Discussion

The analysis of the relationship between oil resource dependence, financial sector development and sectoral performance in Nigeria over the period 1981-2016 begins with the examination of the unit root of each of the variables. The result of the unit root test is presented in table one. The result indicates that all the variables are stationary at 1st difference. This suggests that inclusion of the variables in estimation may lead to spurious regression. Therefore we proceed to check whether the variables have long run relationship through the Johansen Cointegration Test

Table 1: Unit root tests

Variable	ADF statistics (at levels)	ADF statistics (at 1st Difference)	Order of Integration
LPGDP	-0.410274	-3.240453•	I(1)
LPMVA	-0.131431	-5.479821••	I(1)
LPAGVA	-2.095005	-5.673052••	I(1)
LPSVA	-2.244931	-2.955011•	I(1)
LPGFC	-3.222197	-3.193026•	I(1)
LFD1	-2.168124	-5.264732••	I(1)
LFD2	-1.916732	-5.453403••	I(1)
LODI	2.257041	-4.901698••	I(1)
LPNOGDP	-0.162386	-3.593733•	I(1)
LPODIFD1	-2.390712	-6.179173••	I(1)
LODIFD2	-2.519877	-6.036158••	I(1)
Critical value @1%	-3.639407		
Critical value @5%	-2.951125		
Critical value @10%	-2.614300		

significant @5%

•• Significant @1%

Source: Authors' Computation

Co-integration test

The Johansen cointegration test was applied and the result is presented in table two. Information from the results helped to guide the estimation of the specified equations. The most striking is the non cointegration of the variables with agriculture sector output variable. This is why the variables in the agriculture equations were entered at their 1st difference.

Table 2: Summary Results of Johansen Cointegration Test

Model no.	Included Variables	Remarks
1	LPGDP, LPGFC, LFD1, LODI	There is cointegration
2	LPGDP, LPGFC, LFD2, LODI	There is no cointegration
3	LPMVA, LPGFC, LFD1, LODI	There is cointegration
4	LPMVA, LPGFC, LFD2, LODI	There is cointegration
5	LPAGVA, LPGFC, LFD1, LODI	There is no cointegration
6	LPAGVA, LPGFC, LFD2, LODI	There is no cointegration
7	LPSVA, LPGFC, LFD1, LODI	There is cointegration
8	LPSVA, LPGFC, LFD2, LODI	There is cointegration
9	LPNOGDP, LPGFC, LFD1, LODI	There is cointegration
10	LPNOGDP, LPGFC, LFD2, LODI	There is cointegration

Source: *Authors' Computation*

Effect of oil dependency on finance–growth nexus: The aggregate Economy

Table 3 shows the results of models that were estimated to determine the effect of financial sector development on aggregate economy where the influence of oil dependency is accounted for. In model one of the estimated equations, included variables explained up to 82% of changes in real per capita GDP. This means these variable explains a considerable proportion of the changes in aggregate economy over the period 1981-2016. The F-Statistics confirm the model has a good fit. The relationship between financial sector development and aggregate economy is positive and significant even when oil dependency is accounted for. The oil dependency variable itself is negative and significant. This is similar to the findings of Kurronen (2015), Badeeb and Lean (2017a)

Table 3: The effect of oil dependence and financial development
On GDP. Dependent variable: per capita real GDP (LPGDP)

Independent variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Constant	4.464826 (19.21416) •••	3.657068 (6.425532) •••		
LPGFC	0.012174 (0.251315)	0.293313 (1.912452) ••		
LODI	-0.551033			

	(-4.513816) •••			
LFD1	0.550717 (5.181832) •••			
LFD2				
LODIFD1		0.527795 (1.548996)		
LODIFD2				
R. Squared	0.827875	0.324205		
Adj. R. Squared	0.811217	0.281968		
D.W Statistics	0.589932	0.204620		
F. Statistics	49.70046•••	7.675824•••		

•significant @10%
••significant @5%
••• Significant @1%
Source: *Authors' Computation*

Effect of oil dependency on finance–growth nexus on the sectors: Manufacturing

In table four we have results of models estimated to determine the effect of financial sector development on manufacturing sector performance in the presence of oil dominant oil sector. The models (1 and 3) where oil dependency variable is included directly the R Square is up to 0.75. This shows that that the included variable explain up to 75% of the changes in performance of manufacturing sector. In the case of models 2 and 4 where the interaction variables log of ODI*FD1 and log of ODI*FD2 were included the R Square reduced considerably. However the F-Statistics of all the models are significant, indicating a good fit for the data. The relationship between financial sector development and manufacturing sector performance is not significant though positive when oil dependency is accounted for. Oil dependency itself has a negative and significant relationship with manufacturing sector performance. The variable that measuring the interaction of oil dependency and financial sector development on the manufacturing sector performance is clearly negative and significant. This strongly support the position that oil resource dependence in Nigeria over the period 1981-2016 interacts with the financial to produce a negative impact on the manufacturing sector.

Table 4: The effect of oil dependence and financial development
On manufacturing sector .Dependent variable: per capita manufacturing real GDP (LPMVA)

Independent variable	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**
Constant	4.767366 (35.74223) •••	5.230438 (17.30073) •••	4.839899 (36.99978) •••	5.354913 (18.27831•••)
LPGFC	0.033707 (1.042569)	-0.127464 (-1.407762)	0.033496 (1.025832)	-0.104111 (-1.557920)
LODI	0.753557 (8.530002) •••		0.751557 (7.349145) •••	
LFD1	0.121944 (1.879056)			
LFD2			0.066470 (1.377482)	
LODIFD1		0.135085 (0.701818)		
LODIFD2				-0.230014 (-2.366077) ••
R. Squared	0.785826	0.218819	0.777559	0.334374
Adj. R. Squared	0.765100	0.169995	0.756032	0.292773
D.W Statistics	0.964715	0.509754	0.902427	0.696191
F. Statistics	37.91410•••	4.481804••	36.12094•••	8.037538•••

•significant @10%
••significant @5%
••• Significant @1%
Source: Authors' Computation

Effect of oil dependency on finance–growth nexus on the sectors: Agriculture

In the agricultural sector as presented in table five, financial sector has a negative and significant relation with agriculture sector performance in the short run when account is taken of oil dependency. The 1st difference estimation was adopted because of absence of cointegrating relationship among the included variable. The results of F-Statistics indicates the model has a good fit for the data.

Table 5: The Effect of Oil Dependence and Financial Development
On Agric sector. Dependent variable: per capita agric real GDP (LPAGVA)

Independent variable	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**
Constant	0.013260 (2.442349) ••	0.014277 (2.824577) ••	0.012642 (2.303871) ••	0.015220 (2.853645) ••
D(LPGFC)	0.116747 (2.151002) ••	0.122163 (2.313841) ••	0.102209 (1.882070)	0.110750 (2.007386••)
D(LODI)	-0.332426 (-2.068010) ••		-0.388018 (-2.320417••)	
D(LFD1)	-0.224717 (-2.030345) ••			
D(LFD2)			-0.130641 (-1.729473)	
D(LODIFD1)		-0.259055 (-2.852014) ••		
D(LODIFD2)				-0.158266 (-2.112735) ••
R. Squared	0.289020	0.281688	0.264641	0.207346
Adj. R. Squared	0.217922	0.235345	0.191105	0.156207
D.W Statistics	1.580549	1.610673	1.704824	1.887409
F. Statistics	4.065087••	6.078364••	3.598801••	4.054553••

•significant @10%
••significant @5%
•••• Significant @1%
Source: Authors' Computation

Effect of Oil Dependency on Finance-Growth Nexus on the Service Sectors

The result of the effect of financial sector development on the service sector performance when account is taken of oil resource dependency is presented in table six. As the estimated models shows, there is a good fit of the data and variables included explain around 85% of service sector output performance. Contrary to the cases of manufacturing and agriculture sectors, the effect of financial sector development on service sector output performance is positive and significant with oil dependency accounted for. This outcome holds with the effects of oil dependency itself being negative and significant. This largely follows the experience of Yemen as reported in Badeeb and Lean (2017b).

Table 6: The Effect of Oil Dependence and Financial Development
On Service Sector. Dependent Variable: Per Capita Service Sector Real GDP (LPSVA)

Independent Variable	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**
Constant	3.688986 (11.00318) •••	2.446894 (2.798824) ••	4.070483 (13.82890) ••	3.146215 (6.278201) ••
LPGFC	-0.028423 (-0.489630)	0.403886 (1.728869)	-0.018973 (-0.302607)	0.227984 (1.976341) •
LODI	-0.903793 (-4.918001) ••		-0.646512 (-2.990732) ••	
LFD1	0.790374 (5.039189) ••			
LFD2			0.582979 (5.461521) •••	
LODIFD1		0.755127		

		(1.445870)		
LODIFD2				1.115062 (5.408236) •••
R. Squared	0.877804	0.302009	0.865652	0.664181
Adj. R. Squared	0.865979	0.258384	0.852651	0.643193
D.W Statistics	0.604506	0.202466	0.580515	0.729610
F. Statistics	74.23052•••	6.922917••	66.58150•••	31.64476•••

•significant @10%
••significant @5%
••• Significant @1%
Source: *Authors' Computation*

5. Concluding Remarks

This study examined the impact of oil resource dependence on the relationship between financial sector development and economic growth in Nigeria. Furthermore it explores whether the effect differ among key sectors of the economy. Time series econometrics analysis anchored on an aggregate production function theoretical framework of the augmented Solow's model is employed for the period 1981-2016. The study used a more robust measure of oil dependency. The effect of financial development when account is taken of oil dependence is negative in both manufacturing and agriculture sector but positive in the service sector and in the aggregate economy.

The findings of this study support the hypothesis that oil resource dependency influences the finance-growth nexus in Nigeria over the period 1981-2016. In addition, it has different impact on the key sectors. There is negative impact on agriculture and manufacturing sectors but its influence results in positive impact on financial development on service sector.

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Part Two

Social Psychology

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Socio-Cultural Sustainability and Attitude of Senior Secondary Students

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Abstract. The global movement for the promotion of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) dictates that more studies should be conducted on ways of teaching Sustainable Development (SD) concepts at all levels. This study investigated the attitude of junior secondary school students on element of sustainability, education for socio-cultural sustainability. The study adopted survey design. Respondents were randomly selected from five schools across Ijebu West Local Government of Ogun State, South West Nigeria. The instrument employed was Socio-Cultural Attitudes Questionnaire (SCAQ) with reliability of 0.75% using Cronbach coefficient alpha was used. Two hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using analysis of variance. The results revealed significant difference in the attitude of students to the concepts according to sex and school. The implication is that the disposition of students ton these concepts of socio-cultural sustainability varies according to sex and school. The study recommends that efforts should be intensified to develop the needful skills and orientation among learners for effective teaching and learning of socio-cultural sustainability.

Keywords: Sustainable development, socio-cultural sustainability, education for sustainable development

1. Background to the Study

The last two decades have witnessed a steady increase in concern for the exploitation of environment resources to support the survival of humanity at the local, state, regional and global levels (Ogunyemi, 2005; Ogunyemi & Ifegbesan, 2011). These concerns are served up in the concept of sustainable development which has become recurring theme at conferences organized by the United Nations (UN) and its agencies.

The role of education in promotion sustainable living was brought to a clearer focus when in December 2002, the UN declared a decade of education for sustainable development. Meant to run from 2005 to 2014. The UN conference on environment and development (UNCED) held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in 1992centered on formation of bodies organisation principal among was the sustainable development commission (Houstsonnen, 2004). The summit adapted the Rio declaration that includes Agenda 21 a progamme for the implementation of its principles in the 21st century. It is a comprehensive plan of actions to be taken globally, nationally and locally but organization of the United Nations system. As identified by UNDASA (2004) education revising of public awareness and training are linked to virtually all areas of Agenda 21 and even closely to the ones on meeting the basic needs, capacity building, data and information severance.

Houtsonen, 2004, citing Kelinty Enioli Jelima (1997) identifies the basic elements of the discussion concerning sustainable development; ecological sustainability, economic sustainability, and socio cultural sustainability. Maurice (2008) later added political sustainability, Maurice claired political sustainability is essential to overall sustainability, that to accomplish sustainable development people must be in control and conflict must be avoided and there is need for people centered democracy and stable political system to be established.

The promotion of education for sustainable development seems to readily suggest itself for addressing the enormous problems of environmental problems in Nigeria ESD calls, for public understanding of principles behind sustainability and the social process that needs to be maintain earned into all sectors. Nnabuwo and Asodike (2013) see education for sustainable development as a holistic approach for school management and the curriculum. It request reflection on what to teach, and how to teach in order to clarify and extend the ability of students to think themselves, encourage students to reflect and debate issues to enable them form their own opinion and foster learning that emerges from

discovery and is relevant to the learners life experiences. Hence this study is carried out to assess the attitude of the senor secondary school on socio-cultural sustainability. It was suggested that sustainable development requires holistic approach for school management and curriculum, not a separate subject. It requires reflection on what to teach and how to teach in order to clarify and extend the ability of students to think for themselves, encourage students to reflect and debate issues to enable them form their own opinion and faster learning that emerges from discovery and is relevant to the learners' life experiences.

Attitude is a learned tendency to evaluate things in a certain way which include people, issues, object or event. (Kendra, 2014). According to Torbjornsson, Molin and Karlberg (2011) stress the importance of changing peoples' attitude and behavior which can contribute immensely to sustainable development. Researchers like Scott and Gough, 2004 and Bonnet, 2002 highlighted the need for change in attitude to improve sustainable development. This study looks at the attitude of Junior Secondary school Students towards the concepts of Socio-Cultural Sustainability.

2. Objectives of the Study

In view of the issues raised above the specific objectives of this study is to investigate the attitude of Junior Secondary School (JSS3) students toward selected concepts of socio-cultural sustainability. It also explores the interaction effects of sex and school on the attitude of students to the concepts of socio-cultural sustainability

3. Statement of the Problem

The problem of the study was the need arising from agenda 21 to respond to the challenges posed to teach and effect good attitude of students in socio-cultural sustainability in order to create healthy and liveable communities. Social sustainable communities are equitable, diverse, connected and democratic and provide a good quality of life. Today human kind has been convinced that economic growth and profitability alone cannot automatically improve human life neither at the national nor at the international level, attention is now shifted to social and cultural sustainability.. Positive attitude to socio-cultural sustainability plays a significant role in defining trends of further development of people, society and environment (Nozhin, 2020).

4. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in the study:

H01: There is no significant difference in the attitude of students in the concepts of socio-cultural sustainability according to sex

H02: There is no significant difference in the attitude of students on the concept of socio-culture sustainability according to school.

5. Methodology

The study was carried out to assess the attitude of senior secondary school students on the selected concepts of socio-cultural sustainability. The study employed descriptive survey design. The target population was male and female students of senior secondary school in Ijebu West Local Government of Ogun State, South West Nigeria. Simple random sampling procedure was employed to select five public secondary schools. A total of 100 students were used in the study. The data collected was analyzed using simple percentage, standard deviation and the hypothesis tested using analysis of variance.

6. Findings

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents showing Gender

Sex	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Male	58	58
Female	42	42
Total	**100**	**100**

The table above shows that 58% of the respondents are male while 42% are female.

Hypothesis I: There is no significant difference in the attitude of Senior Socio-cultural concepts of sustainability according to Sex

Table 2: Showing Anova on attitude of students towards concepts of Socio-culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Group	70.624		24.521	296.782	.000
Within Group	11.591				
Total	82.273	146	.079		
		149			

0.05 level of significant

The table above shows the extent of variability between the variables are 70.624 and 11.591 and the mean square are 23.561 and 0.079. The f calculated value is 296.782 is greater than the tabulated value of 0.05. Hence the hypothesis is rejected. It means there is significant difference in the attitude of students towards the selected concepts of socio cultural sustainability.

Hypothesis II: There is no significant difference in the attitude of senior secondary students on the concepts of socio-cultural sustainability

Table 3: Showing Anova on the attitude of students to concepts of socio-cultural sustainability according to school

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Group	82.975	3	27.658	240.096	.000
Within Group	16.819				
Total	99.793	146	.115		
		149			

The values for the variables are 82.975 and 16.819 respectively, the mean square values are also given as 27.658 and 0.115 respectively. The f-statistics value is also greater than the tabulated value of 0.05. We also reject the null hypothesis. Hence, there is significant difference in the attitude of senior secondary school students towards concepts of socio cultural sustainability according to schools.

7. Discussion of Findings

The results of the tests in the two hypotheses revealed significant differences in the attitude of students towards the socio-cultural concepts of sustainable development. The significant difference indicated differences in the way male and female students see some of the social and cultural concepts. This could be as a result of their past experience. This result is against the finding of Mai (2015) where the majority of the students emerged home positive attitude towards ESD delivered and a greet awareness of general sustainability issues. On gender the finding is against the finding of Al-Rabaam, A. H (2013) which shows that Oman Students Teachers hold positive attitude toward socio-cultural concepts of sustainable development and no significance difference according to sex. The implication of these results is that the orientation, awareness and probably the knowledge of the students are not equal or vary significantly according to the sex and school.

8. Conclusion

The schools are to provide training in such basic skills as reading, writing and counting. Other responsibilities of the schools are provision of social and civic competencies to make them useful adults, preserving social and cultural practices and providing opportunities to participate in healthy games and exercise (Nnabuo & Asodike 2013). The schools are also seen as agent of change through fostering and dissemination of ideas. The issues of education for sustainable development appeals to all citizens both young and old, locally and globally. We all look forward to pollution face environment clean water devoid of contamination. We derive effective political, authority, health supporting environment and finally, contribute to the building of lively citizen and communities where people work and play especially in Nigeria society which is predominantly adult world where adult dictated the tone of life, attitudes and behavioural patterns. This made Okunrotifa (1981) to point out that adult authority and dominance prevails in the Nigeria traditional society such that children simply became passive numbers of the society and boised whole and axtire to adult authority and conform to other wishes. However this study reveals need to enhance the students' competencies of sustainable development by developing curriculum in such a way that will bring greater positive attitude and behavior.

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Efficacy of Narrative Exposure Therapy and Age Differences on Psychological Trauma Symptoms among Internally Displaced Persons in Jos, Plateau State, Nigeria

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Abstract. There are growing need for experiential literatures on psychological trauma symptoms and corresponding therapies, considering traumatic experience in Nigeria. The present study had assessed efficacy of narrative exposure therapy and age differences on psychological trauma symptoms among internally displaced persons. A repeated measures design was used to examine pre-test and post-test outcomes. The participants used for the study were 24 internally displaced persons (8 males and 16 females) who were randomly selected and assigned into two (psychological intervention and control) groups. Trauma Symptoms Checklist-40 (TSCL-40) was used in assessing all the participant and the treatment group had 10 sessions of NET therapy, while the control group was without intervention. The study hypothesis was statistically tested, using one-way analysis of variance. The outcome of the ANOVA for the hypothesis tested revealed, that Narrative Exposure Therapy (NET) was more impactful on younger participants than older ones on two symptoms; depression ($F = 9.712$, $p = 0.011$), and sexual problems ($F = 6.665$, $p = 0.027$). The hypothesis was therefore upheld for only depression and sexual problems. There is need for more psychological studies to be conducted amongst children at internally displaced camps so that both young and old would have gone through the therapy.

Keywords: Psychological Trauma, Symptoms, Age differences, Narrative exposure therapy, Internally Displaced Persons.

1. Introduction

There are dearths in psychological trauma and Post traumatic stress disorder literatures as it relates to children, adolescents and adults in Nigeria. The rate of PTSD may be lower in children than adults, but in the absence of therapy, symptoms may continue for decades. One estimate suggests that the proportion of children and adolescents having PTSD in a non-war torn population in a developed country may be 1% compared to 1.5% to 3% of adults, and much lower below the age of 10 years. On average, 16% of children exposed to a traumatic event develop PTSD, varying according to type of exposure and gender. Njau, J.W. (2005).

Predictor models have consistently found that childhood trauma, chronic adversity, and family stressors increase risk for PTSD as well as risk for biological markers of risk for PTSD after a traumatic event in adulthood. Experiencing bullying as a child or an adult has been correlated with the development of PTSD. Post traumatic dissociation in children is a predictive indicator of the development of PTSD later in life. This effect of childhood trauma, which is not well understood, may be a marker for both traumatic experiences and attachment problems. Proximity to, duration of, and severity of the trauma make an impact and interpersonal traumas cause more problems than impersonal ones. Breslau, Chilcoat, Kessler, & Davis (1999). Although, there is possibility of those with the risk of developing PTSD are individuals who are exposed to physical abuse,

physical assault, or kidnapping. Women who experience physical violence are more likely to develop PTSD than men. Also, those within the military service are at risk of developing PTSD. Around 78% of people exposed to combat do not develop PTSD; in about 25% of military personnel who develop PTSD, its appearance is delayed. Internally displaced persons are also at an increased risk for PTSD due to their exposure to war, hardships, and traumatic events. While the rates for PTSD among refugee populations range from 4% to 86%. Also, the stresses of war impact on everyone involved, displaced persons have been shown to be more affected than non-displaced persons. Njau, J.W. (2005). Also**,** unexpected death of a loved one is the most common traumatic event type reported in cross-national studies. However, the majority of people who experience this type of event will not go on to develop PTSD. An analysis from the WHO World Mental Health Surveys found a 5.2% risk of developing PTSD after learning of the unexpected death of a loved one. Because of the high prevalence of this type of traumatic event, unexpected death of a loved one accounts for approximately 20% of PTSD cases worldwide. Breslau, Chilcoat, Kessler & Davis, (1999).

Beiser, Wiwa and Adebajo (2010) did a comparative study of PTSD among the people of Niger Delta and found a six-month period prevalence of 14.5% among adults in the group relatively spared of the conflict as against the 60.5% found among the adult population in the conflict affected area. Cardozo, Vergara, Agani and Gotway (2000) reported that those over the age of 65 were at greater risk of developing Post Traumatic Stress Disorder following the war in Kosovo. This was supported in a study done by Eytan, Gex-Fabry, Toscani, Deroo, and Bovier (2004) who investigated determinants of post-conflict symptoms in Albanian Kosovo's. The reliability of these findings may have been limited by the use of self-report measures. However, the findings were supported by Cheung (1994) who studied PTSD among Cambodian refugees in New Zealand. Dahl, Mutapcic and Schei (1998) on the other hand found that being over 25 years of age predicted PTSD in their sample of displaced Bosnian women in a war zone. Lonigan, Shannon, Taylor, Finch and Sallee (1994) reported that younger children are more likely to develop PTSD.Although, these studies did not control for trauma type when investigating age as a predictor of PTSD. Moreover, there are sparse data to make any assertion on differential effects of age on the development of PTSD because individual studies have focused on narrow age ranges making it difficult to compare outcomes for younger and older people (Lonigan, Shannon, Taylor, Finch & Sallee 1994). Researches about trauma and intervention with internally displaced persons are still growing, but have especially grown over the past decade. There are few data on the number of reviews to date of psychological interventions with internally displaced persons. Rather there are existing literatures with refugees.

2. Objectives of the Study

The objective of the study was to examine age differences in the outcome of Narrative exposure therapy on psychological trauma symptoms among internally displaced persons at a camp in Jos, Plateau State Nigeria.

3. Hypothesis

There will be significant age differences in the efficacy of Narrative Exposure Therapy on psychological trauma symptoms of older internally displaced persons than younger internally displaced persons.

4. Methodology

4.1 Research Design

The study was a repeated measure experimental design. It comprised of a two group experimental study which examined pre-test/post-test outcomes. The design ensures that the study has a strong internal validity. Also, allowing participants to be randomly assigned into two groups. One group was exposed to the clinical intervention (NET) while the other was not. Both groups were after words pre-tested and post-tested on their psychological trauma symptoms.

4.2 Population

Participants were 49 Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), aged 18 to 76 years, at an IDP Camp in Jos Plateau state. They were identified by socio-demographics and matched according to gender. Those who participated were persons who had met the eligibility criteria of DSM V for PTSD and the cut-off score of psycho trauma symptoms assessed by the Trauma Symptoms Check List-40 which include, Dissociation (Mean 15.52) with 55.1% prevalence, anxiety (Mean 16.85) with 55.1% prevalence, depression (Mean 18.11) with 57.1% prevalence, SATI (Mean 13.72) with 59.2% prevalence, while sleep disturbance (Mean 13.63) with prevalence of

55.1%, and sexual problems (Mean 10.77) with prevalence of 53.1%. Those that were excluded are IDPs that had current florid symptoms of psychotic disorders, active homicidal tendencies, dementia or mental retardation.

The sample study comprised of 49 Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). Their mean age was 33.04 years with a standard deviation of 11.49 years. The gender distribution showed that 18 (36.7%) of the participants were males, and 31 (63.3%) were females. A total of 23 (47.9%) had no formal education, while 15 (31.3%) had only primary education, 7 (14.6%) had only secondary education and 3 (6.3%) had tertiary education. There was a total of 14 (29.2%) single persons, 30 (62.5%) persons are married, and 4 (8.3%) were either separated or divorced. 18 (36.7%) of them were non-professionals in their line of work, 2 (4.1%) were professionals; majority of them 29 (59.2%) were unemployed.
With regards to monthly income, the 23 (65.7%) had no income, 7 (20%) earned less than N20,000 (twenty thousand naira) monthly, 4 (11.4%) earned between N20, 000 – N50, 000 monthly, 1 participant earned more than N50, 000 monthly.

4.3 Instrument for Data Collection

A questionnaire comprising two different instruments as well as a section tapping information on social demographic characteristics of participants were used in the study. An instrument was adopted and validated by the researcher. The instrument is described as follows:

4.4 Trauma Symptom Checklist – 40 (TSCL-40)

The tool was developed by Briere and Runtz (1989) and is a 40-item self-report measure of symptomatic distress in adults arising from childhood to adult traumatic experiences. It is a measure of current psycho-traumatic experience in individuals. Respondents were asked to rate how often they have experienced each symptom in the last two months using a 4-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 ("never") to 3 ("often"). The TSC-40 has six subscales: Anxiety, Depression, Dissociation, Sexual Abuse Trauma Index, Sexual Problems, and Sleep Disturbances and yields a range of scores 0-120 with higher scores representing severity of trauma.

Regarding its psychometric properties, the Sexual Problems subscale displays a high level of reliability coefficient of (alpha = .73); (b) the Sleep Disturbance subscale coefficient of (alpha = .77); (c) the reliability for the SATI is alpha coefficient of = .62; and (d) with a total reliability score of alpha= .90. The TSCL- 40 was used in the study because it provides a general measure of current traumatic symptoms among disaster and combat survivours. Additionally, its psychometric properties have been impressive, with sub scales alphas ranging from .66 to .77 and total scores alpha averaging .89 and .91 (Brian, Janet, Allison & Stacy, 2007). The clinical elevations were such that the score for each subscale is given as the sum of the relevant items described:

Dissociation: 7, 14, 16, 25, 31, 38
Anxiety: 1, 4, 10, 16, 21, 27, 32, 34, 3, 9
Depression: 2, 3, 9, 15, 19, 20, 26, 33, 37
Sexual Abuse Trauma Index 5, 7, 13, 21, 25, 29, 31
Sleep Disturbance 2, 8, 13, 19, 22, 28
Sexual Problems 5, 9, 11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 40

4.5 Procedure

After the validation of the instrument, the study was carried out at an Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) camp Jos, Plateau State. An official permission was obtained from the Management of the internally displaced Camp. Thereafter, the researchers visited the camp for research sensitization and familiarization. During the visit, internally displaced persons were briefed on the research study; its objectives, procedures and anticipated benefits. They were also made to anticipate the selection process, which would give everyone an equal opportunity to participate in the study.

Subsequently research assistants were recruited to conduct the selection and random assignment process of participants to the intervention and non-intervention groups. The participants who had qualified for selections were those who met the criteria of DSM 5 for PTSD and had complained of recurrent flash backs of traumatic experience at the point of the visit were used for the study. Participants assessed for PTSD using DSM 5 and TSCL-40 for Psycho traumatic symptoms and had met the eligibility criteria of the screening tools were used for the study. The totals of eighty-four participants were assessed using DSM 5 criteria for PTSD and only forty-nine participants met the criteria. These forty-nine participants who were then administered the Trauma Symptoms Check List 40 for twenty-nine participants had met the eligibility status while five participants withdrew from the research study, leaving twenty-four participants to complete the study.
The twenty-four participants were allocated into the intervention and non-intervention groups with twelve

participants in each group randomly assigned via the lottery method. In this case, 'No' or 'Yes' were tagged in twelve folded pieces of papers in a hat for internally displaced persons to pick, one at a time until the last had picked. Participants were eventually selected for the intervention and non-intervention group. As soon as this was concluded, four clinical psychologists with clinical practice were recruited as research assistants. They were further trained on the narrative exposure therapy protocol.

The trained research assistants eventually provided the interventions for the participants who were assigned to the intervention group; they had a total of ten therapy sessions lasting between 60 and 90 minutes per session with the internally displaced persons. Thus, the clinical intervention was delivered using the structured published manual on Narrative Exposure Therapy of Schauer, Neuner and Elbert (2011). The therapists commenced by administering the TSCL-40 to the participants in the intervention and non-intervention groups to determine the baseline psycho traumatic symptoms of the internally displaced persons. After the conclusion of ten sessions, a post test assessment using TSCL-40 was done for both groups.
Finally, after the post-test participants in the intervention group were debriefed. As an ethical obligation the researchers had paid attention to the needs and concerns of the internally displaced persons and were addressed within the psycho social support context of the camp programme.

4.6 Method of Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics was used in reporting the prevalence of psycho trauma symptoms and their associations with socio-demography factors were test by Chi-square analysis. While inferential statistics, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for mean differences of efficacy of Narrative exposure therapy using TSCL-40 scores. ANOVA was chosen because it guarantees the comparison of group means either between or within. The probability value of $p \leq 0.05$ was used as the significant value for analysis in the study.

4.7 Ethical Considerations

The researchers had obtained institutional permission to conduct the study following an informed consent which was obtained from the participants. The researchers guaranteed informed confidentiality of pre and post-test status of those that participated in the study. Participants who were affirmative on PTSD and the scales of TSCL-40 were exposed to narrative exposure therapy. The non-intervention group was also protected from psychological and physical harm, through the amp psychosocial support programme. Finally, the participants right to withdraw at any time without adverse consequences was also assured and guaranteed.

5. Results

Mean scores and prevalence rate of psychological trauma symptoms of participants at baseline (N 49)

Table 1: TSCL - 40 Symptom pattern among participants (N49)

	F	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
Dissociation	27	55.1	15.52	2.58
Anxiety	27	55.1	16.85	3.94
Depression	28	57.1	18.11	3.20
Sexual Abuse Trauma Index (SATI)	29	59.2	13.72	3.06
Sleep Disturbance	27	55.1	13.63	2.37
Sexual Problems	26	53.1	10.77	3.71

Table 1 above, present the mean score of psychological trauma symptoms and it had revealed the following mean scores and prevalence among participants: Dissociation (Mean=15.52) with 55.1% prevalence, anxiety (Mean=16.85) with 55.1% prevalence, depression (Mean=18.11) with 57.1% prevalence, SATI (Mean=13.72) with 59.2% prevalence, while sleep disturbance (Mean=13.63) with prevalence of 55.1%, and sexual problems (Mean=10.77) with prevalence of 53.1%.

Table 2 below, presents the outcome of further screening of forty-nine initially identified index cases for post-traumatic stress disorder that attained the cut off score for TSCL-40. Twenty persons met the criteria and were therefore adopted as participants for the main study. In so doing they were differentiated into intervention and non-intervention groups.

Table 2: Pre-test distribution of psychological trauma symptoms between study groups of internally displaced persons

	Non-intervention N = 12				Intervention (NET) N = 12			
	F	%	Mean	SD	f	%	Mean	SD
Dissociation	7	29.2	13.08	3.45	7	29.2	13.17	3.71
Anxiety	5	20.8	15.58	4.12	8	33.3	17.67	5.31
Depression	6	25.0	18.08	3.45	8	33.3	18.58	3.09
SATI	7	29.2	13.75	3.84	8	33.3	14.17	3.30
Sleep Disturbance	8	33.3	14.17	2.04	6	25.0	13.83	2.48
Sexual Problems	9	37.5	9.92	5.53	7	29.2	9.67	5.53

Table 2 above, shows the pre-test results for the twenty-four study participants had revealed the following psychological trauma symptoms; the intervention group had a slightly higher mean score on dissociation (13.17, SD=3.71), anxiety (17.67,SD=5.31), depression (18.58, SD=3.09), and sexual abuse trauma (14.17, SD=3.30); while the non-intervention group had higher mean scores on sleep disturbance (14.17, SD=2.04), and sexual problems (9.92, SD=5.53). Generally, the intervention group had a slightly higher mean score on psychological trauma symptoms (75.50, SD=14.15).

Table 3 below presents the outcome of result for 24 participants differentiated into intervention and non-intervention groups at the end of study.

Table 3: Post-test distribution of psychological trauma symptoms between study groups

	Non-intervention N = 12				Intervention (NET) N = 12			
	F	%	Mean	SD	f	%	Mean	SD
Dissociation	11	45.8	13.50	4.76	4	16.7	6.33	5.11
Anxiety	9	37.5	18.42	6.53	3	12.5	7.58	6.56
Depression	9	37.5	18.42	6.87	2	8.3	7.92	7.72
SATI	11	45.8	14.25	4.00	3	12.5	6.33	5.47
Sleep Disturbance	12	50.0	14.92	2.99	3	12.5	6.58	4.74
Sexual Problems	10	41.7	9.08	5.96	2	8.3	3.33	5.74

Post-test scores on psychological trauma sub scales of participants

Table 3 above and shows the post-test mean scores of psychological trauma subscales of participants with PTSD revealed that intervention group had lower scores on dissociation (6.33, SD=5.11), anxiety (7.58, SD=6.56), depression (7.92, SD=7.72), sexual abuse trauma (6.33, SD=5.47), sleep disturbance (6.58, SD = 4.74), and sexual problems (3.33, SD=5.74). Also, the intervention group had lower psychological trauma mean scores than the non-intervention group (31.35, SD=28.50).

Hypothesis

Hypothesis stated that there will be age group differences on the impact of Narrative Exposure Therapy (NET) on psychological trauma symptoms of participants.

Table 4: Mean scores on psychological trauma symptoms across age of participants with posttraumatic stress disorder (Intervention Group)

	Age Group							
	Younger age (≤ 35 years)				Older age (≥ 36 years)			
	F	%	Mean	SD	f	%	Mean	SD
Dissociation	1	8.3	4.50	2.62	3	25.0	10.00	7.26
Anxiety	1	8.3	5.26	4.77	2	16.7	12.25	7.81
Depression	0	0.0	4.25	3.69	2	16.7	15.25	8.88
SATI	1	8.3	4.75	3.73	2	16.7	9.50	7.55
Sleep Disturbance	1	8.3	5.00	3.16	2	16.7	9.50	7.55
Sexual Problems	0	0.0	.88	1.73	2	16.7	8.25	8.10

Table 4 deals with the mean scores of subscales of psychological trauma symptoms across age of participants with PTSD and it revealed that younger IDPs exposed to NET had lower scores than older IDPs exposed to NET on dissociation (Mean= 4.50, SD= 2.62), anxiety (Mean=5.26, SD= 4.77), depression (Mean=4.25, SD=3.69), sexual abuse trauma (Mean=4.75, SD=3.73), sleep disturbance (Mean=5.00, SD =3.16), and sexual problems (Mean=0.88, SD= 1.73). Also, younger IDPs had lower mean score on psychological trauma than older IDPs exposed to NET (Mean=18.88, SD=13.29).

Effect of age in the Efficacy of Narrative Exposure Therapy (NET) on psychological trauma symptoms

The outcome of the one-way ANOVA showed that there were differential results on the outcome of the test of the hypothesis. NET was more impactful on younger participants than older ones on two symptoms; depression ($F = 9.712$, $p = 0.011$), and sexual problems ($F = 6.665$, $p = 0.027$). The hypothesis was therefore upheld for only depression and sexual problems. Table 5 below shows the details of the results.

Table 5: ANOVA Source Table for Psychological Trauma Symptoms across Age (Intervention Group)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Dissociation					
Between Groups	80.667	1	80.667	3.916	.076
Within Groups	206.000	10	20.600		
Total	286.667	11			
Anxiety					
Between Groups	130.667	1	130.667	3.818	.079
Within Groups	342.250	10	34.225		
Total	472.917	11			
Depression					
Between Groups	322.667	1	322.667	9.712	.011
Within Groups	332.250	10	33.225		
Total	654.917	11			
Sexual Abuse Trauma Index (SATI)					
Between Groups	60.167	1	60.167	2.241	.165
Within Groups	268.500	10	26.850		
Total	328.667	11			
Sleep Disturbance					
Between Groups	60.167	1	60.167	3.222	.103
Within Groups	186.750	10	18.675		
Total	246.917	11			
Sexual Problems					
Between Groups	145.042	1	145.042	6.665	.027
Within Groups	217.625	10	21.763		
Total	362.667	11			

6. Discussion of Findings

The outcome of the hypothesis could be attributed to the fact that older people tend to have more effective emotional regulation (Scheibe & Carstensen, 2010; Hay & Diehl, 2011) and their attention processes are biased toward positive stimuli (Reed et al., 2014) than younger people. Furthermore, many studies indicate that in this group (older people) some components of the physiological reactions evoked by negative material are markedly different. Such effects were reported in studies using cardiovascular, breathing and neuro-imaging data (Uchino et al., 2010; Gomez et al., 2016). Potentially, age-related dampening of various components of physiological reactions (either peripheral or central) evoked by emotional material could also help explain the reduction of interference observed in older PTSD patients; which explains NET better impact on trauma symptoms of younger PTSD participants than older PTSD participants.

7. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study demonstrated that Narrative Exposure Therapy (NET) had no effects difference on participants' psychological trauma symptoms across age group. Although NET is designed for PTSD related trauma and proved effective in IDPs and other vulnerable patient groups (Mauritz, Van Gaal, Jongedijk, Schoonhoven, Nijhuis-van der Sanden, & Goossens, 2016). These findings indicate that even in the unstable location of an IDP camp, where IDPS are exposed to psychological trauma and humanitarian crisis. NET does not have an effect across gender of internally displaced person. This

research represents an important contribution to research investigating possibilities and acceptability of psychological interventions with internally displaced persons (IDPs).

8. Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of the study:

- Future research should endeavor to use larger and different sample size in order to improve generality of the finding.
- There should be equal representation across all age groups.
- Future research should include comparison groups and other psychological therapy as alternative psychological treatments.
- Future studies should be done for children in the IDP camps for the purpose of comparing between children, adolescents and old that have gone through the therapy.

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Nigerian Police Officers' Perception of the Power and Potency of Juju (Black Magic) For Criminalities

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Abstract. Scholarly works on crime and policing are yet to accord much attention to the phenomenon of juju practice and criminality. Indeed, while accounts of survivors of juju-oaths and juju-using criminals have been considerably documented, limited empirical studies have attempted to examine the awareness, beliefs, perception and experiences of law enforcement officers in their dealings with criminals that deploy the use of juju for protection against apprehension. Therefore, an exploratory approach was used to to fill in the gaps in existing knowledge on police belief and response to the use of supernatural powers for the perpetration of crime and crime-fighting. The methodology employed qualitative data obtained through interviews with investigative police officers of selected divisional offices within Ogun state. Results suggest a high level of awareness, belief and positive perception of police officers to juju practice in criminalities and crime-fighting. Police officers' adoption of juju powers as a counterforce to combat juju-using criminals appears to be on the increase while they advocate for the recognition of the potency of juju rituals by the criminal justice system. Government and police authorities should recognize, orientate, regulate, and engage juju practice and priests, and maintain sound police-community relations in tackling juju-using criminals.

Keywords: Black magic, Criminalities, Juju, Nigeria Police, Power

1. Introduction

In the face of ever increasing acts of lawlessness, the Nigeria police has continued to grapple with numerous challenges and factors militating against active and effective discharge of its functions to the society. In recent years, Nigeria police has particularly been faced with systemic impediments that include inadequate manpower, deficiency in required quality of personnel, lack of budget support for needed improvement, political interference with police investigations, obsolete and inferior arms and ammunitions, inadequate and ineffective use of modern information and communication technology (Bello and Adeyinka, 2013; Chinwokwu, 2013; Falaye, Adama, and Agemerien, 2013; Mbamalu, 2014; Aborisade, 2018; Amusan and Saka, 2018). Above all these challenges, offenders of various crimes have equally been active in devising different methods to make themselves invincible and evade apprehension by the police.

Hitherto, officers of the Nigeria Police had to contend with battling criminals that possess superior firepower that often incapacitates officers' bid to combat criminalities (Odeh and Nanji, 2015; Oyemwinmina and Aibieyi, 2016; Aborisade and Adedayo, 2018). This is premised on the perennial poor state of arms and ammunitions of the country's police that has been described as obsolete and ineffectual (Nte, 2011; Chinwokwu, 2013). Public opinion holds that lack of sophisticated firearms by the Nigeria police to confront armed criminals is responsible for the widely reported reluctance of police officers to respond to distress calls of citizens under attack from armed bandits (Nigeria Police Watch, 2011; Nwoye, 2016). However, new wave of media reports have identified criminals' use of juju for invincibility and avoiding arrest as a daunting obstacle that police officers have had to face (BBC News, 2014; Mirror, 2015; Punch, 2018). Although, not a new phenomenon, reported use of juju by criminals has grown in leaps and bounds in recent years.

Accounts of captured criminals on how they made exploits in their criminal careers with the use of juju have been widely reported in different channels of

news media (Information Nigeria, 2013; Punch, 2018). Televised press conferences held by various police departments have also included the exhibition of criminals' juju amulets, charms and other paraphernalia alongside their arms and ammunitions. Meanwhile, there have been cases of notorious criminals who operated in many parts of the country with brazen audacity for several months, years, without being caught (Idowu, 1980; Igbo, 2001; Nwalozie, 2011). Public opinions hold firmly that these criminals were only able to carry out such nefarious activities without being arrested due to the power and potency of juju that they often use in protecting themselves (Harnischfeger, 2006).

In spite of avalanche of media reports, there remains a dearth of criminological literature that borders on police officers' awareness, belief, perception, encounters and response to criminals' use of juju to evade arrest. Meanwhile, current news reports indicate that policemen are equally adopting the use of juju to catch criminals (Legit, 2017; Times Live, 2018). This study therefore takes an exploratory approach to fill in the gaps in existing knowledge on police belief and response to the use of supernatural powers for the perpetration of criminalities and crime fighting. Specifically, police awareness, belief and perception about criminals' use of juju to avoid apprehension are examined. Also, the accounts of police personnel's encounters with juju-using criminals and response to possible effects of juju in crime fighting are taken and analysed.

2. Juju Practice and the Nigerian Criminal Law

Juju is a spiritual belief system that utilizes various items like amulets, animal horns, and spells that are incorporated into religious practices, usually connected with witchcraft in Africa (Ellis and Ter Haar, 2004; Adams and Dzokoto, 2005). Although, it used to be prominent among the West Africans, and regarded as a traditional West African religion, it has however grown in leaps and bounds across the African continent and gained a colloquial meaning that has gone beyond what it connotes initially (Ellis and Ter Haar, 2004). This is as a result of its current use to refer to any supernatural power, phenomenon, or resource that has no connection with the orthodox religions of Islam and Christianity (Dunkerley, 2018; Odogwu, 2018). The objects or idols that are believed to possess the spirits of juju are often made by sorcerers that are also referred to as witch doctors or juju priests (Abioje, 2013).

The potency of juju or black magic that dates back to pre-colonial Nigeria has been acknowledged by scholars (Igbo, 2001; Nwalozie, 2011; Abioje, 2013), while its resurgence and use for criminalities gained popularity from the 1980s (Bisikay, 2011). Juju is connected to the traditional African religion popularly known as voodoo. However, while juju is mostly used for evil and wrongdoings, voodoo is believed to be used for native medicine and other helpful purposes (Abioje, 2013). Also, voodoo practitioners are mostly herbalists who make use of a combination of herbs, bark of trees and water to cure diseases. The knowledge to perform such healings using voodoo is usually obtained from ancestral spirits and parental indoctrination (Bisikay, 2011). On the other hand, juju priests make use of irregular objects like human or animal skull, horns and other inanimate objects.

There is a range of supernatural powers that juju (black magic) is believed to possess by the adherents of traditional African religion. These include; invisibility, clairvoyance, see-spirit (ability to see the dead), dark magic (ability to summon demons and other dark entitles), indestructibility (the person's body is impervious to damage especially impenetrable by bullets and sharp metal objects), mind control (ability to control other people's mind) and spell casting (Ojo, 1981). The belief and use of juju in various forms transcend social and economic classes as people of different kinds, educated and illiterate, rich and poor, urban and rural dwellers and so on patronise juju priests (Bisikay, 2011; Abioje, 2013). For example, the head of the Niger Delta Development Commission, Mr. Sam Edem, was charged to court for stealing money to hire a juju sorcerer to bring him success (BBC News, 2008). In the report, police authority alleged that in one of the rituals performed by him, he burnt millions of naira and rubbed the ash on his body for spiritual fortification.

Since claims of juju or witchcraft are not easily verifiable by the scrutiny of judicial proceedings, the Nigerian criminal law accords limited recognition to the existence and potency of juju or criminal charm (Ojo, 1981; Chinwokwu, 2013; Dunkerley, 2018). However, where it is apparent by proof that juju or witchcraft was used to commit crimes against persons or property, the laws have provisions for the punishment of offenders and protections of the society from mysterious machinations (Smith, 2004; Harnischfeger, 2006). The Nigerian law was able to clamp down on some aspects of witchcraft and juju that it can identify and regulate. This is through the provisions made in the Criminal Code Act Sections: 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, and 213; the attitudes of the law to trial by ordeal, witchcraft, juju and

criminal charms are provided. However, the burden of proof to establish the use of juju for criminal purposes weighs heavily on the police and other prosecutors during the judicial proceeding.

3. Juju Charms, Occultism and the Challenges of Policing Nigeria

Existing literature posits that the use of charms or juju for deviance and criminality dates back to pre-colonial Nigeria (Igbo, 2001; Nwalozie, 2011; Abioje, 2013), however, there had been the resurgence and rapid development in the use of juju for violent crimes since the post-colonial era (Ojo, 1981; Smith, 2004; Harnischfeger, 2006). Notably, the proliferation of arms and ammunitions that were introduced during the colonial period is identified as one of the factors that made violent crimes to thrive in post-colonial Nigeria. Meanwhile, the existence of juju practice and rituals for criminalities which existed since the traditional period combined with accessibility to modern weapons that were brought into the country during the advent of colonialism are parts of explanations given for the emergence of juju usage for violent crimes in the country (Harnischfeger, 2006). For instance, armed robbery kingpins of 1960s and 1970s were reported to have taken advantage of accessibility of modern weapons and juju power to subdue their victims and escape arrest from the police within these periods (Ojo, 1981).

The first celebrated armed robber in Nigeria, Dr. Ishola Oyenusi, who terrorized south-western parts of the country in the 1970s, was attributed to have combined the use of sophisticated weapons with juju power (Smith, 2004). In his days, he often bragged that "bullet has no power" whenever he had cause to confront the police officers in a gun battle or shootout (Nwalozie, 2011). The confidence he exhibited at the time was attributed to the perceived potency of his juju-enhanced 'bullet proof' which he wore until he was eventually apprehended and executed. Reports also had it that, robbery czars, such as Lawrence Anini, who exploited the city of Benin in the 1980s, Shina Rambo, who was feared for his exploits within the south-western parts of Nigeria in the 1990s, and Abiodun Ogunjobi, also known as Godogodo, another robbery kingpin of south-west Nigeria in the 2000s, all made extensive use of juju in their criminal careers before they were caught (Vanguard, 2013).

However, the rate at which criminals make use of juju to perpetrate evil in the entire Nigerian state has continued to grow since the turn of the current millennium (Odeh and Nanji, 2015; Oyemwinmina and Aibieyi, 2016). The growth of existing crimes like armed robbery, and emergence of new crimes like kidnapping for ransom, drug and human trafficking, widened the scope of insecurity in the country (Akinyele, 2001; Harnischfeger, 2003). On the other hand, the incapability of the Nigerian police to contain the high level of insecurity became apparent (Adejumo, 2014; Aborisade and Adedayo, 2018). This led to the emergence and growth of alternative security arrangements and vigilante groups in different parts of the country in order to bolster security (Smith, 2004). Militia groups like Odu'a People's Congress, and Bakassi Boys did not only clampdown on criminals using juju, they equally took on witch doctors and juju priests that provided spiritual fortifications for people of the underworld (Harnischfeger, 2003). Incidentally, considerable peace was restored to these areas as crime rate was rapidly reduced, leading to increase in public perception that the juju-enhanced, anti-crime activities of vigilante groups are more effective in ensuring security (Harnischfeger, 2006).

The use of juju rituals for oath-taking is equally prominent amongst criminal gang members who often swear to oath of secrecy in case one or more of them are captured by the law enforcers (Nwalozie, 2011; BBC News, 2014). Therefore, this portends a herculean task to the police who may interrogate arrested criminals with the belief that they will use this means to track the whereabouts of the remaining gang members from the confessions of those arrested (Idowu, 1980; Igbo, 2001). In particular, this has been identified as one of the main reasons for the challenges policemen faced in tracking down armed robbery kingpins in Nigeria (Ojo, 1981). This is because arrested gang members usually preferred to die than to volunteer information about how to capture their leaders, since they are of the belief that giving such information will inevitably lead to their deaths anyway (Igbo, 2001; Nwalozie, 2011; Chinwokwu, 2013). On the other hand, the official non-recognition of the efficacy of juju in criminal justice in Nigeria makes it inevitable for police officers to deploy all within their armoury to apprehend criminals.

4. The Present Study

Given the positions of extant literature on the subject of this research, the aim of this current study is to explore the level of belief and perception of the police on the efficacy of juju use for crime purposes in Nigeria. This is in order to unravel the unreported challenges that police personnel may be exposed to in the course of fighting the increasing rate of crime in

the country. The apparent success of ethno-militia groups that used charms to confront juju-using criminals may have also impacted on the impression of police personnel about the efficacy of juju and its adoption to confront criminals. This assumption was given credence by news from media channels that police officers are taking to the use of juju to catch criminals (Legit, 2017; Times Live, 2018).

Although, news media reports suggest that some police men are equally deploring juju to neutralize the effects of criminals' juju, no official statement from the police has implied that the use of juju has been sanctioned by police authorities. This may be as a result of the social perception of juju as fetish, devilish and against the tenets of Islam and Christian religions that represent the faith of overwhelming majority of Nigerians. Therefore, adherents of Christianity and Islam that adopt juju may have to do so discreetly in order not to be perceived as deviants. This explains the rationale to conduct a qualitative study in this current study as there is a greater chance of police officers volunteering the truth at a face-to-face interview than questionnaire. There is also a higher chance that officers will share experiences of their encounters with juju-using criminals using qualitative methods.

5. Research Methodology

In this study, a qualitative approach was adopted because the topic of the research is an unexplored, sensitive and complex issue. An initial attempt to deploy quantitative techniques to gather data was unsuccessful as a large number of officers declined to participate in the study. Therefore, the methodological approach was explorative with the aim of developing an initial understanding of police perception of the existence and, act as a platform for subsequent studies. The study is aimed at capturing viewpoints and breathes of experience instead of commonality and dominant discourses. Therefore, interview is considered to have sufficient structure that would enable the answering of the research questions, while enabling flexibility to pursue the thought process of participants.

5.1 Ethical considerations

The research made conscious efforts to abide by ethical rules and standards guiding data collection from human subjects. Before the data collection aspect of the study commenced, approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State. In addition, permission to engage police officers in the study was sought and obtained from the office of Ogun State Police Command, Eleweeran, Abeokuta. Emphasis was laid on the voluntary nature of the research throughout the recruitment and interview processes. All contacts gave verbal consent to the research and they were assured that the goal of the study was to examine the perception and beliefs in criminals' use of black magic – not to judge or condemn officers' belief in fetishism.

5.2 Sample participants

The participants of this study were 34 officers from 13 police stations in three cities within Ogun State; Abeokuta, Sagamu and Ijebu-Ode (N= 26), and four divisional police headquarters in the purposively selected cities (N= 8). The selection of police offices in these three cities was premised on convenience and assurances from police contacts that information about the study will be accessible. All participants were recruited from major jurisdictions on a voluntary basis, through known contacts, even though approval for the research was granted by the office of the Commissioner of the Police, Ogun State. Thereafter, purposive sampling was used to select participants consequent upon their job roles as field officers (to ensure those with contacts with criminals are selected), years of experience, statuses and voluntariness in being a research participant. Initially, the study was designed to be quantitative in nature considering the number of police investigators in the Zone 2 command. However, the reluctance of police officers to fill questionnaire was evident during the pilot study. The researchers were then advised by volunteering officers to make use of semi-structured interview methods instead, as many officers will be averse to filling out information about what they consider confidential and strict police affairs. Also, due to the non-recognition of juju, witchcraft and charms in the Nigerian justice system, officers that believe in their potency would not want to divulge such information easily on questionnaire. Meanwhile, most participants were able to speak fluent English, and translations were done for a few officers who were more comfortable speaking in *Pidgin* English.

5.3 Study instruments

The study was carried out within a period of three months spanning through October, 2018 to January, 2019. During this period, 48 officers were contacted and 34 of them agreed to be part of the study. The participation rate for the study was high (70 percent), mainly as a result of the efforts of contact officers that assisted in soliciting for participation of officers in the study. Audio recording was not allowed during

the interview, therefore notes of the proceeding were taken down by a research assistant. Interviews averaged thirty-five minutes. Eleven minutes was the shortest time used for the conduct of the interview, while the longest lasted for 70 minutes. The interview time varied considerable due to the differentials in the amount of experiences officers are able and willing to share, their admittance of the power and potency of juju, and the semi-structured nature of the interview that allowed them to freely express themselves.

Although, the primary data collected for the study was qualitative, considerations were equally given to some quantitative data. As a result, short standard instruments were used to gather data that throws light on demographics characteristics of the police personnel, their religious affiliations and ethnic background. These are considered as important elements that may impact on their belief, perception and attitude towards juju and its usage.

5.4 Data analysis

Analysis of the data collected from the field was in conformity to the iterative process that often characterises grounded theory in particular, and qualitative research more generally (Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw, 1995). At the time the data were being gathered, extensive field notes on various observations and interactions relevant to the study of police perception of juju charms and its use by criminals were taken. After data collection was concluded, content analysis was done with the use of a qualitative software program (NVivo). Content analysis has to do with the probing of content and themes of text to uncover both definitions contained in the text and those that emerge through the analysis (Krippendorff, 2012). Open coding was used for the identification of the themes that are apparent in the narratives of the participants with the use of line-by-line analysis. The connections between the themes started becoming clearer after initial memos had been written, then, we reverted to the full body of data to commence focused coding. The use of focused coding assisted to ensure that the themes that emerged from the initial subset of the data were both appropriately configured and relevant to the full set of data. A similar line-by-line process of open coding was utilised for the focused coding, however, specific codes that had been identified as relevant to the theoretical background were applied.

5.5 Research Limitations

As a result of the emotive and complex characteristic of the study and its study population, this research is not devoid of limitations that usually trail data collection from police personnel, especially in developing societies. First, the sample of the study is relatively small and may not have been representative of police officers' opinion on juju use by criminals in Nigeria. Substantial effort was made to adopt a mixed-method approach for this study; however, at the recruitment stage for quantitative data collection, officers expressed unwillingness to complete questionnaires. Those that filled left a lot of questions unanswered. Therefore, the researchers were constrained to use only qualitative method for data collection. Second, at the point of recruiting participants for interview, the study equally had high rejection rate as officers were unwilling to divulge information about their personal beliefs. Third, in spite of the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity made to the participants, some of them still appeared suspicious of the exercise, and this may contribute negatively to validity of the information they supplied to the study.

Finally, the sampling was of necessity opportunistic. Only officers that were at their duty posts and willing to participate were engaged in the study. However, in spite of these limitations, the field experience of the interviewers provided the capacity to engage the police officers and elicit useful information for the study.

6. Results

6.1 Preliminary Analyses

Between October 2018 and January, 2019, 34 face-to-face interviews were conducted in selected police divisions, stations and offices within Ogun State command. As a result of the purposive sampling technique adopted for the study, only divisional crime officers (DCOs) and investigate police officers (IPOs) that have at least five years' experience were engaged. This was done to ensure that those involved in the study have considerable number of years' experience in combating violent crime perpetrators, since earlier studies revealed high level of juju patronage amongst violent criminals. Their religious affiliation was considered important, since the topic of the study has spiritual or religious bearing. Eighteen of them indicated being Christian, 14 expressed they are Muslims, while only stated that they are not affiliated to any religion. None of the participants expressed their profound belief in traditional religion, however, 11 indicated that they belief in the power and potency of juju and have patronised juju in one form or another in the past, but were not wholly traditionalists. All the officers

engaged in this study as participants indicated that they had previously worked in various divisions of the police before they were transferred to their present Command in Ogun State. This implies that they are able to offer experience of juju usage in criminality and law enforcement across different regions in Nigeria.

6.2 Main Analyses

The body languages of police officers engaged in the study and some of their responses showed that their negative perception of juju practice and rituals is informed by their affiliation to Christianity and Islam, as well as their official positions as officers of a justice system that accords no official recognition to juju practice. However, some contractions in their responses to questions that borders on their awareness, belief, perception, and whether the government should officially recognise juju practice made their self-denial quite evident. In some instances, participants that earlier expressed that they do not patronise juju for fortification later made comments like "no police officer that usually confronts criminals will go to criminals' hideout 'unprotected' except he/she is on a suicide mission," "Only God is my protector…God made the 'herbs and the roots' for the use of mankind. Meanwhile, the 'herbs and roots' are objects that are synonymous with juju practice often utilized by herbalists. In spite of the spate of denials, majority of the participants offered relevant information about their experiences and encounters with juju-using criminals. In the following sub-sections, the themes discussed are: police awareness, belief and perception about charms and juju practice, encounters with juju-using criminals, strategies adopted to apprehend juju-using criminals.

6.2.1 Awareness, belief and perception about charms and juju practice

All the participants of the study answered in the affirmative to the question on whether they are aware of juju beliefs and practices as well as its use by criminals to commit crimes and escape arrest. However, 11 of the officers declined accepting that juju has compelling powers over people or can be potent enough to make criminals get away with their crimes at the point of arrest. One of the officers in this category expressed his opinion further:

...juju is about belief. Those that believe in it get scared and apprehensive which makes them to see the effect that is not really there in reality. It is a psychological thing. Even if it has potent power, you must believe in it before it can exert such power on you. I am a police officer, and I believe police uniform itself has the fear-factor that makes juju and juju-users to tremble in fear. That is why we are usually able to arrest criminals who use juju or not...

(Olayinka, Sergeant, Abeokuta)

Majority of participants that refused to concede to the power and potency of juju premised their disbelief on their strong belief in orthodox religion that offers a stronger supernatural power. One of such officers who are of Christian faith volunteered:

...the Bible recognizes the existence of such spiritual powers which is why I responded positively to my awareness of juju and other familial spirits. However, I am not bound, neither am I susceptible to such power because the power that is in me is greater than the power that is embedded in juju. I have been part of squads that went to effect arrest of babalawo (juju priests) and even criminals that possess such juju powers. Once you are strong in your faith and refuse to hold such belief in your heart and allow it to affect your confidence, you will definitely triumph.

(David, Corporal, Abeokuta)

Other notable positions held by officers that do not believe in the potency of juju power are that "it can only work for or against those that believe in its potency," "it is a thing of the mind and only work in the mind of those that believe in it." Ironically, some of the participants in this category conceded to having experienced some mysterious things happening during their police career like "suspects sudden disappearance from detention," "engaging criminals in shoot-out without the criminals getting hit," "mysterious disappearance of casefiles under their care." To these 'mysteries,' the officers are of the belief that "suspects may have been released by corrupt officers," "the shot at criminals may have been badly aimed" and "casefiles may have been taken to sabotage the case" respectively.

As for the 23 participants that hold that juju is powerful, their premise was mostly based on their personal experiences, their affiliation to traditional religion which involves juju worship and practices, and accounts of close associates that have come in contact with juju power. Some of them hold that officers of the Nigeria Police that deny the existence and potency of juju and its use in perpetrating crime are "only engaging in self-denial and self-deception." Olayipo, a police Inspector, was one of those that vehemently believed that no police officer will claim oblivion of juju potency in Nigeria:

...the use of juju by criminals, violent or nonviolent is now commonplace in Nigeria. There is certainly no police officer that goes for arrest operations or investigations that will claim that juju doesn't work

or is not powerful. That officer is only lying to himself. I am a Christian but I have seen juju working a lot of times and I cannot deny that. In fact in Nigeria now, juju is used to cause harm, protect criminals and do general evil than good. There is no state or town that an officer will work now that he or she will not see juju in action...

(Olayipo, Inspector, Abeokuta)

Majority of the officers that believe in the potency of juju corroborated his statement. Some stated that their police profession and Nigerian criminal justice's stance on juju usage and potency may be responsible for some officers' denial in the existence and potency of juju. However, they opined that in truth, almost all officers are wary of juju and deploy different methods and beliefs to counter the effect of juju's supernatural powers.

Experiences and encounters with juju-using criminals

Twenty-three participants that expressed their belief eficacy of juju as a result of their personal encounters with juju using criminals were requested to share such experiences. The officers shared stories of a variety of encounters they had which all depict mysterious supernatural occurrences. A few of them expressed that they had deadly encounters with juju-using criminals which they were only able to survive by a stroke of luck. Sergeant Emeka, narrated his account which he said still had adverse psychological effect on him:

...we went to effect the arrest of a herbalist who offers juju services to a gang of kidnappers that we caught in Aba. On getting to his shrine, we could not find him but we were hearing his voice all over. He was warning us to leave his shrine immediately or something bad will happen to us. Of course we didn't leave. Then all of a sudden, I lost consciousness and became totally unaware of events around me. I was told that my eyes were open, but I was unresponsive. This thing happened to three other officers together with me. We were there for hours. I was told it took the intervention of the village head and some juju priests who performed some appeasements before the herbalist gave antidote that set us free. I didn't recover fully from the event. I had to be taken to some other spiritualists, including Church. Up till now, I still feel the effect occasionally. One of the officers that had same experience with me later went mad.

(Emeka, Sergeant, Sagamu)

Some other officers shared similar experiences where it took the intervention of juju priest and other spiritual practitioners for them to get saved from life-threatening encounters with criminals that used juju to attack them. Inspector Kabiru expressed that he was once shot in the leg by an armed robber he attempted to arrest and the wound he sustained refused to heal in spite of several orthodox and unorthodox treatments. He said he finally got healed through the help of a juju herbalist man in Ijebu community. Similarly, Corporal Garuba shared his experience of when he was shot during an operation and he was rushed to the hospital for treatment. However, doctors could not locate the bullet in spite of the pains he felt about being shot. He said it took the intervention of a juju man who "rubbed the spot with a local gin before the bullet could be removed."

A substantial number of the participants stated that they equally never believed in the potency of juju until they experienced the power themselves. One of those that never believed in the potency of juju before he encountered a juju-using criminal is Sergeant Adesegun, who shared his experience:

There was this Fulani man that was arrested and handcuffed but shockingly the handcuff was removed neatly without any breakage and he disappeared leaving the handcuff on the ground. That cannot be ordinary, it is supernatural...Also, when I was serving in Kogi, we went to arrest this criminal we have been looking for, for a long time and we started shooting at him but the bullets could not penetrate into his body, I saw it with my own eyes but at the end we were able to get him.

(Adesegun, Sergeant, Ijebu-Ode)

In all, the most common juju power that officers have witnessed criminals deploy is the bullet-repellent or spiritual bullet-proof. Majority of the officers indicated that they have experienced criminals use it to resist arrest more than once. Some of the officers hold the belief that it is the most common spiritual fortification that criminals sought from juju priests. However, despite a good number of them professing that criminals equally used disappearing powers, none of them confirmed seeing a criminal disappear before them physically. They only described situations where they rounded criminals up in rooms and found them missing. A participant in Sagamu, Adewale, gave an account of when they chased at a gang of robbers in their vehicles. In the process of trying to escape from the police, the robbers' vehicle crashed into a huge tree on the highway. The officers got out of their van to rescue and arrest, only to find out that all occupants have vanished from the car wreckage. Adewale was convinced that the gang used supernatural powers to escape the scene of the accident. He affirmed, "we were following them very closely and there was no way they could have physically got out of the car within the time we packed our car and got to the crashed car." In addition, he stated that the damage done to the car

was such that survivors would need help to be able to get out of the wreckage, as the doors were crushed and became non-functional. Other officers described various incidences of criminals or suspects disappearing, including those that disappeared from police cells where they were being detained.

6.2.2 Responses and strategies deployed to apprehend juju-using criminals

The participants that narrated their encounters with juju-using criminals were asked to divulge information about how they were able to overpower and apprehend those they successfully arrested. However, majority of them indicated that they were unsuccessful in their attempts to arrest the criminals on the occasions they witnessed criminals using juju, even though some of the criminals were eventually arrested. Meanwhile, a few of them, who were part of successful attempt to apprehend juju-using criminals, shared their experiences. Olayipo professed that on the occasion where a gang of kidnappers made use of bullet-repellent juju, it was one of the officers in their team that tied a red clothing to the nozzle of the guns of the officers and instructed them to point their guns first to the sky and them aim at the kidnappers and shoot. According to him, their adherence to this instruction assisted them in gunning down seven of the kidnappers, while three surrendered including their leader, and two escaped.

Notably, participants of the study generally indicated that once they are well informed that the suspects they are set to arrest make use of potent juju to protect themselves, they prepare in different ways to neutralize the juju power and succeed in their mission. Although, many of them did not divulge details of how they strategize to capture juju-using criminals, a few of them volunteered that they often have officers who, by virtue of their proven spiritual prowess, are usually designated to handle juju-using criminals. In some instances, such officers may not even be within the same police station or division with the officers in charge of such cases, but they usually seek and get help of the officers in their bid to capture such criminals.

Other participants pointed out that assistance from the public, especially those that know about the secrets of the antidote of such juju powers are often sought and received. They provided instances where members of communities that juju-using criminals reside assisted them in neutralizing the effect of their juju powers, thereby making it easy for them to apprehend them. Adeboye, an inspector, gave an account of one of such incidences:

...there was this case of a robber that used to escape but we got a hint that the officer going for the arrest should rob himself with palm oil then, that particular criminal's juju would be neutralized and that was how we were able to arrest him.

(Adeboye, Inspector, Abeokuta)

A few other participants also told stories of how they got similar help from members of the community and leadership of juju priests in such communities. Adetola, a corporal, pointed out that it is easier to get help from communities if one of the officers is an indigene of such community or lives there. In addition, they make use of informants that have fair knowledge about the workings of juju powers. According to some participants, some of such informants may be ex-convicts that made use of series of juju powers during their criminal careers. Overall, there were no definite or standard measure used collectively by police officers to confront juju-using criminals, response and strategies deployed depend on the peculiarities of each occasion and the options available to them.

6.2.3 Use of Juju to Confront Juju-Using Criminal?

Only four of the 23 officers that expressed believing in the potency of juju confessed to their adoption of juju as a counterforce to confront juju-using criminals. This is in spite of several officers confessing to having sought and got healing help from juju priests and herbalists in the course of their police career. One of the officers that refuted the use of juju to confront criminals went ahead to provide information that may explain why many officers deny using juju of their own when they go in battle with juju-using criminals:

...the use of juju is forbidden by the Nigerian law. Also, juju related evidences are not tenable in the court of law. Therefore, it will be difficult for officers to be giving you information about how he has been using juju either for good or bad. Meanwhile, don't forget that many of these officers have their own [orthodox] religions. How can they claim to be Christians or Muslims and still confess to you that they worship and practice juju? That is part of the deep secrets of officers that make use of juju to fight criminals. I do not see how you can get that [information] out of them...

(Morenike, Corporal, Abeokuta)

Ironically, even though majority of the officers denied the use of juju in fighting juju-using criminals, almost all the officers that participated in the study

indicated that they knew fellow officers that made use of supernatural powers to protect themselves and confront criminals. However, only a few of them conceded that the so-called 'supernatural powers' were obtained from juju practice. In particular, respondents that physically witnessed the capturing of juju-criminals told similar stories of how their fellow officers used "superior powers," "special powers" "supernatural might," "strange powers" among others, to fight criminals to submission. In describing the measures deployed by their colleagues to confront and overpower the criminals, participants mainly avoided to categorically state that their colleagues deployed the use of juju. Only three of the 11 officers that indicated witnessing the overpowering of juju-using criminals by their colleagues conceded that such colleagues used juju power to subdue the criminals. They premised their reluctance to concede that their colleagues made use of juju on the secrecy and denials of the officers to having used juju. Some of them said that such officers often claim that their ability to capture juju-using criminals is premised on their "self-confidence" and "natural powers.' They also reported that some officers often give credit to the spiritual fortifications that their parents did for them when they were young.

6.2.4 Perception about Non-recognition of Juju by the Nigerian Criminal Justice System

All the officers expressed their awareness of the position of the Nigerian criminal justice system on the use of juju or spiritual means to cause harm. They know that such claims are non-permissible under the law and untenable as evidence in court. However, majority of them decried the non-recognition of juju by laws in the country. They mainly premised their protestations on the peculiarity of the sociocultural environment of Africa and Nigeria where the use is very prevalent and should not be ignored if the realities of the country's social environment are to be considered. One of such officers that strongly hold on to this idea retorts:

...It is because of the people that colonized us that made our government not to recognize juju. We have seen criminals using juju on a number of times, but there is no way we can prove that in the court of law. There was a case where a female detainee escaped from her prison cell after her boyfriend visited her. The officers on duty were all charged for negligence and conspiracy with the suspect. Meanwhile, we were told by the suspect's neighbour that her boyfriend was a herbalist and he must have given her something to effect her disappearance from the cell. In fact, one of them confided in us that he must have given her onions to rub under her slippers...

(Adesegun, Sergeant, Ijebu-Ode)

The position of Adesegun is representative of that of majority of the participants who bore their minds on the challenges they are confronted with due to the non-recognition of juju in the country's justice system. They mostly attributed the non-recognition of juju by the laws to the origin of Nigerian legal system which is based on the English Common Law. However, some of them blamed the hypocrisy of Nigerian legislative and judiciary leaders for their refusal to amend Nigerian laws to appropriately accommodate the existence of juju as a compelling influence on the country's social environment.

In advocating the recognition of juju and making appropriate provisions for verifying spiritual claims in court, a police officer was quite emphatic in his submissions:

...it is only hypocritical of us to claim that juju cannot be recognized under Nigerian laws. The court judges that refuse to acknowledge juju, many of them use juju for different purposes. The lawyers that speak against juju in court and emphasize its non-acceptability, many of them patronize juju. Some of the occurrences facilitated by juju like criminals disappearing, or using traditional bullet-proof, many of them know that these stories are real. Yet, they sanction officers that are in charge of criminals who disappeared under their care. Some of these officers are sent to jail with accusation that they colluded with the criminals for them to escape. This is Africa not Western countries; juju practice and power are real and this must be acknowledged.

(Bamishe/Inspector/Sagamu)

Bamishe went further to narrate that court judges sometimes deploy the use of juju to protect themselves against some plaintiffs and accused persons in court that may want to use juju powers to manipulate cases in court. He retorted: 'if they do not believe in juju, why bother protect themselves in such cases?' Similarly, another officer, Olayipo, pointed out that several actors in the criminal justice system, especially the Nigerian judiciary, are members of a number of occult groups and organizations that make use of diabolical powers similar to that of juju to give themselves some spiritual edge over others in different scenarios.

In furtherance of their support and argument in favour of the recognition of juju by criminal laws in Nigeria, some of the participants advocated for the government to support officers that believe and

decide to adopt the use of juju in prosecuting their policing duties. However, the few officers that spoke against the recognition of juju by legal system in the country premised their opposition to difficulties that will arise in verifying claims of juju powers and their usage, as well as the potentials of abuse of such provisions by officers and the public. As one of them puts it: "in this scientific world, how do we prove juju claims, how do we separate genuine juju powers from misconception and deception?" Even though, some of those in this category acknowledge that there is juju power, they believe giving official and legal recognition to it will bring more harm than good to the criminal justice system of the country.

7. Discussions

The purpose of this study was to present the perception of police officers in Nigeria to a supernaturally-inclined challenge of combating criminals that deploy diabolical and spiritual powers embedded in juju rituals to perpetrate crime. This is in response to avalanche of news media reports of criminals' use of juju for invincibility and avoiding arrest which apparently is on the increase in the country (Information Nigeria, 2013; BBC News, 2014; Mirror, 2015; Oyemwinmina and Aibieyi, 2016; Punch, 2018). Using data from a qualitative study of investigative police officers in selected divisional offices within Ogun State, Nigeria, the awareness, belief and perception of the officers about juju practice, its use in criminality, encounter with juju-using criminals and opinions about the non-recognition of juju in the Nigerian legal system were examined. Four key findings emerged from this current study.

First, in spite of a generally high acceptance and adherence to orthodox religions, the level of awareness, belief and positive perception of police officers to juju practice is quite high. Officers sampled in the study expressed appreciable belief in the power and potency of juju in facilitating supernatural occurrences in physicality. This finding supports previous research by Abioje (2013) and Van der Watt and Kruger (2017) that acceptance of Christianity and Islam in Africa has not eradicated beliefs and patronage of juju rituals in the continent. However, what was not previously found in the literature review was the perceived high level of impact that juju plays in criminalities and crime control in the country. Meanwhile, the sample of officers engaged in the study was evasive in declaring their patronage of juju rituals in spite of their positive perception towards it.

Second, in spite of the non-recognition of juju usage by the criminal justice system, officers' perception and conviction of juju deployment by criminals to resist arrest is very high. The sample of officers engaged in the study revealed encounters and experiences that indicate that they were psychologically bonded to the powers and potency of juju usage for criminalities. This finding equally lends credence to news media reports of a growing concern among the rank and file of Nigeria police on the use of juju by criminals to terrorize the public and resist arrest (BBC News, 2014; Mirror, 2015; Punch, 2018). In such reports, offenders' confessions of the use of juju for criminal operations prior to their apprehension are often presented. In addition, police parade of captured criminals at press conferences often includes the exhibition of their juju amulets, charms and other paraphernalia alongside their arms and ammunitions (Information Nigeria, 2013; Punch, 2018). Also, increasing number of studies have been looking into the rising effects of juju in controlling the minds of trafficked women and children and its implications for criminal investigators (Van der Watt and Kruger, 2017; Dunkerley, 2018; Spyropoulos, 2018).

Third, there is a high level of adoption of juju practice among police officers in responding to the menace of criminals that use juju to evade arrest. The sample of officers of the study divulged information on how their colleagues made use of juju to neutralize the magic power of criminals in different bids to arrest them. This is a finding that is not too often found in policing literature. However, Harnischfeger (2003; 2006) and Smith (2004) have previously reported the use of juju powers by vigilante groups and ethnic militias to clampdown on the nefarious activities of criminals and their juju priests. On the other hand, the non-recognition of juju in the Nigerian legal system and non-approval of orthodox religions of the tenets of juju practice, however, makes it difficult for officers to publicly declare their adoption of juju for crime fighting. Extant literature have however posited that the condemnation of juju practice by orthodox religions is responsible for the denials and covert engagement in juju practices in Africa which make the actual number of adherents of traditional religion to be shrouded in obscurity (Bisikay, 2011; Abioje, 2013; Odogwu, 2018).

Finally, police officers perceive the need for a review of Nigeria's criminal law over its non-recognition of juju powers and potency. This is premised on the sociocultural peculiarities of the Nigerian society and the significant value that juju practices hold in its past

and recent histories (Abioje, 2013). As posited by empirical studies, several traditional rites and juju practices have survived into modernity (Harnischfeger, 2003; Smith, 2004). In addition, the potency of juju or black magic has been acknowledged by historical literature and contemporary studies (Ojo, 1981; Bisikay, 2011). The non-consideration and accommodation of juju practice in the Nigerian legal system has been attributed to the challenge of verifying juju claims under the scrutiny of judicial proceedings (Ojo, 1981; Chinwokwu, 2013; Dunkerley, 2018). The participants submitted that non-recognition of juju powers poses a greater and unique risk to policing Nigeria where deployment of supernatural powers by criminals is commonplace.

8. Policy, Practice Implications and Future Research

The findings of this research highlight the need for more positive considerations of the significance and influence of traditional belief system in bringing about social order in Nigeria. In particular, perceived potency of juju involvement in criminality is likely to adversely affect officers' psychologically and hamper their confidence and willingness to combat violent criminals. The recorded successes of vigilante and militia groups who adopted juju powers in confronting juju-using criminals where police officers are seen to have failed is a pointer to this notion. Indeed, the Nigerian criminal law accords limited recognition to the existence and potency of juju or criminal charm, where it is apparent by proof that juju or witchcraft was used to commit crimes against persons or property. However, the burden of proof to establish the use of juju for criminal purposes which weighs heavily on the police, can be reviewed and lightened with government's considerable recognition and regulation of juju practice in the country. The successes recorded by vigilante and militia groups in reprimanding juju-using criminals can be consolidated and their informal means of subduing criminals can be further explored.

The government should also recognize the religious and business activities of juju priests with the aim of regulating the services they render to their clientele. In order to stop the provision of diabolical powers to criminals, government's intervention into the activities of juju priests is required. This will enable the introduction and sustenance of ethical practices into juju rituals which will facilitate the screening of clients by the juju priests. In addition, recognizing juju priests will pave ways for their engagement by government authorities to help unravel spiritually-included cases, while they will provide supernatural powers to police officers that believe in the potency of juju powers. On the part of police authorities, there is need to continue to enhance police-community partnership. This will help in assuring officers of the assistance of community members in tackling juju-using criminals. Since the benefits of such partnership have been evidenced in the current study, a further exploration of this partnership is required in unravelling mysteries behind juju powers and potencies in criminalities.

Future research needs to triangulate perspectives of law makers, legal practitioners and judicial officers with that of police officers so that the myths and realities of juju practice and use in criminalities are considered from multiple viewpoints, broadening our understanding around juju powers and potency, its use in perpetrating crimes, and the merits and demerits of enshrining it in the Nigerian criminal justice system.

9. Conclusion

The decline in social security occasioned by upsurge in criminality since the turn of the millennium has placed Nigerians in a situation where they have to scamper for safety within available physical, spiritual and extra-terrestrial realms. Meanwhile, the apparent deficiency of the police in containing the growing rate of criminality in the country has buttressed peoples' belief in the potency of juju which is widely reported to be the fortress of criminals in ensuring their invincibility. The lack of recognition accorded to the potency of juju in enabling criminals to evade arrest leaves police officers to resort to self-help in tackling juju-using criminals in their bid to successfully perform their primary responsibilities. This research has captured rich descriptions of experiences of police officers on influences of spirituality and supernatural occurrences in the process of rendering their services to the society, and findings indicate that they have high perception of juju powers and its use in criminalities. Therefore, the study submits that the full recognition of juju practice, power and potency as factors militating against policing and social security in the Nigerian environment is inevitable.

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The Role of Indigenous Knowledge in Human-Snake Conflicts in Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Human-wildlife conflicts are interactions between man and wild animals that yield negative impact on each other. Increase in human population with a consequential expansion of human settlements into wild animals' habitats has brought man into close interaction with wild animals. Such interactions sometimes end up in conflicts, especially when one considers the other as a threat to life or survival. Farmers often come into contact with snakes during the process of land clearing in preparation for cultivation of crops and even up to harvesting season. This study assessed the influence of indigenous knowledge on the conflict between farmers and snakes in Ogun state, Nigeria. Two agricultural zones were purposively sampled and structured questionnaire administered (n=125) to farmers to elicit information on their demographic characteristics and experiences with snakes on their farms. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse data on demographic characteristics and experiences with snakes. Association between incidence of snake bite and farmers' support for snake conservation was tested with chi-square. There were more male farmers (68%). Farmers' major religions were Islam (53.6%) and Christianity (44.8%). Most of the farmers killed snakes when encountered. Few farmers (25.6%) had snake bite incidence while majority (74.4%) declined support for snake conservation. There was a significant association between snake bite incidence and support for snake conservation (X^2=29.768, df=1, P<0.05). Farmers' indigenous knowledge contributed to the minimal account of human snake conflict while their perceived value of snake was self-limiting and could cause a spike in human-snake conflict.

Keywords: Conflict, Conservation, Indigenous Knowledge, Snake Bite, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Human-wildlife conflicts are interactions between man and wild animals that yield negative impact on each other. Just as humans have positive interactions with wild animals (e.g. as pets and for tourism), human-wildlife conflicts are the negative interactions between humans and wildlife (Huguenin, 2005). The occurrence of human-wildlife conflicts dates to human prehistory. The earliest form of conflict occurred in the form of predation of ancestors of prehistoric man and early hominoids (Berger and McGraw, 2007; Anand and Radhakrishma, 2017).

Human-wildlife conflict has extended from what was initially considered as a problem associated with rural or agricultural communities to what has become a threat to most of the globally endangered mammal species. It is one of the most critical issues facing environmentalist. The continuous increase in human population with a consequential expansion of human settlements into wild animals' habitats has brought man into close interaction with wild animals. In other words, the space between man and wild animals is consistently shrinking, thereby increasing their frequency of interaction. This often occurs when man and wild animals explore natural resources for survival and means of livelihood respectively. Where the natural resources are limited, these encounters sometimes end up in conflicts, especially when one considers the other as a threat to life or survival.

Conflict occurs when wildlife requirements overlap with that of humans creating costs to man and wildlife (Eniang, *et al*., 2011; Datiko and Bekele, 2013). Human-wildlife could also be fueled by explosion of some wild animal populations, as a result of successful conservation efforts and environmental changes (Pittiglio, 2008; Kate, 2012; Anand and Radhakrishma, 2017). The steady rise in socio-economic activities in natural vegetations has also contributed to a decline in forest cover subjecting the wild animals to smaller habitats and less food. The increasing demand for land and declining productivity of the already cultivated land prompts local communities to search for virgin lands preferably in wildlife habitats. A typical example of human-wildlife conflict related to this factor is the farmers-snake conflict. It is remarkable to note that out of the estimated 3000 species of snake, only about 600 species are venomous (National Geographic, 2020).). Man's fear of snakes and snake bites prompt man to lunch attack on snakes which oftentimes, eventually result in snake bite. More often than not, farmers come into contact with snakes more than other members of the local communities especially during the process of land clearing in preparation for cultivation of crops and even up to harvesting season. This formed the basis for assessing conflict between farmers and snakes in Ogun state, Nigeria**.** Preliminary investigation revealed that the farmers usually encountered various species of snakes such as python, viper and cobra.

It is commonly perceived that indigenous knowledge informs rural communities' decision about their social and economic life. It was on this note that this study also examined the influence of indigenous knowledge of the farmers on their response to conflict with snakes.

2. Methodology

The study was conducted in Ogun State, Southwestern Nigeria. Ogun state lie approximately within latitude 7^{o} and 27'E a land area of 16, 409.26sq.km and with an estimated population of 3, 728,098. The state has a humid tropical climate with an average annual rainfall of between 105mm and 128mm. Ogun state borders Lagos state to the south, Oyo state to the north and Ondo state to the east. It is bounded on the west by Republic of Benin. The state is commonly referred to as the "gateway" to Nigeria from other coastal West African Countries due to its geographical location (Solanke, 2000). The indigenes of Ogun state are mainly Yoruba speaking people. Ogun state shares certain aspects of their culture and tradition with other Southwestern states who are equally Yoruba speaking people with different dialects. Indigenes of Ogun state are traditionally hunters and farmers. Ogun state is divided into four zones by Agricultural Development Project (Obayelu, *et al*., 2015)**.** The zones are Abeokuta, Ikenne, Ilaro and Ijebu Ode. Two (Ilaro and Ijebu) of the zones were purposively sampled owing to massive farming activities in the selected zones. Purposive sampling technique was equally adopted to administer questionnaire to farmers who had encountered snakes on their farms for a minimum of five years. This category of farmers is expected to be knowledgeable about the subject matter. This method is in agreement with Nyanganji *et al*., (2011) who conducted a similar study. In all, 125 respondents were identified and sampled. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information on the farmers' demographic characteristics and their experiences with snakes on their farms. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to analyze data on the farmers' demographic characteristics, as well as their knowledge about and experiences with snakes. Chi square was used to test for relationship between incidence of snake bite and farmers' support for conservation.

3. Results

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demography	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	85	68.0
Female	40	32.0
Religion		
Islam	67	53.6
Christianity	56	44.8
Traditional	2	1.6
Age		
21-30	12	9.6
31-40	26	20.8
41-50	26	20.8
51-60	47	37.6
61 and above	14	11.2
Education		
No formal education	19	15.2
Primary education	41	32.8
Secondary education	24	19.2
Tertiary	41	32.8
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 2: Farmers' Response to encounter with snakes

Response to snake	Frequency	Percentage
To kill	96	76.8
To avoid	29	23.2
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 3: Respondents' Perceived Benefits of snakes

Perceived Benefits	Frequency	Percentage
Consumption/source of protein	81	64.8
Traditional medicine	9	7.2
Pest control	14	11.2
No benefit	21	16.8
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 4: Respondents' Knowledge of how to Prevent Conflict with snakes (snake bite)

Respondents' Knowledge	Frequency	Percentage
Safety boot	53	42.4
Killing of the snake	14	11.2
Fleeing from the snake	32	25.6
Use of anti-snake chemicals	2	1.6
Traditional means	12	9.6
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 5: Incidence of snake bite among respondents

Incident	Frequency	Percentage
Snake bite incident	32	25.6
No snake bite incident	93	74.4
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 6: Farmers' support for Snakes Conservation

Snake Conservation	Frequency	Percentage
Yes to Snake Conservation	32	25.6
No to Snake Conservation	93	74.4
Total	**125**	**100**

Table 7: Association between Incidence of snake bite and Farmers' support for snake conservation

Variable	df	X^2	Pvalue	Decision
Snake bite incidence	1	29.768	0.000	Significant

df=degree of freedom, X^2= Chi square value, Pvalue=probability value

4. Discussion

As indicated in table 1, most of the respondents were of the male gender. This is not farfetched as African men are culturally known to be involved in farming activities more than women which also explain why more men are involved in human-snake conflicts. The spread of the respondents among the religions depicts the two major religions (Islam and Christianity) being practiced in the country, as only a few still hold on to the indigenous traditional religion. The respondents were spread across a wide range of age groups. This implies farming is neither exclusively for the young nor the old, more so, that farming is a traditional practice in Nigeria. Cumulatively, many of the respondents' level of education did not go secondary education. These are rural dwellers, most of which are peasant farmers who do not see the place of formal education in their traditional day to day life.

The influence of traditional indigenous knowledge cannot be downplayed in the assessment of human snake conflicts. As a matter of fact the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization stated categorically that indigenous knowledge forms the basis of decision making about fundamental aspects of day to day life of rural people (UNESCO, 2017). The indigenous knowledge of the farmers played a vital role in how they prevented conflicts with snakes (table 4). The method deployed by the farmers to prevent snake bite apparently proved effective as just a handful of the farmers had one time or the other been bitten by snakes (table 5). The chi-square test further indicated an association between incidence of snake bite and farmers support for snake conservation (table 7).

The application of indigenous knowledge is however not without short comings and limitations. (Nicholas, 2010, Smith and Wobst, 2005). Some of the views held by the farmers could fuel conflicts between man and snakes as majority of the respondents mentioned killing of snakes as their response whenever they sighted snakes on their farms (table 2). Little wonder many of the respondents declined their support for snake conservation. Meanwhile the farmers' purported attempt to kill snake when encountered increases the probability of being bitten by snakes. Attempt to kill snakes aggravates conflicts between man and snakes. A parlance among snake specialists states that: "leave a snake alone and it will leave you alone" (Melle, *et al.*, 2018).

The indigenous knowledge which farmers hold could sometimes be self-limiting, as reflected in how the farmers utilized the snakes (table 3). Apart from killing snakes for consumption and traditional uses, there are other sustainable benefits derivable from snakes unknown to the farmers. Rather than killing snakes and igniting conflicts, other sustainable means of benefiting from snakes include snake farming and snake tourism.

Countries such as Bangkok and China train people including farmers on how to handle and capture live snakes without been harmed. Such snakes constitute the resource base for snake farming and snake tourism in those countries. While the local knowledge held by farmers in the Ogun state, Nigeria limited them to a "one time" use of "kill and consume", elsewhere in other climes, there is a booming business arising from a more viable use of snakes. In a small village of Zisiqiao in China's Zhejiong province, just a few entrepreneurial snake farmers generate up to USD12million per annum from the sale of snakes in their farms to pharmaceutical companies. These countries use different parts of the snakes to produce nutritional supplement that are sold to waiting customers in Japan, South Korea, America and Europe (Marks, 2018).

The narrative can equally change for farmers in Ogun state, Nigeria, if their knowledge base is upgraded through massive informal/ "out of classroom" education. Education empowers and guides an individual to take well informed decision about natural resources thereby reducing conflict of interest or decision borne out of sentiments. It equally

facilitates awareness about peaceful co-existence with other components of the environment (Alam, 2018).

5. Conclusion

Farmers' indigenous knowledge contributed to minimal record of human-snake conflict in Ogun state, Nigeria. On the other hand, the knowledge held by farmers on the perceived value of snake is self-limiting and not sustainable. It could also bring about a spike in human-snake conflict in the study area. It is recommended that a re-orientation of farmers on their attitudes towards snake be facilitated through public enlightenment programmes.

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Predictors of Sexual Attitudes of Senior Secondary School Students in Abeokuta Metropolis, Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study was to identify factors that predict students' sexual attitude. Participants were senior secondary school students (n=144) in Abeokuta metropolis, Ogun State, Nigeria. Using the percentage, t-test, analysis or variance and multiple regression analytical techniques, we found that no significant difference exists between male and female students in their sexual attitude. However, a significant difference was found between students from married parents and students of single parents in their sexual attitude. Results of ANOVA conducted indicated that no significant difference was found in students' sexual attitude across, class, religion, age and residency. Significant positive relationship was observed among permissiveness, birth control, communication, instrumentality and sexual attitude. With, the regression analysis we found that who do you reside with, sex, age, religion, class, and parents' marital status all affect sexual attitude of students. Implications of these findings were discussed.

Keywords: Sexual attitude, Adolescent, Abeokuta, secondary school

1. Background to the Study

Now more than ever, adolescents' sexual attitude has become a major issue in global reproductive health discourse. The last decade has witnessed increase in adolescent's sexual activity at school and out of school. According to United Nation children, education fund (UNICEF) (2019), 1.2 billion adolescents aged 10-19 years constitute 16 per cent of the world's population with 75million i.e. 23 percent in the sub-Saharan Africa. Adolescents, from United Nations perspective, refer to those individuals between the ages of 10 and 19. The adolescent psychologists would describe adolescent tempt to engage in increased risk-taking behaviours such as early unprotected sexual practices, smoking, drugs, alcohol, cybercrime which more often than not result in unplanned teenage pregnancy, sexually transmitted infections including HIV/AIDS, drug abuse, nutritional disorders and sexual exploitation at workplace, especially child labour (Abdullahi & Abdulquadri, 2018; Joshi & Chauhan, 2011; Morris & Rushwan, 2015; Ugoji, 2014).

At the senior secondary school level, most students begin to undergo unusual physical, emotional and psychological changes which make them more intensely aware of their sexuality. This period is often characterized by rapid development in individuals within the age bracket 10-17years. At this period, their sex organs also witness rapid growth and development. It is also in this phase of the development that the desire to have sex sets in, as many of them learn from their peers who are already exposed. Thus, it is a very good stage where sexuality education must be introduced in order to shape their sexual attitude towards positive direction (Arop, Madukwe & Owan, 2019). Physiologically, the changes in reproductive organs that occur at this stage often serve as a motivating force in their quest to experiment with sex. Some naturally explore and take risks in many aspects of their lives, including sexual relationships. As a result, their sexual interest varied significantly depending on the motive behind such interest (Ayoade, Blavo, Farotimi & Nwozichi; Azuike et al., 2015). In general term, sexuality among students in this category is always associated with a lot of risks because they are sexually active; and more importantly, they are likely to make decisions without making a thorough consideration of the consequences or adverse effect (Zalelem, Melkamu & Muluken, 2013).

In the process of passing through the developmental stages as stated above, most adolescent students in senior secondary school were more concerned about changes in their body system as a result of the developmental stages they are passing through. This and many other adolescence tendencies give rise to worries and anxieties among them because they do not know who to confide in. In this regard, and to some

extent, they rely on information they receive from peers, parents and media amongst others which a times could be conflicting and sometime put them into danger if care is not taken and in turn give rise to anxiety and confusion.

A substantial body of research evidence suggests that socio-demographic, economic and cultural factors influence sexual behaviour and activities among adolescents from different part of the world in literature. Finding from Lin, Tung, and Yeh (2019) study which examined the determinants of Taiwanese adolescents' sexual behavior. 521 adolescents were administered with a self-report questionnaire. A lot above the average (53%) had experienced touching, hugging, or kissing, while 15.7% reported sexual behavior. It was found that gender, number of heterosexual relationships were statistically significantly related sexual behaviors. A study conducted by Nagamatsu, Yamawaki, Sato, Nakagawa, and Saito (2012) in Japan examined the factors influencing early adolescents attitudes toward sexual activity. The multiple regression analysis showed that smoking, experience with sex, talking to parents about AIDS, teachers listening to participants' opinion, older dating partners, and friends with sexual experiences were all significant predictors of attitude toward sexual activity.

In South Africa, Amoateng, Kalule-Sabiti and Arkaah (2014) examined individual and contextual factors that affect sexual-risk taking behaviours amongst black African adolescents in a poor community of the North West Province of South Africa. Using the logistic and Poisson regression analytical techniques, the researchers found that individual and contextual factors such as gender, grade, religiosity, peer influence, parental value of children, parent-child communication, school attachment, the use of alcohol and substance like tobacco and marijuana all affect sexual risk behaviours like lifetime sex, recent sexual activity and involvement with multiple sexual partners. While in Nigeria, Ugoji (2014) study investigated the effect of emotional intelligence, self-esteem, religiosity and media on risky sexual behaviour among secondary school students within Asaba metropolis, and reported that there were significant relationships between risky sexual behaviour and emotional intelligence/religiosity. Religiosity was found to be the most potent predictor of the variables of risk sexual behaviour.

Factors such as social, environmental, psychological, psycho-social, individual, use of ICT/social media, sex education, customs, rapid urbanization, family background, peer pressure, economic situation, gender, educational background of parents amongst others have been attributed as factors responsible for positive or negative attitudinal change in sexual attitude and behaviour of senior secondary school students as they are undergoing developmental stages in their life. The extent at which such factors could influence sexual attitude gives a worrisome outcome as some researchers found positive outcome while some other reported negative outcome under the same domain of construct. In Nigeria for example, the rate of sexual activities and pregnancies is at high level to the extent that students of ages 14, 15 or 16 who are supposed to be studying very hard to become important personality in the society are withdrawn from the school due to low level of understanding of reproductive attitudes and behavior that give rise to high risk of pregnancy, infection etc. In adverse, understanding of reproductive attitudes and behavior of young people in this category may aid in the development of educational programmes designed to combat teenage sexual activity and childbearing through sex education and proper orientation.

The impact of such factors on sexual behaviors and attitude of secondary school students have been documented by various researchers both locally and internationally. For instance, Wellings *et al* (2006) and Stephenson (2009) have found out that educational level of household has well as the geographical location of students has a significant role to play in the sexual behaviors among. Similarly, studies by Omoteso (2006), Sadgrov (2007) and Sambisa (2010) revealed that religion affiliation have a significant impact on sexual behavior and attitude among adolescents. Furthermore, Ayoade, Blavo, Farotimi and Nwozich (2015) examined sociodemographic factors as predictors of sexual behavior of secondary school students in Lagos State, Nigeria. The result of the Analysis of variance revealed that gender, age and sociological factors significantly determined sexual behavior of secondary school students in Lagos State.

Lee, Kim and Song (2016) examined the predictors of sexual attitudes of undergraduates by gender. It was gathered that there were significant differently exposure to sexual content in smartphone and sexual attitudes between male students and female students. Similarly, it was revealed through multiple regression analysis that sexual experience, self-understanding, exposure to sexual content in smartphone were significant predictors of sexual attitudes for male students. Also, sexual experience, opinion reflection, exposure to sexual content in smartphone were significant predictors of sexual attitudes in female students,

More so, Lawal (2010) investigated gender, religiosity and self-esteem as predictors of sexual attitudes of students in a Nigerian tertiary institution. Findings of his study revealed that religiosity independently and significantly predicted sexual attitudes. All the predictor variables jointly predicted sexual attitudes. Findings further revealed that there was no gender difference in sexual attitudes of students. Likewise, self-esteem was found not to influence sexual attitudes of students. Grigoropoulos (2012) investigated the personality traits as predictors of sexual attitudes in a sample of Greek University students. From the result of the findings, it revealed that religious fundamentalism and political conservatism were significant predictors of conservative sexual attitudes. Political conservatism was also a significant predictor of earlier sexual experience.

Azuike *et al* (2015) investigated the sexual behaviour of students in senior secondary schools in Nnewi North and South Local Government Areas of Anambra State, South-eastern Nigeria. According to them, majority of the secondary school students reported negative attitude towards sexual behaviours as more than half of them had multiple sex partners and learnt about sex from the media. Findings also revealed that more than 70% of the respondents did not use condom during their first sexual exposure and 83.3% of those who had been pregnant or got someone pregnant terminated the pregnancy. In addition, Sah, Ghimire and Parajuli (2012) find out the level of knowledge and attitude about sexual behaviour among adolescents in various secondary schools of Dhankuta district. The descriptive findings revealed that most of the students believe that safe sex is having sex with single partner. More so, it was also gathered that most of them think that HIV/AIDs can be transmitted from one person to another person from unsafe sexual contact. Most of the students believe that avoiding sex with multiple partners could prevent from getting HIV/AIDs.

Arop, Madukwe, and Owan (2019) investigated adolescents' perception management and attitudes towards sex education in Secondary Schools of Cross River State, Nigeria. Findings from the study revealed that adolescents' counseling and sensitization are significantly related to their attitudes towards sex education respectively and jointly. Findings also revealed that adolescents' counselling and sensitization have a significant composite influence on their attitudes towards sex education, with adolescents' counselling being the highest predictor, followed by adolescents' sensitization

Eze (2014) surveyed the attitudes of adolescents towards premarital sex. It was gathered that adolescents have not less than 20 permissive attitudes towards premarital sex and the views of the adolescents, parents and adults on the adolescents' attitude towards premarital sex do not differ significantly. Laddunuri (2013) investigated the patterns and trends of adolescent students' sexual behaviour in Tanzania. Findings indicated that the main reasons beyond sexual debut were "just for fun" and "peer pressure". It was also gathered that parental education was the most significant association with sexual debut of adolescents and the odds ratio indicates that sexual intercourse among students is decreasing with the increasing of parental education.

Moreover, Ugoji (2014) investigated the determinant of risk sexual behaviour among secondary school students from 10 secondary schools within Asaba metropolis. The result indicated that the relationships among risky sexual behaviour and the independent variables were significant; however, the relationships between risky sexual behaviour and emotional intelligence/religiosity were negatively significant.

Adolescents constitute about 23% of Nigeria estimated 200million population. About 28% of adolescent in Nigeria are said to be sexually active. The available literature on sexual attitudes largely focuses on risky sexual behaviour of adolescents, sexual knowledge and attitudes to HIV/AIDS. Most of these studies have been focused majorly on students at the tertiary level as a result of their attributes and some level of maturity and exposure; leaving out the young adolescent at the senior secondary school level who happen to be between ages 10-17 years. This are categories of people that are at the edge of undergoing sexual transformation most often and if cares are taken, they are liable to be misled and they could be at the risk of psychological well-being that can hamper them in many ways such as been at the high risk of sexual transmitted infection (HIV/AIDs, Staphylococcus), unwanted/unplanned pregnancy, having more than one partner at a time, dropout and other immoral behaviours (Ersin & Bahar 2009; Papaharitou, Nakopoulou, Hatzichristou & Moraitou, 2011; Pettifor, DerStrate, Dunbar, Shibosky & Padian, 2004). Ayoade, *et.al* (2015) stressed that secondary school students are exposed to risky sexual behaviors that put them at certain risk of negative consequence.

There are not many studies on sexual attitudes of adolescents in urban metropolis given the accessibility to sexual materials, there is tendencies of involving in sexual activities. This study aimed at describing the sexual attitudes of adolescents and

identify the influence of gender, age class, religion, parent status, and residency on sexual attitude. Specifically, the following questions were raised to guide the study:

- What is the sexual attitude of senior secondary school students in Abeokuta Metropolis, Ogun State?
- Is there any difference in sexual attitudes and its sub-scales across sex, age, residency, religion, class, and parents' marital status?
- What is the relationship between permissiveness, birth control, instrumentality, communication and sexual attitude?
- What is the joint and relative contribution of each independent variables (Sex, age, who residency, religion, class, and parents' marital status on sexual attitudes?

2. Research Methodology

The design of the study was descriptive. The target population were senior secondary school students in Abeokuta Metropolis. A total of two hundred senior secondary school students were randomly selected from five schools in the metropolis participated in the study. In each school an average 30 students were selected across the three senior classes (i.e. SS I, II, III). However only 144 of the questionnaires were properly completed and were used for the analysis.

3. Findings and Discussion

Table 1: Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents:

	F	%
Sex		
Male	89	61.8
Female	55	38.2
Total	144	100
Age		
10-15 years	56	38.9
16-20 years	73	50.7
Above 21 years	15	10.4
Total	144	100
Religion		
Christianity	80	55.6
Islam	52	36.1
Traditional	12	8.3
Total	144	100
Class		
SS I	47	32.6
SS II	49	34
SS III	48	33.3
Total	144	100
Parent marital status		
Married	100	69.4
Single	44	30.6

The instrument used for this survey was a 23-closed-ended items questionnaire adapted from the brief sexual attitude scale developed by Henddrick, and Hendrick (2006). The questionnaires were administered with assistance of a secondary school teachers who served as research assistants. Each assistant administered and collected the questionnaires in the selected local government areas comprising Abeokuta metropolis. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) of research instrument was measured as 0.82. The questionnaires were administered to the students in their different schools after permission have been sought from the management.

The descriptive and inferential statistics t-test, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), pearson product moment correlation, and multiple regression were used to determine difference between some independent variables and the dependent variable- sexual attitudes. Multiple regression was used to predict the relationship between some independent variables and the dependent variables. To score the completed questionnaire, the responses "strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree were assigned 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Thus, the maximum score on each item was 4. Means and standard deviations of subset scores and of the entire variable were computed to determine the nature of sexual attitude.

Majority of 50.7% of the students were within the age of 10-15years. 61.8 percent were male, their female counterparts constitutes 38.2 percent. The majority (55.6%) of the respondents were Christians, 36.1% were Muslim and 8.6% are traditionalist. All classes were equally represented, Thirty-four percent (34.0%) of the respondents were in SS II, 33.3% in SS III and 33.6% were in SS I. Almost seventy per cent of the respondents' parents were married while 30.6% were single parent (Table 1).

Fig.1 displayed the students' response to the question on place of residence.

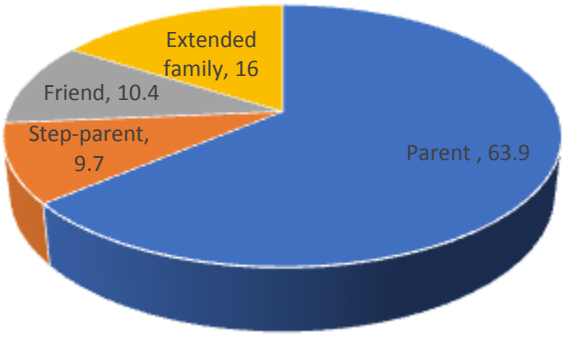

Fig.1: Who do you stay with?

From the fig 1, it can be observed that almost two-third (63.9%) live with their parent, while (9.7%) step-parents, (10.4%) with friends and (16.0%) of the students claimed to live with extended family.

Table 2: Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of scores on the dimensions and sexual attitude

		Permissiveness	Birth control	Communication	Instrumentality	Sexual Attitude
Statistic	N	144	144	144	144	144
	Minimum	11.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	30.00
	Maximum	38.00	11.00	18.00	16.00	80.00
	Mean	22.708	6.729	12.069	11.007	52.514
	Std. Dev.	5.209	1.937	2.793	2.582	10.033
	Skewness	.346	-.365	-.367	-.075	-.036
	Kurtosis	-.155	-.545	-.613	-.993	-.514
Std. Error	Skewness	.202	.202	.202	.202	.202
	Kurtosis	.401	.401	.401	.401	.401

The results in Table 2 indicated that participants have low permissiveness ($\bar{x}$ = 22.708 ± 5.209). However, they are high on birth control ($\bar{x}$ = 6.729 ± 1.937), communication ($\bar{x}$ = 12.069 ± 2.793), instrumentality ($\bar{x}$ = 11.007 ± 2.582) and general attitude ($\bar{x}$ = 52.514 ± 10.033).

Research Question One: Is there any difference in sexual attitudes and its sub-scales across sex, age, residency, religion, class, and parents' marital status?

Results in Table 3 showed that no significance differences existed for permissiveness, birth control, communication, instrumentality and general attitude by gender, parents' marital status, class and where residing. However, while no significance differences existed for permissiveness and birth control by age, significant differences were observed for communication, instrumentality and general attitude. This finding is in line with previous results of Eze (2014) that adolescents' attitude towards premarital sex do not differ significantly. However, it negative Lee, Kim and Song (2016) finding that there were significant different in sexual attitudes between male students and female students.

Table 3: Differences in permissiveness, birth control, communication, instrumentality and general attitude by gender, parents' marital status, age, class and where residing

	Permissiveness		Birth control		Communication		Instrumentality		Attitude	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Sex										
Male (n = 89)	22.393	5.282	6.663	1.936	12.124	2.490	11.124	2.558	52.303	9.8294
Female (n = 55)	23.218	5.094	6.836	1.951	11.982	3.246	10.818	2.632	52.855	10.438
Statistics	$t(142) = -.923^{s}$		$t(142) = -.521^{ns}$		$t(142) = .295^{ns}$		$t(142) = .689^{ns}$		$t(142) = -.319^{ns}$	
Parents' Marital Status										
Married (n = 100)	22.650	5.336	6.530	1.909	12.120	2.882	10.910	2.644	52.210	10.063
Single (n = 44)	22.841	4.965	7.182	1.944	11.955	2.605	11.227	2.448	53.205	10.045
Statistics	$t(142) = -.202^{ns}$		$t(142) = -1.877^{ns}$		$t(142) = .326^{ns}$		$t(142) = -.678^{ns}$		$t(142) = -.547^{s}$	
Age										
10-15yrs (n= 56)	22.196	4.878	6.804	2.169	11.339	2.651	10.250	2.524	50.589	9.823
16-20yrs (n= 73)	22.795	5.434	6.589	1.770	12.247	2.813	11.301	2.442	52.932	10.045
21yrs above (n= 15)	24.200	5.321	7.133	1.846	13.933	2.314	12.400	2.746	57.667	9.271
Statistics	$F(2,141) = .894^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .555^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .761^{**}$		$F(2,141) = 5.376^{**}$		$F(2,141) = 3.165^{*}$	
Class										
SSI (n = 47)	22.553	4.169	6.745	1.787	12.085	2.292	10.511	2.302	51.894	7.648
SSII (n = 49)	22.429	5.248	6.490	2.042	12.041	3.304	11.061	2.794	52.020	10.812
SSIII (n = 48)	23.1458	6.09146	6.9583	1.978	12.083	2.728	11.438	2.584	53.625	11.302
Statistics	$F(2,141) = .258^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .709^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .004^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = 1.559^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .440^{ns}$	
Where Residing										
Parents (n = 92)	23.196	5.307	6.620	1.960	12.141	2.823	10.913	2.716	52.870	10.112
Step-parent (n = 14)	22.000	5.670	6.857	1.562	12.071	2.336	11.286	2.268	52.214	10.599
Friend (n = 15)	22.667	4.981	6.933	2.187	11.667	3.109	11.333	2.582	52.600	10.848
Extended family (n =23)	21.217	4.631	6.957	1.965	12.044	2.868	11.000	2.316	51.217	9.366
Statistics	$F(2,141) = .983^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .276^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .123^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .172^{ns}$		$F(2,141) = .168^{ns}$	

$^{ns}p > .05$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .0$

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between permissiveness, birth control, instrumentality, communication and sexual attitude?

Table 4: Correlation matrix of the bivariate relationships among dimensions of, and overall scores of study variable

	Permissiveness	Birth control	Communication	Instrumentality	Sexual Attitude
Permissiveness	1	.249**	.620**	.655**	.908**
Birth control	.249**	1	.204*	.184*	.426**
Communication	.620**	.204*	1	.735**	.829**
Instrumentality	.655**	.184*	.735**	1	.838**
Sexual Attitude	.908**	.426**	.829**	.838**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results in Table 4 revealed that there is significant relationship between permissiveness, birth control, communication, instrumentality and sexual attitude. Dimensions of sexual attitude are variously significantly positively related.

Research Question 4: What is the joint and relative contribution of each independent variables (Sex, age, residency, religion, class, and parents' marital status on sexual attitudes? Table 4 shows that the joint effect of independent variables (Sex, age, residency, religion, class, and parents marital status) on sexual attitudes was not significant ($F(6,137) = 1.388$; $R = 0. .239$, $R^2 = .057$; $p > 0.05$). About 57% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables. Thus, the six variables are good predictors of sexual attitude.

Table 4: Summary of regression analysis among independent variables and sexual attitudes

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	45.020	4.568		9.855	.000
Age	3.549	1.455	.228	2.439	.016
Sex	.441	1.752	.021	.252	.802
Religion	-.615	1.343	-.040	-.458	.647
Class	-.173	1.133	-.014	-.153	.879
Parents marital status	2.876	2.135	.133	1.347	.180
Residency	-.937	.836	-.108	-1.120	.265

($F(6,137) = 1.388$; $R = 0. .239$, $R^2 = .057$; $p > 0.05$)

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude

b. Predictors: (Constant), Residency, sex, age, religion, Class, parents' marital status

Furthermore, the results in Table 4 show the relative contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent variables. With regard to the most potent contribution, the results indicate that who the students reside with is the variable that best predict students' sexual attitude. Findings are consistent with existing literature. There is a strong relationship between religiosity and adolescent sexual attitudes and behaviour, although religious commitment is more important than religious affiliation in affecting adolescent sexual attitudes and behaviours. Rathus *et al* (2013) studied adolescents in 32 countries, and showed that sexual behavior was influenced by sociocultural, ethnic, gender, and racial differences.

4. Conclusion and Implications

In this study attention has been drawn to factors that might assist in predicting adolescent sexual attitudes in Ogun State metropolis. With regards to the difference in sexual attitude across socio-demographic characteristics of the students, the study has shown that the students from married parents possessed better sexual attitude than students of single parent. This is a pointer to the importance of parent-child relationship, in promoting sexually responsible behaviours in the adolescents.

The findings of this study have important implications for social studies educators who teach human sexuality and family life. In contemporary world with access to internet adolescents' sexual attitudes deserved close attention.

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Education in a Democratic Society: A Methodological Classic for Teachers and Students

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Abstract. It is obvious that education thrives in an environment of freedom, which is democracy. Unfortunately, teachers sometime seem to treat students as passive recipients of knowledge. This trend makes students dummy learners, instead of making them construct their knowledge in interaction with the environment by reorganizing their mental structures. In that idyll, this paper, Education in a Democratic Society: A Methodological Classic for Teachers and Students is an apologia on the thrills of education in a democratic society. It encourages appropriate teaching methodology in a teaching/learning process. Understanding that holistic education undergoes the processes of policy enactment/implementation, administration, teaching and learning, with a constructivist mien, this paper x-rays the educational roles of teachers and students in a democratic society. Using constructive learning methodology, this paper emphasizes knowledge construction instead of knowledge acquisition.

Keywords: Education, Democratic, Teachers, Students, Society

1. Introduction

The key to understanding every discipline of learning be it simple or complex begins with grasping or apprehending the concept. Once that is achieved, every other thing becomes easier. Let's begin this discussion by appreciating the idea and defining the concept, education. From an etymological point of view, the word education originated from the three Latin words, educere, educare and educatum (E+duco).

Dhaker Rahul (2016) & Bhatt Dilip (2017) give the following useful explanations: Educere: means to draw out, to lead forth. This talks about the ability of the teacher to provoke the innate ability of the individual and stretch the scope of his development. Every student has great potentials that must be spotted and developed through education.
Educare: to bring up, to nourish, mold. This presents the job of a teacher like that of a gardener. His duty is to nourish the educational life of the child like young plant in the garden or seedlings on a seedbed. His potentials are to be developed with adequate care and nourishment.
Educatum: (from two stems: 'E' - implying driving from inward to outward and 'Duco', meaning progressing or developing). This gives a great responsibility to the teacher to stare the inborn potentials of the student to be full-blown. To some scholars, the Latin educatum refers to the act of training or teaching (Dhaker Rahul, 2016). According to Bhatt Dilip (2017), educatum refers to something extrinsic, in form of instructions, experience and activities that mold the student's ability. Autodidactic learning also falls into this dimension of education.

Recapping the whole idyll, Bhatt (2017) has this to say:
From the above derivative meaning, it is revealed that education is needed for a progressive society and targeted to bring overall prosperity to the individual by unfolding his potentials

A quarrel ensued between two women because one castigated the other, "uneducated bush woman". After the tiff, the offended woman was asked why she called her friend, "uneducated bush woman". That is the best derogation for one who has not being to school. Unfortunately, this is the view folks have about the concept of education. To a layperson, education is the acquisition of skills in reading and writing from a school. He or she doesn't understand that that is one of the major ways of acquiring

education. This happens because he or she does not adequately grasp the meaning of education.

From a traditional view point, other avenues of education include the home, church or mosque (religious places), the community and mass media. School (classroom) is just one of the agencies that offer formal education. Classroom education is a formal means of education because it engages scientific methodology, techniques, principles, material and trained personnel. But that doesn't nullify the fact that education also takes place in an informal manner. In the verbiage of Njoku (2007), "the first form of education takes place chiefly in an informal way in the home and in the society among family members, peers, parents…" (p.2). In that idyll, a child starts learning outside the school.

In view of the foregoing, Udo-Ema (1978) opines that one is literate and partly educated when he can read and write. He made his point clear by explaining that literacy is only a part of education. In his view, a house wife who has not gone through the four walls of a classroom, but is a good home keeper, who takes proper care of her husband, children and cook good meals is an educated illiterate woman. On this note, it is crystal clear that education is a process of change and development of the mind that affects man in his tripartite nature (spirit, soul and body). Thus, as a discipline of study, the following definitions are offered:

- The process of receiving or giving systematic instruction especially at a school or university.
- The theory and practice of teaching.
- A body of knowledge acquired while being educated.
- Information about or training in a particular field or subject.
- An enlightening experience (lexico.com, 2020).

2. Aims/Objectives of Education

In defining education (Pai Obanya: 2019) said that "the aim refers to the reason for educating people and making education work". The ideal aim of education is the development of man in his entirety (spirit, soul and body), in relation with the society vis-à-vis his environment. In another vein Iwuoha (2008), posits that "education is for the development of human abilities, capabilities, attitude and other forms of values" (p.11). In the light of the above definition of education by Iwuoha, the purpose of education could be rightfully divided into two purposes: Personal and National. The overriding purpose of education for an individual is to make him useful to him and the society.

2.1 National Purpose for Education

Iwuoha (2008) maintained that education is the industrial agency of nation building and went further to highlight five purposes of education which include:

- To build a free and democratic society
- To build a just and egalitarian society
- To build a united front and a self-reliance nation
- To build a great and dynamic economy
- To build a country with full opportunities for all citizens

2.2 Teaching

In the verbiage of the Grand Sage of Education in Africa, Obonya (1980):
"Teaching has to do with enlightening, elaborating, encouraging, enthusing, explaining, edifying, educating, inspiring, instructing, imparting, indoctrinating, transforming, training, inculcating and transmitting ideas, information, virtue, values, skills and knowledge…"(p.1).

What this means is that teaching is a human phenomenon that seeks to bring out the potentials the creator deposited in His creation especially man (human beings), which is usually aimed at making society a good place to live for the benefit of all. This work has to be done by the teacher who may be formal or informal.

2.3 Qualifications of an Effective Teacher

It must be clearly understood first and foremost that teaching involves more than mere dissemination of information, values or ideas. Allusive of the fact that teaching is like raising a garden, it calls for preparation, proper sowing, tendering and growth. In view of that, Opinmi (2007) lists the following qualities: Personal Interest, Love for children (students/learners), Discipline, Knowledge, Personal Motivation, Innovation/Creativity, Leadership Quality, Commitment, Diligence, and Honesty/Trustworthiness.

2.3.1 Personal Interest

Effective teaching begins with personal interest of the teacher in the profession. This interest must be developed and kept aflame. It is quite unfortunate that teaching profession is bedeviled and lily-livered

by the artifice of considering it a means of solace and livelihood while waiting for a better job. Personal interest is the ember that makes teaching efficient and result-oriented.

2.3.2 Love for Children (Students/Learners)

An effective teacher must love his students. This love is interpreted by his interest in their success. True love makes the teacher come down to the level of his students and interact with them. Any person who calls himself a teacher, who detests his students, end up being annoyed quarrelsome in the classroom. Such a person is an instructor, not an educator.

2.3.3 Discipline

Discipline is an essential virtue in teaching, especially in the classroom. A disciplined teacher maintains self-discipline and over-priced quality that underpin excellent educational delivery at all time.

2.3.4 Knowledge

It is quite essential for a teacher to be knowledgeable in two dimensions, in order to be effective. He must first and foremost possess general sound knowledge that will make him grounded in the professional know-how, about the subject he is called upon to handle in the classroom. In that wise, it is also paramount for a teacher to have a deep knowledge of the learner. This cannot be achieved except he interacts with the students, attend to their curiosity and endless questions.

2.3.5 Personal or Self-Motivation

By personal motivation, we are referring to motivation that does not dependent on external factors. It is expedient to note that a teacher does not operate in a vacuum. He is prone to emotional, psychological, environmental, economic, sociological factors that are liable to reduce his zest. Therefore, personal motivation is key to effective teaching and must be developed by the teacher.

The imperative of personal motivation and its effect on teaching-learning process in all areas of human endeavor made Ackerman (2019) to consider it as the superlative form of motivation. In buttressing the impact of personal motivation, two situations are here considered:

- This has to do with a teacher who is neither passionate nor excited about his job, but he knows it is necessary for him to do it. Now this sense of obligation makes him do his best to completing the task.
- The other is a situation where the teacher is passionate and excited, even to the point of volunteering his expertise and happily puts in his best to completing the task.

In which of these scenarios do you think a teacher will be most effective, with a sense of fulfillment? Of course, it is situation number 2. What do you think is the difference between these teachers? We can answer this question in just two words – obligation and interest.

The difference is very clear. The teacher in scenario one above is self-motivated. But that of scenario two is motivated based on extrinsic factors, hence Ackerman (2019) says: "It likely won't come as a surprise that doing something for its own sake and your own purposes is likely to be more fulfilling, enjoyable and successful than doing something to meet external standards or to please others".

Though, personal motivation could also be driven by extrinsic factors, it is generally driven by intrinsic factors. Hence, Daniel Goleman portrays four components of personal motivation: Improvement/achievement drive, commitment (to goal) drive, initiative ('readiness to act on opportunities') drive and optimism/resilience drive (Oral Career Editorial Team, 2016).

The question now is, how could we develop the skill set for personal motivation? Ackerman (2019) proffers the solutions:

Skill set for Cultivating Self-motivation

- Setting SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Timely) goal.
- Taking right risk
- Getting feedback to figure out areas where improvement necessary
- Commitment to personal/organization goals with a drive to go extra mile achieving them.
- Consciously searching out opportunities and taking hold of them when they arrive.
- Being resilient.

Skill set for maintaining Self-Motivation:

- Developing love for continuous learning
- Spend good time with supportive, enthusiastic and motivated people
- Develop a positive mindset, enhance your optimism and resilience

- Spot out your strength and weaknesses and thrive
- Proper time management and avoidance of procrastination
- Get help and render help when/where necessary.

Teacher's Role in Student's Motivation:

- Create for students an environment of freedom, self-rule and right to good choice making. For instance, seating pattern (arrangement), final project options and implementation of problem-solving learning, are ways through which teachers could motivate students.
- Give reasonable feedback and encourage hard work.
- Create a healthy relationship, driven by genuine interest with your students with end goal of learning in focus.
- Inspire your students to think, discuss and write about how the course is relevant to their personal lives.

Student's Role in Self-motivation

- Ascribe importance to your studies, taking responsibility for acquiring knowledge and learning.
- Set your goal and make plans towards achieving it with a roadmap of what to do each semester, month, week and day. Such routine is critical to personal motivation.
- Spot out comfortable learning environments
- Sleep enough eats good food and exercise regularly to remain healthy.
- Tame time monsters like the internet, video games or unproductive time spent with friend.

2.3.6 Creativity

Teaching as a profession is better enriched by creativity and resourcefulness. Creativity brings about competence in the classroom. And competence is the ability to manage every circumstance that may arise in the class.

The story of Timothy Nna, a children education expert is a good lesson for teachers and intending teachers:

On arrival to take over his job at AG 43 Gokana, Street, Bori, the whole children were crying for the outgoing children educator. The weeping became so serious that he could not address them. All they were crying for was the retention of the outgoing man. Timothy didn't know what to do. But out of creativity, he started crying with them. He cried for the abrupt transfer of his predecessor, in regression of the pains the children got as a result. His weeping so caught the attention of the children that they stopped crying and was watching him. In order to help the situation, they approached him, pleading he should stop crying. "No, let's not stop crying, this is a very bad situation", he said. "Sir, we will not cry again, you stop crying too", the children demanded.

What do you make of the above scenario? Timothy was at the verge of losing his job, but for his creativity that made the children feel his empathy. They saw him not as one who has come to replace their educator, who was more like a father rather, as one who has come to identify with their predicament, even to the point of crying when they cry. With this, he gained entrance into the heart of the children. At last, he became a role model to them. Thus, creativity is important to professional teaching.

2.3.7 Leadership Traits

The leadership approach of a teacher is portraiture of his effectiveness in class. A good teacher is bound to be a good leader. The congruence between good leadership effective teachings is inseparable. Good leadership makes the teacher give listening ears to the opinions of the students.

2.3.8 Commitment

Determination, dedication and devotion are importance factors in effective teaching. Opinmi (2007) calls it the 3D's that are essential to commitment and effective teaching. The above 3Ds makes the job of a teacher valuable in the classroom. These 3D's make him resourceful to the students' and the organization.

2.3.9 Diligence

By diligence, we mean persistence and carefulness that make teacher do the needful. Diligence in teaching calls for total commitment to the educational ideals of teaching/learning.

2.3.10 Honesty/Trustworthiness

Opinmi (2007) says that "the straightest, surest path to respect and confidence and success is through honesty and truthfulness, and the straightest, shortest path to failure and disrepute is through falsehood".

Honesty and trustworthiness attract students' respect, resulting in love, cooperation and compliance in the classroom.

Although the above qualities and characteristics of an effective teacher is not exhaustive, they are imperative effective teaching/learning in all ramification.

3. Methodology of Teaching

There are a pantheon of methods and techniques, adopted in the past which areat the disposal of the teachers to enrich his lesson. However, Opinmi (2007, 5) avers that any method of instruction considered appropriate by the teacher should go in line with an ancient Chinese proverb, which says:
What I hear, I forget
What I see, I remember
What I do, I understand

In other words, whatever method of instruction deemed necessary by the teacher, emphasis should be made in a way the lesson would be practicalized rather than theorized. Any teaching method that engages the students to practicalize the lesson helps them see, think, do, say and hear. It is obvious that the path to successful teaching is not a one-way traffic. However, it is expedient teachers choose the right instructional method(s) otherwise, the best curriculum and the most excellent syllabus becomes more or less academic death sentences are so many teaching methods.

However, for the sake of time and space, we shall in line with Opinmi (2007) group them into ten:

Presentation Method: This has to do with delivering educational instruction and information through oral communication. This method happens through several forms, e.g. Prepared Speech, Lecture Method, Story Telling Method, and Use of Resource Person.
Discussion Method: This is an interactive procedure of learning. This teaching method enhances team work and gives privilege to student to share their experience and ideas. This can be done through brainstorming, debates, symposium, devil's advocate, etc.
Inquiry Method: In debate method of teaching, students are given topics to propose or oppose. In other words, they are asked to debate for or against a topic of interest. The aim of this is to make student bold, without intimidation, advancing his point in public.
Grouping Method: This method has to do with dividing the class into groups, with a leader to coordinate each group deliver the assignment within a certain time frame.
Expository Method: The teacher demonstrates his expertise by dissecting the concept to the understanding of the students.
Inductive Method: This method is good for mathematics class. It uses a particular situation or circumstance as a base to formulate general rules or formulae.
Deductive Method: This method is antonymous to inductive method. It involves using already-made formula to solve problem.
Laboratory Method: The teacher creates laboratory or study room with relevant instructional materials for varying disciplines like Fine Art, Mathematics, and Home Economics etc for students. The availability of these materials stares and prepares them for independent research and learning.
Socratic or Questioning Method: At this level, the teacher prepares relevant questions that will boost the understanding of students in the lesson. Distributing these questions to students for answer is the best way to tackle the problem of sleeping in class.
Activity Method: This has to do with teaching/learning activities, sub-divided into 7 more methods. They are: Dramatization Method, Rhymes and Poems, Construction Method, Role-Playing Method, Music and Song Method, Games and Corners

4. Education and Democracy

The fact that intimate relationship exists between education and democracy is very obvious. In a democratic society, education is given priority. This is true because in the absence of education, democracy suffers stillbirth. Democratic values such as fellow-felineness, dignity of individual, equality, fraternity justice, liberty, cooperation, unity and peace, etc are given credence in education, in order to be more effective and useful. For democracy to be understood as a way of life, it must be fused into the educational system from the very beginning and practiced in institutions of learning.

In the verbiage of Bawa Bhawna (2019), democracy, "is an order in which every individual gets limitless opportunities to blossom according to his/her potentialities and in which power and responsibilities are shared on a mutual basis without any confrontation and conflict" (p.11).

4.1 Studying outside Box

Giving that the stamina of democracy depends deeply upon the intelligence and character of the people and

that democracy gives every individual egalitarian opportunities, it is imperative students understand how to study without being boxed by a particular discipline and/or University. It is disheartening that students study to pass examinations without "…learning for graduation and profession" (Odon Akanimo 2019, 74).

How does studying outside the box work? It must be understood ab initio that "studying outside the box" is allusive of the fact that educational prowess is a function of creativity, and for creativity to thrive, captivity must perish. The box in this case is the sway of the society to hold you bound to follow the crowd. Teachers and students must make conscious effort to get out the mess of conventional academic life, in such a way that will make them resourceful in the labor market. How do we achieve that? It is simple. Turn your course content into a career context.

4.2 Turning Course Content into Career Context

We are not ignorant of the fact that University system around Africa is set up in a way that students are restricted, so to say, from courses outside their disciplines, through which they could navigate to desired career destination. However, there is no legal or legislative provision that authenticates the status quo, which bar students from being creative and get out of the box. Therefore, if you want to be an outstanding graduate, who will sell in the labor market, it is imperative you study outside the cocoon of your actual course of study. That is how education is practiced in the UK. You can also take some online courses outside your area of study, that will be strategic to your career dream. It makes university graduates, universal professionals (career experts) (Odon Akanimo 2019, 74-82).

5. Conclusion

This work 'education in a democratic society: A methodological classic for teachers and students' tried to x-ray the involvement of teaching and learning in a free (democratic) society such as ours. Education is the panacea for development generally (mental and otherwise) of any given society. Educate the mind, and there will be fewer problems in the society.

It therefore becomes imperative that teachers understand that their duty is to spot, draw out and nourish. They are called to mold and train students to be useful to themselves and the nation at large. Such assignment could only be delivered in an atmosphere where democratic values (like fellow-felineness, unity, dignity of individual, etc) are esteemed. Since education is a teaching/learning process, the role of the student is to construct the knowledge acquired in order to address environmental realities. The quality of the students produced speaks volumes about the quality and caliber of the teachers.

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Boarder-Focus-Challenges of School Feeding Service in Edo State: Implications for School Health Education

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Abstract. It is the responsibility of school authorities that have boarding system to promote the health and avoid malnutrition of their learners through adequate school feeding service. It is a common reality that some boarding schools hardly meet these standards. The study, therefore, assessed the challenges of school feeding services in Edo State by determining boarders' level of preference of school food, among other variables. Five research questions and one hypothesis were assessed by the study. The study was descriptive and from a population of 1755 secondary school boarders, 317 of them were randomly selected as sample for the study. A validated self-structured Challenge of School Feeding Service (Boarders) Questionnaire (CSFSQ) with a reliability coefficient of 0.73 was used to collect data from the respondents. Results showed that private and public secondary school boarders have low preference for school meals because food is improperly cooked and not tasty, does not contain all classes of food, is sometimes served late and kitchen store/dining hall is not always clean, the quantity of food is poor, cooks sometimes do not wear aprons or headgears and their fingers or skin are unkempt. It was recommended, based on findings that food handling guidelines covering personal cleanliness, preparation, storage and serving of meals be provided to each food vendor while equally displaying same in the central kitchen.

Keywords: boarder; challenges; school; feeding; service; school; health; education

1. Introduction

One way of promoting health and overcoming malnourishment among leaners is through school feeding service. Therefore, schools can offer these interventions by promoting overall physiological, psychosocial, and socioeconomic developments of pupils and students through advancing healthy eating and adequate nutrient intake in school feeding service among them. In schools, occupies a unique position of procuring and providing varieties of foods and beverages can be procured and provided to learners.

Edo State government has obviously not been able to deliver feeding service in all primary and secondary school systems in the State. Little efforts have been advanced by the government in few of her-owned secondary schools. In the schools, school fees covering feeding and other education costs are paid by parents/guardians for their children or wards while the government subsidies these costs.

By way of regulating what school-aged children and adolescents eat in Nigeria the Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee (2010) recommended dietary guidelines for them. For school-aged children (6-11 years) and adolescents (12-18 years) a rich, adequate meal containing in a variety of foods and energy diets, good quality snacks and fruits including citrus should be consumed (Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee, 2010). The committee added that less consumption of sugary snacks, and animal foods should be encouraged; efforts should be made not to replace pastry/carbonated drinks with main meals and females should eat meat, poultry, fish, cereals, legumes for iron. These guidelines are one pointer to an effective school feeding service. Yet, many school learners including boarders tend to experience hunger, energy imbalance, low BMI, lice on heads, skin rashes, poor visual and hearing acuity, lip and tongue sores, lung esophageal, stomach colorectal, weight gain, weight loss, dental caries, and obesity which could probably be due to reduced and/or increased food intake, and poor dietary quality.

Furthermore, some boarders are undernourished with signs of looking pale, attend class less frequently or even find themselves at home or in sick bays. As a result of these, cognitive development and school performance decline. Out of hunger some boarders sneak to purchase beverages and snacks which they conceal in their corners. Though, hunger is relative, it is well known that chronic hunger is deadly as it is one of the causes of morbidity and mortality among school learners. Evidence have captured the nutritional status of boarding and non-boarding children in selected schools in Accra Metropolis, nutritional status of in-school adolescents in Ekiti State, and the evaluation of food safety in boarding schools in Zaria (Oranusi, Galadima, Umoh & Nwanze, 2007), but little or none is known about the challenges of school feeding service among boarders in Edo State, Nigeria. Such effort will recommend efficient health and nutrition-related school policies that would mitigate the elapses in school feeding operation in Edo State. Such results could be used as strategies of intervention by caretakers, school authorities and the government to monitor and correct elapses in school feeding service. It is therefore, a necessary priority to assess the challenges of existing feeding service among boarders in selected secondary schools in Edo State.

2. Research Questions

- What is the level of preference of school meals by private and public boarders in Edo State?
- What challenges do private and public school boarders, who do not prefer school meals, face with the feeding service of their school in Edo State?
- What is the level of challenges faced by boarders who pay higher and lower amount of fees each term?
- Is the amount of fees paid per term related to the level of challenges faced by the boarders?
- What other challenges do the boarders face with school feeding service?

3. Hypotheses

The amount of fees paid each term is not significantly related to the levels of challenges faced by the boarders.

4. Research Methodology

The quantitative technique of non-experimental descriptive survey was used to collect numerical data for answering the research questions and testing stated hypotheses on the challenges of school feeding service in selected boarding secondary schools in Edo State. The one thousand seven hundred and fifty five (1755) boarders in one public and one private boarding secondary schools during the 2017/2018 academic session in Edo State constituted the population of the study (Offices of the Principal, 2018). A sample size of three hundred and seventeen (317) boarders was randomly selected through balloting with replacement across all classes in the schools. The sample size is appropriate owing to Krejcie and Morgan's position that a population of 1800 can use a sample of 317 (Kenya Projects Organization, 2016). The population 1755 of the study is appropriate as it was approximated to 1800 and hence the 317 respondents.

The Challenge of School Feeding Service (Boarders) Questionnaire (CSFSQ), designed by the researchers, was used to collect data. The questionnaire had two sections. The Section A assessed the bio data of the respondents such as their 'ownership of school', and 'amount of fees paid per term'. The Section B had 'yes' and 'no' response option, identification of challenges from a list and stating other challenges not specified in the list. Finally, the test retest method was used to check the reliability internal of the CSFSQ and a reliability coefficient (r) value of 0.73 was obtained and this was considered high enough for the study.

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts and percentages. Inferential statistic of chi-square was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance.

For the 'level of preference', scoring was done assigning '1' to 'yes' and '0' to 'no'. Percentages $< 50\%$ was qualified as 'high level of preference' while $\geq 50\%$ was classified as 'low level of preference'. For the 'level of challenges', scoring was done by assigning '1' to 'low', '2' to 'moderate' and '3' to 'severe' for respondents that identified one or two, three or four and at least five challenges respectively. For other faced by the boarders, $< 26\%$, (26-50)% and $> 50\%$ were remarked as minor, mild and major problems respectively.

5. Results

Table 1: Level of preference of school meals by private and public boarders in Edo State

School ownership	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Level of preference
Private	12 (7.69)	144 (*92.31)	156 (100)	Low
Public	14 (8.70)	147 (*91.30)	161 (100)	Low
Total	**26 (8.20)**	**291 (*91.80)**	**317 (100)**	**Low**

Key: *percentage of decision

Data in Table 1 show the level of preference of school meals by private and public boarders in Edo State. Precisely, 92.31% of the private boarders indicated that if they had a choice, they would not eat school meals. Similarly, 91.30% of the public boarders noted that if they had a choice, they would not prefer school meals. With an overall 91.80%, private and public boarders have low level of preference of school meals in Edo State.

Table 2: Challenges/Reasons for not eating school meals by private and public boarders in Edo State

	Private	Public	
Challenge (N per item)	**Freq. (%)**	**Freq. (%)**	**Total (%)**
Food, sometimes not tasty	122 (41.9)	169 (*58.1)	291 (100)
Food, sometimes not properly cooked	221 (*75.9)	70 (24.1)	291 (100)
Fingers/skin of cooks unkempt	96 (33.0)	195 (*67.0)	291 (100)
Cooks, sometimes do not wear aprons/headgears	55 (18.9)	236 (*81.1)	291 (100)
Meal, not containing all classes of food	225 (*77.3)	66 (22.7)	291 (100)
Food, sometimes served late	203 (*69.8)	88 (30.2)	291 (100)
Quantity of food, poor	141 (48.5)	150 (*51.5)	291 (100)
Kitchen store/dining hall, not always clean	146 (*50.2)	145 (49.8)	291 (100)
Others	160 (*55.0)	131 (45.0)	291 (100)

Key: *percentage of decision

Table 2 reflects data of the challenges/reasons why private and public boarders, who do not prefer eating school meals, detest not eating school meals in Edo State. Precisely, 75.9% of the private boarders indicated that the food is sometimes not properly cooked. Again, 77.3% and 69.8% of them noted that the meal does not contain all classes of food and it is sometimes served late respectively. About 50.2% of them noted that kitchen store/dining hall is not always clean. Private school boarders prefer not eating school meals because the food is sometimes not properly cooked, does not contain all classes of food, is sometimes served late and kitchen store/dining hall is not always clean. Conversely, 58.1% and 67.0% public boarders indicated that the food is sometimes not tasty and the fingers or skin of the cooks are unkempt. The public boarders also reflected that the cooks sometimes do not wear aprons or headgears and the quantity of food is poor as reflected by the 81.1% and 51.5% of them respectively. Public school boarders prefer not eating school meals because the food is sometimes not tasty, the quantity of food is poor, cooks sometimes do not wear aprons or headgears and their fingers or skin are unkempt.

Table 3: Chi-square analysis of the level of challenges faced by boarders who pay higher and lower amount of fees each term

Amount of fees paid	Low	Moderate	Severe	Total	Chi-square	df	Asymptotic sig. (2-sided
	Fo (Fe)	Fo (Fe)	Fo (Fe)				
≥162000 (Private)	15 (16.3)	27 (28.2)	102 (99.5)	144	.445	2	.801
<162000 (Public)	18 (16.7)	30 (28.8)	99 (101.5)	147			
Total	**33**	**57**	**201**	**291**			

Data in Table 3 show the chi-square analysis of the level of challenges faced by boarders who pay higher and lower amount of fees each term. The chi-square test revealed that the amount of fees paid per term is insignificantly related to the level of challenges faced by the boarders (chi-square = .445, df = 2, $p > .801$). The hypothesis that the amount of fees paid each term is not significantly related to the level of challenges faced by the boarders is, therefore, retained. Hence, amount of fees paid each term is not significantly related to the level of challenges faced by the boarders in Edo State.

Table 4: Other challenges faced by boarders

Other challenges faced	Private (Freq. per 160)	Public (Freq. per 131)	
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)	Remark
Too much/lack/insufficient spices/seasoning	13 (8.13)	1 (0.76)	Minor problem
Sour food	8 (5.0)	-	Minor problem
Favouritism in food serving	5 (3.13)	-	Minor problem

Fed well towards vacation/visitation of parents	2 (1.25)	-	Minor problem
Seizure of food/kneeling as punishment	9 (5.63)	-	Minor problem
Snacks or beverages served, dissatisfying	12 (7.5)	-	Minor problem
No enough time to eat	1 (0.63)	-	Minor problem
Stones, insects or too much water in beans, rice, soup, spaghetti or tea	27 (16.88)	2 (1.53)	Minor problem
Lack of provision	15 (9.38)	9 (6.87)	Minor problem
Food time table containing more carbohydrate	7 (4.38)	-	Minor problem
Irritating food	1 (0.63)	-	Minor problem
No enough serving plates	1 (0.63)	-	Minor problem
Improperly washed plates, pots or utensils	3 (1.88)	-	Minor problem
Lack/insufficient/inadequate fruits	3 (1.88)	2 (1.53)	Minor problem
Not allowed to pluck fruits to augment for fruits	3 (1.88)	-	Minor problem
Sweat enters eba while pounding	1 (0.63)	-	Minor problem
Cold food	1 (0.63)	-	Minor problem
Too small meat	-	1 (0.76)	Minor problem
Old women as cooks	-	1 (0.76)	Minor problem

Table 4 shows data of other challenges faced by boarders. In the private school, the highest percentage of 16.88% was recorded of boarders who noted that stones, insects or too much water was in the beans, rice, soup, spaghetti or tea served to them. The least percentage of 0.63% each was indicated by private boarders who noted that there is no enough time to eat, food is irritating, no enough serving plates, sweat enters eba while pounding and cold food is served. In the public school, the highest percentage of 6.87% was noted of boarders who advocated for provisions from parents or caregivers. The least percentage was also recorded of public boarders who noted too much, lack/sufficient seasoning or spices, too small piece of meat and the use of old women as cooks. In both private and public schools, other challenges indicated were all minor problems.

6. Discussion of findings

Results showed that private and public boarders have low level of preference for school meals in Edo State. The result could likely be that individuals differ in their taste and liken for food and other products. One or more of these reasons can make people detest eating some meals including culture, health reasons, personal choices, cleanliness of the handler and his/her preparation habits, preparation or serving area, storage, appearance of food, improperly or poorly cooked food, mixing of cooked food with stones, insects and other items, too much salt or other seasoning in food, and tastelessness of food. Despite these reasons, private and public school boarders have no alternative than to consume what is presented before them. That is why boarders' low level of preference for school meals is ascribed to the results in the next paragraph.

Findings also revealed that private school boarders prefer not eating school meals because the food is sometimes not properly cooked, does not contain all classes of food, is sometimes served late and kitchen store/dining hall is not always clean. In addition, public school boarders prefer not eating school meals because the food is sometimes not tasty, the quantity of food is poor, cooks sometimes do not wear aprons or headgears and their fingers or skin are unkempt.

Results also showed that the amount of fees paid each term is not significantly related to the level of challenges faced by the boarders in Edo State. Government-sponsored and private-sponsored school feeding programme potentially experience similar challenges as far as the feeding operation is concerned. As a result of the feeding programme sponsorship, result is inversely related to lack/insufficient/unpredictable and complex funding for sustainability and efficiency of school feeding programme including the provision of low cost nutritious meals in India, Kenya, Ghana, South Africa, Rwanda, Namibia, Senegal, and Malawi (Wentzel-Viljoen, 2003; Council for Social Development, 2010; Buhl, 2010; Esiet, 2011; Giyose, Muita, Ikiara, Godia, Songa, Wefwafwa, & Kabaluapa, 2011; McConnell, Garnett & Mukashyaka, 2011; Burbano de Lara, Salvador, Mafule, Eotich & Toure, 2011; Namibia Ministry of Education, 2012).

Finally, results showed that in both private and public schools, other challenges indicated were all minor

including among others stones, insects or too much water in the beans, rice, soup, spaghetti or tea; lack of provision; too much/lack/insufficient spices/seasoning and lack/insufficient/inadequate fruits. Challenges of this nature are common with cooked food both at home and outside the home. This is because, perfect foods can sometimes be rare to find. Where these become too regular, a problem ensues that warrants attention.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following were recommended:

- that food handling guidelines covering personal cleanliness, preparation, storage and serving of meals be provided to each food vendor while equally displaying same in the central kitchen;
- that Meal Time Table be reviewed every year to correct for identified lapses especially in the culture of the boarders; and
- that food vendors undergo regular training and retraining to keep them abreast with what constitute an adequate meal, proper use of seasoning, cooking and avoidance of contact between raw or cooked food with other objects, and insects.

8. Implications for School Health Education

Students in boarding secondary schools are not only emotionally separated from their parents or guidance, but physically separated from them. School feeding happens to be part of their physical wellbeing. For school food to appeal to boarders and improve their health and nutritional statues, the following are needed:

- that food be properly cooked in order to ease digestion and destroy some food borne pathogens likely impair health in school;
- that school food be adequate enough to include carbohydrate, protein, fats, water, fresh fruits and leafy vegetables. At least two portions of fruits are needed for students to build resistance against disease-causing organisms;
- that food preparation areas be clean always with constant running water. With this, occasions of cholera or diarrhea will be contained
- that school food be tasty to call for attraction for consumption;
- food vendors be well-groomed and properly dressed with headgears, and facemasks to prevent food-poisoning by bacteria or viruses.

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Relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and Psychological Well-Being, Social Adjustment among Retired Military Personnel in Nigeria

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Abstract. The paper examined the relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and Psychological Well-being, Social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria. The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design to sample 119 participants using purposive and convenient sampling method from the five (5) military locations in Nigeria. 8(6.7%) from NDA, 8(6.7%) from 1 Div, 26(21.8%) from Jaji, 55(46.2%) from Kachia resettlement center, 12(10.1%) from Oshodi Lagos resettlement center while 10(8.4%) with no response. 88(73.9%) were Male and 31(26.1%) were Female. Their age ranged from 30-70years with a mean age of 45 and STD age of 65. Their Arms of service are 29(24.4%) were Army, 61(51.3%) were Navy and 29(24.4%) were Air force retired personnel. The military-civilian transition scale, psychological well-being scale and social adjustment scales were used for data collection and were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation and regression analysis to test the hypotheses stated in the study. The results in hypothesis 1 clearly indicated a statistically significant r(117)= -0.473, P< 0.05 moderately negative relationship between Military-Civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria. Hypothesis two (2) indicated a statistically significant r (117)= -0.266, P< 0.05 negative relationship between military-civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria. Results in hypothesis three (3) also revealed predictor factors influencing psychological well-being of retired military personnel R=0.534; F=9.005, P< 0.05. The predictors also revealed that military-civilian transition (B= -0.385; t=-4.475, P< 0.01) and social adjustment (B= -0.225; t=2.681, P< 0.01) significantly predicted psychological well-being. While age (B=-0.050; t=-0.593, P> 0, 05). Gender (B=0.093; t=1.072, P > 0.05) and educational status (B=0.00; t-0.026, P > 0.05) do not significantly predict psychological well-being among retired military personnel. Summarily the study found that there is a statistically significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being and social adjustment among retired military personnel and also revealed that military-civilian transition and social adjustment as individual predictors of psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria. Therefore, recommended the establishment of psychological services at all military resettlement and post military barracks to provide psychological diagnoses assessment and treatment of perceived psychological and adjustment disorders.

Keywords: Military-Civilian, Psychological, Well-being, Social adjustment, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The Military service is a unique form of employment and way of life, engendering a strong culture and camaraderie amongst personnel, which for some may

have a lasting impact even after they have returned to civilian life. Due to the pervasiveness and uniqueness of these experiences there exist a tension between military identity and post discharge resettlement within the civilian environment (Jolly, 1996).

Sadly when re-entering civilian life, ex-service men and women continue to conform to this military culture, which in many instances are incongruent with civilian norms (Maurin, 2012). It goes without saying that for most, transition is a smooth experience, followed by easy adaptation to new lives in new homes. For others however transition is difficult, especially when physical or mental health problems create barriers to successful reestablishment into civilian life (Stow, 1997; Doucette, 2008). They are more likely to face the extra burden of not just retirement but also coping with the challenges that comes with life after the military.

The consequence of not successfully transiting from the military to the civilian lifestyle affects the psychological well-being and social adjustment of these retirees (Brunger, Serrato& Ogden, 2013; Morin, 2011; Yanos, 2004) Military to civilian transition is an extremely meaningful but poorly researched event in the life courses of military Veterans particularly in Africa (MacLean, Van, Thompson, Poirier, Adams, Hartigan & Sudom 2010; Sweet &Thompson, 2009). Furthermore majority of the literature predominantly focused on mental health, and was heavily weighted on PTSD, rather than the larger transitional experience thus, ignoring the psychological well-being and adjustment challenges that comes with it (Ray & Heaslip, 2010). In the case of the Nigerian Armed Forces what makes this a more compelling area of study is the challenges retired soldiers go through due to the lack of adequate preparations before retirement and the lack of effective rehabilitation programs that aid successful transition into civilian life. In a nut shell an attention is drawn to the social processes through which individuals adopt a common collective identity and culture through military training and how this affects their psychological well-being and social adjustment when transitioning into retirement or civilian life.

The military is a closed social system where individual experiences of work, living, and emotional expression are controlled. It is also important to note that while on active duty, soldiers reverently follow codes of conduct twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week, on and off base, from the moment they enter the military until the moment they leave. (Arkin, 1978).This process of acculturation into the military culture which is heavily and continuously enforced does not decline easily especially after retirement (Maurin, 2012).

The shift from a civilian to a recruit then back to a civilian life after years of serving in the military is usually underestimated (Higate, 2001; Moskos, 1988). Schlossberg, Waters & Goodman (1995) views this as a sequence of "moving in, moving through, and moving out phases" (p. 27). After going through intense training, recruits are further segregated and isolated from the civilian populace into barracks and military camps. Admittedly, most military personnel in Nigeria spend most of their active years in the barracks with their families. The military unit is known to be an autonomous entity (Harris, Gringart& Drake 2003), thus due to its independence most barracks and military installations are well resourced with adequate facilities limiting their interaction with the civilian populace.

Military retirement largely resembles civilian retirement in some ways. Retirement for both military and civilian workers involves loss of a work role. There are, however, three basic differences concerning retirement of civilian and military retirees. The differences are age of retirement, years needed for investment in pensions and career skills (Yanos, 2004). The age at the time of retirement has a major impact on a military retiree and on their family that will not be felt by a civilian retiree who typically retires at age sixty (60) years. In contrast to a civilian retiree, military retirement has historically been based on length of service whereas civilian retirement is based on age plus length of service. Non-commissioned officers in the Nigerian Armed Forces spend a maximum of twenty-five (25) years in service. They often exit as intake mates. Secondly civilians who are vested in retirement plans may be able to tap into their retirement funds at any point in time. Military personnel however must wait until they retire fully before they have full access to any form of pension benefits (McNeil, 1983). An example of such a fund is the provident fund, where an amount of money is usually deducted at source from their salaries. Lastly most military retirees have career specialties which are not transferable to the civilian job market. For instance there is no civilian job equivalent for personnel who specialized in the infantry, armour, artillery or other (detachments/ squadrons) operational branches (Yanos, 2004). Additionally at the time their civilian peers are at the peak years of earning and productivity, the career military man might be getting ready to pursue a second job where as it is an adjustment to a leisure period for civilians when they hit retirement. Often the difficulty in finding a new job shifts the burden of

economic support of the family on the wife and older children (Bradburn, 1969).

2. Statement of the Problem

It should be understood that for years they lived regimented lives and most upon returning to a once familiar setting, that is the civilian environment, often feel a loss of purpose and direction (Doenges, 2011; Early, 2011; Greene, 2010).

Though a significant amount of work has been done on their exit from the military back into their civilian life, more work still needs to be done to highlight the difficulty that arises during the period of transitioning back to civilian life especially in the Nigerian context. Previous studies have centred on retirement after deployment, but this study also focuses on personnel who were equally not deployed just before retirement.
In the case of the Nigerian Armed Forces, personnel are usually involved in peace-keeping missions, consensus building and reconciliatory roles rather than play an active combat role in countries they have been assigned to.

The main strength of this study is to address the knowledge gap in the scholarly literature on post military adjustment to civilian life and is timely for policy formulation for all the stakeholders who work with veterans in their transition to civilian life. This will go a long way to bring to the attention of Nigerian Armed Forces and the Veterans Administration, the challenges these retired military personnel go through and consequently endowing them with vital skills for successful adjustment and integration back into civilian life.

Lastly most scholars are basing their understanding of transitioning to civilian life on studies from the USA and Canada where majority of the studies have been conducted. This study seeks to understand transitioning within a Nigerian context by determining whether Military-Civilian Transition influenced the psychological wellbeing and social adjustment of these retired personnel

3. Objectives of study

- To examine whether there will be a significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria
- To determine the nexus between military-civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria
- To investigate if age gender educational status military-civilian transition and social adjustment will significantly predict retired military personnel's psychological well-being in Nigeria

4. Hypotheses

- There will be a significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria
- There will be a significant relationship between military-civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria
- Age gender educational status military-civilian transition and social adjustment will significantly predict retired military personnel's psychological well-being in Nigeria.

5. Conceptual Clarification

5.1 Psychological Well-being

Demers (2011), conducted a study that examined the experiences of Iraq and Afghanistan war veterans in other to understand the challenges they were confronted with when they reintegrated into civilian life and its impact on their mental health. The purposive sampling technique was used to identify and recruit participants who had served in Afghanistan, Iraq, or both since the beginning of the wars in those countries. Respondents completed a preliminary electronic survey and participated in one of six focus groups. At the end of the study, the findings revealed that, high levels of distress existed among veterans who were either caught between military and civilian cultures, felt alienated from family and friends or experienced crisis with their identity.

Consequently, Harris, Gringart and Drake (2013), investigated the impact of identity and culture on transitioning of members of Special Forces by exploring the personal experiences of five (5) former Special Forces members transiting into civilian life. This was done using a semi-structured interview schedule, which scrutinized the participants‟ perception, causes, processes and experiences of retirement from the Special Forces Unit. Generally the core themes obtained from the interview included positive factors relating to personal attachment to the units, post-exit psychological responses of grief,

avoidance, replication and the rejection of the military conversations.

In a related study, Eshan, (2011) investigated the effect of retirement on psychological well-being. This was done using seven longitudinal studies of the Canadian National Population Health Survey, spanning between1994 to 2006. Generally, it was observed that retirement had a significant positive effect on individual's psychological well-being. Unlike the previous studies, the results suggested that retirement had a significant positive impact on happiness. The marginal effect analysis shows that retirement improved psychological well-being by .029 units (or 2.9%). The regression results further showed that being married, post-secondary education, health, income, and having one's own home positively impacted happiness, while urban location had a negative impact. Estimations showed that the marginal effect of retirement on psychological well-being was a little higher in males than for females.

From the literature just reviewed, the studies focused on the impact of retirement on mental health and psychological well-being. However, some of the studies were inconclusive, as some of them suggested that retirement neither improved nor reduced psychological well-being (Golberg, Shore &Lipka, 2008), other studies indicated that retirement actually had a negative impact on psychological well-being (Yanos, 2004).

5.2 Social Adjustment and Integration

A survey conducted by Morin (2011) among 1,853 veterans illustrated that seven-in-ten veterans constituting 72% had an easy time readjusting to civilian life, whiles 21% had somewhat difficulty, 6% found it very difficult re-entering into civilian life. A logistic regression examined the impact on the re-entry of 18 demographic and attitudinal variables. Four variables were found to have significantly increased the chances of veterans having an easier transition and six factors predicted how difficult transition would be. It was also observed that Commissioned officers had less difficulty in readjusting or transiting into civilian life than Non-commissioned officers. Again veterans who had college education had an easier time readjusting to life after military than those who only had a high school certificate or a diploma

Likewise, Herman and Yarwood (2014) in their paper titled "From service to civilian" explored the impact of Post military identity beyond the service by demonstrating the continuous impact of having to belong to a military community even after some years after retirement. The study was conducted by interviewing (n=44) former service personnel living within the UK. These tri-service respondents consisting of the Navy, Air Force and Army highlighted the challenges that included loss and separation even by those who had successfully transitioned. In the results it was observed that though the sense of loss was generally felt by all the interviewees, they had a positive attitude towards the transition experience. For some the loss was in reference to the past and had simply accepted it as an element in their life course. Others acknowledged it as a traumatic separation from the spaces, relations and practices that made them who they were. The paper further made three contributions by firstly highlighting the challenges that occur when a retiree cannot blur or differentiate the boundaries between military and civilian space particularly due to the hybrid nature of the military and civilian settings hence making integration very challenging. Secondly recognizing how the armed forces changes the identities of civilians when they become soldiers and thirdly recognizing soldiers are more than just passive beings who have been shaped by military training, but are also agents of complex identities. The paper sought to contribute to human centred understanding of the people living in, or who have lived in military places.

5.3 Military to Civilian Transition

Demers (2013) using a survey, interview and focus group gathered the experiences of 17 female Iraq War veterans to understand the challenges of reintegrating into civilian life and their impact on their mental health. The participants were purposively sampled with the least age being 18 years who had served in Afghanistan or Iraq or both. They had a challenge to recruit enough participants, so conducted the study on two separate focus groups within a period of three (3) years. It emerged that all the participants were grappling with their transition into civilian life. They were caught again between two cultures and identities. They identified themselves as not being "normal" and not "fitting into society" since they were struggling to overcome their sense of alienation. Further, some female veterans were diagnosed of mental health disorders and those diagnosed struggled to articulate their experiences.

A related study by MacLean, Til, Thompson, Sweet, Poirier, Sudom and Pedlar (2014) employed a cross sectional survey called The Survey on Transition to Civilian Life, gathered data from a national sample of 3154 veterans from the regular Canadian forces

spanning from 1998 to 2007. There was a 71% response rate. The main objectives of the study was to explore dimensions of post military adjustment to civilian life and to identify the demographic and military service characteristics associated with difficulty in adjustment. This was done using the multivariate logistic regression analysis. Results showed that 25% of the subjects had difficulty in adjusting to civilian life. In comparing the overall prevalence of difficult adjustment, it was discovered that there was a significantly lower prevalence rate between those who were released younger or older and also for those who served shorter periods (less than two years), those who were released voluntarily or due to having reached retirement age, those who were of higher rank (officer) and lower rank (recruits) at release. In contrast, the prevalence rate was higher amongst those who were released mid-career (in their 30‟s), medically released, veterans who were deployed multiple times and junior non-commissioned. In the area of health and disability the was a significantly lower prevalence of difficult adjustment among veterans who reported positive health be it physical or mental, those satisfied with life, those without chronic conditions and those with no activity limitation. Those who belonged to the high prevalence of difficult adjustment included those who reported negative health and mental health, those who were indifferent about their level of satisfaction about life and those who reported at least one physical or mental condition, particularly those with both conditions. Those who reported suicidal ideation over the past 12 months were not excluded. A significantly higher prevalence was found among veterans who were daily smokers, those who were unemployed, not in the labour force, or unable to work, those who were not satisfied with their finances, and those with a low sense of mastery. A limitation of this study was the finding could not be generalized because most of the characteristics were self-reported.

Schmidt, Simmonds and Sulfaro (2014) in their study sought to gain a deeper understanding of the experience of transition from a combat zone to civilian life for Veterans returning to a large urban area of California. This study was qualitative and conducted using the transcendental phenomenological method. It was made up of six (6) combat veterans who served in Operation Iraqi Freedom and Operation Enduring Freedom were recruited and participated in two semi structured interviews. Data were recorded and later transcribed verbatim. Personal accounts of the transition from combat to civilian life provided content for “textural” and “structural” descriptions used to describe the “essence” of their shared experience. Participants emphasized the role of occupation in facilitating their transition. Veterans reported challenges with learning to structure time, feelings of culture shock and isolation and overwhelming feelings of hyper vigilance. Participants valued support from family and other veterans as well as engaging in purposeful work. All six participants described the value of having the support of fellow combat veterans with whom the participant had served with. The meaning of family support varied from participant to participant depending upon varying factors. Also, Davis (2015) examined the relationship between veterans‟ combat experiences and their transition into civilian college life. The constructs of transition were defined using grade point average (GPA) and their current well-being. It was hypothesized that certain personality traits had an influence of on their relationship and it was considered and evaluated. The purpose of the study was to explore which factors of personality trait either positively or negatively had influenced the direction and or strength of the combat transition relationship.

5.4 Relationship between Military to Civilian Transition, Psychological Well-Being and Social Adjustment

Serrato and Ogden (2013) explored experiences of the transition from military to civilian life and to identify some of the barriers and facilitators to re-employment. In-depth interviews seeking their subjective experiences were carried out with 11 ex-servicemen who had previously served in the UK armed forces and analysed using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). Participants ranged in age from 19 to 63 years. Time served in the forces ranged from one to twenty-eight years. Participants described their experiences in terms of three broad themes: characteristics of a military life; loss as experienced upon return to civilian life; and the attempt to bridge the gap between these two lives. Transcending these themes was the notion of identity, illustrating that the transition from military to civilian life can be viewed as a shift in sense of self from soldier to civilian. Additionally observations made from one of the three themes which was “loss as experienced upon return to civilian life”, where participants believed that their transition back from military to civilian life could be characterized extensively in terms of loss.

In a survey conducted by Morin (2011) using 1,853 veterans, it was established that, whiles military service itself was difficult, demanding and dangerous; returning to civilian life also posed challenges for the men and women who had served in

the armed forces. Results from the survey indicated that, while more than seven-in-ten veterans (43%) reported they had an easy time readjusting to civilian life, 29% said re-entry was "somewhat easy",21% said they had a "somewhat difficult" time, and 6% had major problems integrating back into civilian life. The report however revealed that, there was gender difference in the readjustment to civilian life.

Salami (2010), conducted a study that sought to investigate the relationship between retirement context and psychological factors with well-being using 284 retirees. The moderating effects of gender on the retirement expectations and psychological well-being was also investigated. The bivariate correlations between contextual factors, psychological variables and psychological well-being indicated that financial situation, activity level, social support, retirement status (involuntary retirement), self-efficacy, stress and optimism had significant correlations with life satisfaction with correlations ranging from r= .19 to r= .35 p< .05, except marital quality, physical health, job challenge, retirement expectations, age and gender. All the independent (predictor) variables had significant negative correlations with depressive symptoms (r= -.19 p<.05 to r= - .28, p<.05)**.** However results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, findings indicated that that age and gender did not predict psychological well-being among retirees. Contextual variables made significant contribution to the prediction of psychological well-being, life satisfaction (R^2=.26, F(12,272) =15.74, p<.05); and depressive symptoms (R^2=.27, F (12,272) =11.87, p<.05). Also retirement status (involuntary retirement), job challenges, financial situation, physical health, activity level and social support significantly predicted psychological well-being. Again results suggest that retirement status (Voluntary retirement), adequate financial situation, adequate physical health, high activity level and high social support are related to high life satisfaction and low depressive symptoms. High job challenges had significant effect on lower life satisfaction and greater depressive symptoms among retirees.

However, Kim and Moen (2012) adopting a longitudinal study approach investigated the relationship between retirement transitions and subsequent psychological well-being using data on 458 married men and women who were either still in their primary career jobs, retired or had just retired within a space of two years. The instrument they used measured employment history, retirement health, activities and psychological and attitudinal. These domains were analyzed using the hierarchical regression. Data was drawn from two waves. The first wave of data was collected from 1994 to 1995.The second wave of data was collected from 1996 to 1997 and that of the third from 1998 to 1999. Results indicated that Men were higher than women in morale, and women reported more depressive symptoms than men did. Differences were observed regarding depressive symptoms in of men during the second wave of data collection. Men who retired over the first and second wave with average age of 54 years reported the highest numbers of depressive symptoms compared to men who had recently retired.

However for women there was no strong evidence of the effect of retirement transition from all the waves of data collected on psychological well-being. But a decline in subjective health, marital quality and personal control was related to increase depressive symptoms amongst women. Results further indicate that the relationship between retirement and psychological well-being between men and women was partially mediated by changes in financial, personal and social resources.

5.5 Continuity theory

Atchley (2009) states that people tend to maintain earlier lifestyle patterns, self-esteem, and values even as they exit their primary career jobs. Continuity theory focuses on how people continue their roles after retirement in order to adjust to change which brings about a relative level of satisfaction. Thus, maintaining continuity is crucial for an individual's well-being, either by maintaining his or her lifestyle or activities or viewing the retirement as a fulfilment of prior goal. The theory asserts that retirement is an opportunity to maintain social relationships and lifestyle patterns rather than the loss of work role (Wang, 2007). Continuation of activities are important because it helps maintain the qualities that people attribute to themselves, help them to adapt and express their identities appropriately across their life stages (Atchley, 1999 ; Hoppmann, Gerstorf, Smith, & Klumb, 2007).

Similarly, for those who view work role as not necessarily the most central role, the continuity theory suggests that retirement offers the opportunity to spend more time in the important roles of friends and family. The continuity of these roles into retirement would prevent an overall negative consequence of retirement. The theory further argues that retirement may offer relief from job pressure and performance expectations that may actually improve psychological well-being. It affords retirees an opportunity to maintain social contacts, while

avoiding the negative outcomes that comes with retirement (Ehsan, 2010).

However for most veterans after the initial „honeymoon period" of being freed from work, retirees usually experience varying degrees of adjustment problems (Victor, 1994), because they continue to operate within the military culture and identity long after retirement mainly due to the difficulty in adjusting to the civilian way of life. Brunger et al (2013) suggested that, individuals who seek to maintain continuity between their military and civilian lives, with the loss of potential experiences and opportunities to try new things felt more keenly because civilian spaces cannot recreate a similarly high-stake environment as compared to a military setting. This was evident in a study they undertook where it was observed that ex- service personnel did not totally cede their very core identity and activities as soldiers. When comparing the role theory and continuity theory from the theoretical perspective, continuity theory provides a new dimension that treats retirement as an opportunity to maintain social contacts, while avoiding the negative outcomes that come with retirement.

5.6 Role theory

The role theory by George (2013) postulates that one's profession is central to their identity and the loss of this critically important work role, and or the environmental loss accompanying the retirement, produces a concomitant decline in life satisfaction and increases depressive symptoms. According to this theory, retirement brings to an end work role and the retired individual suffers psychologically since he or she no longer views themselves as productive and contributing member to society (Ehsan, 2010).
This is further underscored by Kim and Moen (2012) who posits that men and women who retire from their careers or jobs are susceptible to role loss and this can lead to psychological distress. Role theory suggests that if a work role has been central role in one's life, transition to the role of being a retiree may be stressful, leading to poor adjustment (Quick & Moen, 2018). These rgoles shape the norms and expectations regarding behaviour and attitudes critical to self-identity (Carter & Cook, 2015). The shift in role may be detrimental to health if not properly prepared for (Atchley, 2019). In both the civilian and military populations, retirement represents a role transition. However what makes a role loss more pronounced amongst military retirees is the fact that in addition to adjusting to life after retirement likes every other retiree they also have to cope with adjusting to life after the military. This is due to the fact that the military way of life has a continuous and a deep-rooted impact on a retiree's identity even after retirement. This is a grave concern especially for those who have to adjust to a non-work roles and a change in financial security (McNeil, 2017).

Further our attention is brought to the fact that the decision to retire and the process of psychological adaptation to retirement must be analysed from a broader perspective. This must be done by looking at the macro-social phenomena which speaks of how pension systems operates, norms in the society, retirement timing employment patterns of spouse amongst many others. In addition several factors such as age at retirement and length of the retirement and its associated challenges cannot be ignored because they also influence the transition into retirement. Although having proved helpful in understanding retirement adjustment, both theories neglect the varying qualitative experiences to adjustment of veterans. Factors such as varying military organizational structures and culture can influence their experiences. The retirement experiences of retirees are not always similar across board (Potocnik, Tordera, Peiro, 2013).

6. Research Methodology

6.1 Design

A descriptive, cross-sectional survey design was used in collecting data for this study. Questionnaires were administered to the sample respondents, and the data collected was used to generalize the findings. The variables used in this study comprised of the psychological well-being and social adjustment which are the dependent variables. The Military-Civilian Transition which is the independent variable was measured on two groups. The control group which is the active group serves as a baseline for comparison.

6.2 Participants

Participants comprised of 119 retired military personnel thus 8(6.7%) Nigerian Defence Academy, 8 (6.7%) 1 Mechanized Div NA, 26(21.8%) Jaji cantonment, 55(46.2%) Kachia resettlement center, 12(10.1%) Lagos resettlement center oshodi and 10(8.4%) had no response. Participants comprised of 88(73.9%) male retired personnel and 31(26.1%) female retired personnel who were selected through purposive and convenient sampling method. As such, only those who indicated interest in the research were selected. Their age ranged between 30-70 years and

the mean age of 45 and their standard deviation age is 65. Their educational qualifications are as thus 7(5.9%) had FLC, 20(16.8%) had SSCE, 27(22.7%) ND, 47(39.5%) B.Sc, 18(15.1%) had M.Sc. Participants Arm of service: 29(24.4%) were in the Army, 61(51.3%) Naval retired personnel, 29(24.4%) were Air force retired personnel.

6.4 Instruments

The instrument used in data collection was a standardized questionnaire which is categorized into four sections. (Sections A through to D). Section A: Demographic Data of Participants. Section B: Measured the Military-Civilian Transition (Military-Civilian Questionnaire). Section C: Measured Psychological Well-being (Psychological Well-being Scale). Section D: Measured Social Adjustment (Social Adjustment Scale)

6.5 Procedure

The researcher soughed permission from the heads of each military establishment where retired military personnel are working or residing. Accordingly, the researcher met with the respondents, after briefing them on the nature of the research he administered the questionnaire. The respondents filled the questionnaires and completed copies of the questionnaires were collected from participants.

6.6 Method of Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, simple percentage, means, and standard deviations was used to analyze demographic variables of participants /respondents.
Consequently, Person product moment correlations were used to test both reliability and validity of the two instruments'. Regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis.

7. Results

The data collected in this study were analyzed and interpreted in line with the stated hypotheses. SPSS v20 was used to analysis the data. The descriptive statistics used were Frequency, percentages, means and standard deviations while the inferential statistics used for the test of hypotheses were Pearson Product-Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis.

Demographic Variables

Table 1: Characteristics of the Participants

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Gender:	Male	88	73.9
	Female	31	26.1
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Age:	30-40 Years	2	1.7
	41-50 Years	19	16.0
	51-60 Years	55	46.2
	61-70 Years	38	31.9
	71 Above	5	4.2
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Arms of Service:	Army	29	24.4
Navy		61	51.3
Air force		29	24.4
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Location:	NDA	8	6.7
	1 DIV	8	6.7
Jaji		26	21.8
Kachia		55	46.2
Lagos		12	10.1
No Response		10	8.4
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Education:	FLC	7	5.9
	SSCE	20	16.8
	ND	27	22.7
B.Sc		47	39.5
M.Sc		18	15.1
	Total	**119**	**100%**

Table 1 shows the characteristics of 119 participants, 88 Males and 31 females; age: 30-40 years (N= 2; 1.7%), 41-50 years (N= 19; 16%), 51-60 years (N=55; 46.2%), 61-70 years (N=38; 31.9%) and 71 above (N= 5; 4.2%). Arms of service: Army (N= 29, 24.4%), Navy (N= 61, 51.3%), Air force (N=29; 24.4%); Education: FLC (N= 7, 5.9%); SSCE (N= 20, 16.8%), ND (N= 27, 22.7%), B.Sc (N= 47, 39.5%) and M.Sc (N= 18, 15.1%) and Location: NDA (N= 8, 6.7%), DIV (N= 8, 6.7%), Jaji (N= 26, 21.8%), Kachia (N= 55, 46.2%), Lagos (N= 12, 10.1%) and no response (N= 10; 8.4%).

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: there will be a significant relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and Psychological wellbeing among retired Military personnel. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation in table 2.

Table 2: Summary Result of the Relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and Psychological Wellbeing Correlations

Variables		Military-Civilian Transition	Psychological Wellbeing
Military-Civilian Transition	Pearson Correlation	1	-.473**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	119	119
Psychological Wellbeing	Pearson Correlation	-.473**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	119	119

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

Table 2 presents the results of the correlational analysis between Military-Civilian transition and psychological wellbeing. The analysis revealed a statistically significant $r(117) = -0.473$, $p < 0.05$ moderately negative relationship between Military-Civilian transition and psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel. In other words, the hypothesis was confirmed in this study.

Hypothesis 2: there will be a significant relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and social adjustment among retired Military Personnel. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation in table 3.

Table 3: Summary Result of the Relationship between Military-Civilian Transition and Social Adjustment Correlations

Variables		Military-Civilian Transition	Social Adjustment
Military-Civilian Transition	Pearson Correlation	1	-.266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	119	119
Social Adjustment	Pearson Correlation	-.266**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	119	119

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

Table 3 shows the results of the correlational analysis between Military-Civilian transition and social adjustment. The analysis revealed a statistically significant $r(117) = -0.266$, $p < 0.05$ negative relationship between Military-Civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel. In other words, the hypothesis was confirmed in this study.

Hypothesis 3: Age, gender, educational status, Military-Civilian Transition and social adjustment will significantly predict retired military personnel's psychological wellbeing. This hypothesis was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis in table 4.

Table 4: Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis on the Psychological Wellbeing of Retired Military Personnel.

Variables	B	T	R	R^2	F
Age	-.050	-.593			
Gender	.093	1.072			
Educational status	.002	.026	0.534	0.285	9.005**
Military-Civilian Transition	-.385	-4.475**			
Social Adjustment	.225	2.681**			

Sig. Level: *P< .05, **P< .01 (df=5,113)

Table 4 shows the summary results of the multiple regression analysis indicating the predictors factors influencing psychological wellbeing of the retired military personnel where it jointly revealed that R= 0.534; F= 9.005, p <.05, and that about 28.5% accounted for the variance of psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel. Independently, the predictors indicated that military-civilian transition (β= -.385; t= -4.475, p< .01) and social adjustment (β= -.225; t= 2.681, p< .01) significantly predict psychological wellbeing while age (β= -.050; t= -.593, p> .05), gender (β= .093; t= 1.072, p> .05) and educational status (β= .002; t= .026, p> .05) do not significantly predicts psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel. See appendix II, for the histogram.

8. Summary of the findings

The results of this study were summarized as follows:

- The first hypothesis was confirmed as statistically significant; therefore, we reject the null-hypothesis and concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel.
- The second hypothesis was confirmed to be statistically significant; therefore we reject the null-hypothesis and concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between social adjustment and psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel.
- The third hypothesis was confirmed to be statistically significant; therefore we reject the null-hypothesis and concluded that age, gender, educational status, military-civilian transition and social adjustment jointly predict psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel.
- Also, the results found military-civilian transition and social adjustment as individual predictor of psychological wellbeing among retired military personnel.

9. Discussions

Hypotheses 1 which stated that there will be a significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria. The results from table 2 confirmed the hypotheses r(117) but moderately negative relationship (-0.473, P<0.05) between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria. This result clearly indicates that military-civilian transition has a relationship with psychological well-being of retired military personnel. We therefor reject the Null hypotheses and concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being among retired military personnel.

This findings is consistent with previous studies Eshan, (2011) reported in his findings that military-civilian transition (retirement) had a significant effect on retired military personnel's psychological well-being. The findings further revealed that retirement had a significant impact on happiness and improved psychological well-being by 2.9%. And that regression results further showed that being married, post-secondary education, health income and having one's home positively impacted happiness on retirement. Consequently Kim and Moen, (2012) argued that retirement from the demands of one's primary career job may be a major life-course role exit that serves to reduce role strain and overload and thereby enhancing psychological well-being.

Hypotheses 2, which stated that there will be a significant relationship between military-civilian transition, and social adjustment among retired military personnel, in Nigeria. The results in table 3 confirmed the hypotheses r (117) but with a negative relationship -0.266, p<0, 05 between military-civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria. This finding clearly revealed that there is a significant relationship between military-civilian transition and social adjustment of retired military personnel. We therefore reject the null hypotheses and concluded

that there is a statistically significant relationship between military-civilian transition and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria.

This finding is consistent with previous studies Morin, (2011) conducted a survey among 1,853 Veterans and results revealed that about 72% had an easy time readjusting to civilian life. Furthermore Herman and Yarwood, (2014) in their paper titled " from service to civilian" explored the post military identity beyond the service among the tri service personnel (Army Navy and Air force) the results observed that though the sense of loss was generally felt by all the interviewees but they had a positive attitude towards the transition experience.

Hypotheses 3 which stated that Age Gender Educational status, Military-civilian transition and Social adjustment will significantly predict tired military personnel's psychological well-being in Nigeria. The results in table 4 clearly revealed that the predictor factors influencing psychological well-being of the retired personnel where it jointly indicated that R=0.534; F=9.005, P< 0.05 and that about 28.5% accounted for the variance of psychological well-being among retired military personnel independently. The predictors also revealed that military-civilian transition (B=-0. 385; t= -4.475, P<0.01) and social adjustment (B= -0.225; t=2.681, P<0.01) significantly predicted psychological well-being while age (B= -0.050; t= -0.593, P > 0.05) then gender (B = 0.093; t=1.072, P >0.05) and educational status (B= 0.002; t= 0.026, P > 0.05) do not significantly predicts psychologically well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria.

This finding is consistent with previous findings Salami (2010) conducted a study with 284 retirees and sought to investigate the relationship between retirement context and psychological factors with well-being of retired military personnel. Results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis findings indicated that age gender did not predict psychological well-being among retirees. Consequently Morin (2011) in her findings argued that military personnel with higher qualifications adjusted better than those with lower qualification.

10. Recommendations

- Psychological services should be provided at all military rehabilitation centers and post military barracks.
- Military personnel while in service should be exposed to acquire functional education so that at retirement they will be properly engage to render services and adjust well in the society.
- Military resettlement centers should be adequately equipped with modern gadgets that will provide the necessary skills to retired personnel as they transit to civilian life.
- Good housing facilities with recreational gadgets should be provided to them after retirement this will minimize any psychology problem and help them adjust well in their new found life.
- Their retirement benefits and pension should be duly paid to them as at when due.
- Scholarships should be awarded to their children who are in school
- Family and community members must embrace and negotiate proper reintegration of loved ones.

11. Conclusion

The study found that there is a statistically significant relationship between military-civilian transition and psychological well-being and social adjustment among retired military personnel in Nigeria. The study also concludes that military-civilian transition and social adjustment are predictors influencing psychological well-being among retired military personnel, while age, gender and educational status will not predict psychological well-being among retired military personnel in Nigeria.

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Part Three

Business and Entrepreneurship Studies

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Economic Recession in Nigeria: Can Business Education come to the Rescue?

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Abstract. The study assessed the extent to which business education could reduce absolute poverty, unemployment and environmental degradation. The study adopted a survey design and sampled 111 business educators in four colleges of education in Delta State. Three research questions were raised and a structured questionnaire of 15 items was used to obtain information from the respondents. The results were analyzed via the descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation. Cronbach's alpha measurement technique was used to determine the reliability of the instrument which yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.77. The findings of the study showed that business education can reduce the rising rates of absolute poverty and unemployment in Nigeria to a high extent, but is ineffective to address environmental degradation in Nigeria. Based on these findings, it was recommended amongst others, that Government, non-governmental organizations and stakeholders in the education sector should adequately fund business education programmes in Nigeria for sustainable economic growth and development.

Keywords: Economic recession, business education, unemployment, poverty, environmental degradation

1. Introduction

In modern times, while the economic conditions of men and women whose natural endowments and circumstances of birth, have contrived to fuel their innovations in business and contributions to the economy of nations. The occasional economic recessions of some world and regional powers have led their governments and thinkers to realize that reliance on such innovative minds would result in human resources that are needed to drive their economies to the ultimate level of success.

Recession, according to Afe (2016), is a state of negative economic growth for two consecutive quarters. It is also a business cycle contraction which results in a general slowdown in economic activity, macroeconomic indicators, such as, GDP (gross domestic product), investment spending, capacity utilization, household income, business profits slow down, spiral inflation, bankruptcies, unemployment, poverty and environmental degradation rate rise.

Nigeria is a relatively monoculture economy primarily dependent on petroleum as the major source of revenue. Fiscal Strategy Report (2018) stated that petroleum accounts for 40 percent of the 2017 budget financing and 42.2 percent of 2018 budget financing which is a deliberate policy measure by the federal government of diversifying the country's sources of revenue and insulating the economy from depending largely on petroleum. Nigeria's economy declined in 2016 to its lowest level for the first time since 1987. In the 1st quarter of 2016, the National Bureau of Statistics reported that the economy shrank by 0.36% to hit its lowest point in the last 30years, (Obasanho, 2017). However, the world economy saw light at the end of the tunnel as IMF predicted that the economy of Nigeria will grow by 0.08% by the end of 2017.In a similar vein, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2017) reported that Nigeria GDP increased from -0.91% in the first quarter of 2017 to 0.55% in the 2nd quarter of 2017, thereby officially declaring Nigeria out of recession.

Nigeria seems to have retrogressed to become one of the 25th poorest countries of the world who were at the threshold of the 21st century (Lapak, Moris & Shikfu, 2017). Millions of people are unemployed and poverty stricken. The absence of work is unemployment; a period when a person is not engaged in any productive activity (Okala, 2010). All over the world, unemployment rates have continued

to grow at an alarming proportion. In Nigeria for example, available statistical data by Federal Office of Statistics (2017) showed a steady increase in the number of unemployed in Nigeria. In 2011, the unemployment rate was 18.8 million people. In 2017, the unemployment rate was put at 25.5 million people; with 55% of the unemployed being young school leavers between the ages of 19-34 years. Business educationists see unemployment from the perspective of skill possessed by the individual and which qualify him or her for employment. The lack of it may also reduce the chances for employment (Winefield, 2010).

Poverty can literally be stated as a condition where the total annual income (that is the total funds) available to individuals, groups of people, family or a society, for expenditure on feeding, clothing, shelter and provision of other necessary services is below a certain minimum value (Oladunjoye, 2015). Poverty is a multi-faced affliction; a ravaging economic and social phenomenon that manifests in the inability of the victims to acquire the basic necessities of life. There is high inflation rate, high interest rate; accumulation of debts especially foreign debts, general rise in prices of goods and services, leading to low purchasing power. The effect of the past recession is evidently threatening the wellbeing of her citizens. Employable and non-employable graduates roam the streets looking for un-available white collar jobs. Different tiers of government and public/ private organizations cannot pay their workers' salaries, with majority of their work force under engaged or underpaid (Lapaket et al, 2017).

Environmental degradation is the compromise and devaluation of our environment. The activities of extractive industries such as gas flaring, poor disposal of chemical waste, oil spillage and other forms of pollutants are hazardous to human health, threatening resource capacity and the economic livelihood of indigenous communities, thus presenting challenges to the ecological management for sustainable economic development (Daru, 2014).

There seems to be general dissatisfaction and disgruntlement among people a situation which manifest itself in diverse crimes prevalence in our society today; arm banditry, kidnapping, arm robbery and ritual killings (Oyewole & Olaniyi, 2017). Environmental and economic systems have long interacted, but in recent years the scope and intensity of these interactions are causing widespread concerns (UNESCO, 2009). It further stated that the pollutants and wastes generated by economic systems of capitalist, and indeed socialist, development have reconfigured the ecological systems of the planet – wiping out numerous sub-species of plant and animal, and changing the nature's dynamics and sustainability of long-standing ecosystems in many parts of the world, our public health system is in shambles, the price of food is sky high and businesses are struggling (Alegbe, 2004). Stakeholders at all levels have indicated interest in finding solutions to economic recession, it seem that Business Education could be of help.

Adesina (2007) posited that business education is an enterprise of knowledge dissipated towards the study of business concepts. It is the aggregate of accounting skills, OTM skills, analytical skills, conceptual skills, diagnostic skills, attitudes and knowledge needed by individuals to function effectively and efficiently in the world of work either as an employee or an employer of labour to reduce rising inflation rate, high rate of absolute poverty, soaring rate of unemployment and environmental degradation. Ango (2006) describes business education as the aggregate of skills, attitudes and knowledge needed for success in business endeavors. Business education courses aims at equipping students with the basic knowledge, skills and attitude's required to manage business enterprises (Iwu, 2012). In addition, business education helps to provide quality personnel to business and industries, helps industries to grow and maximize profits, instill the spirit of entrepreneurship into individuals and enlightening them about business concept and application.

The role of business education in tackling economic recession and promoting sustainable economic development cannot be undermined. It holds bright prospect of contributing; through its skill acquisition, entrepreneurship, job creation and self-employment packages for ameliorating the challenges of economic recession in Nigeria. A gainfully employed individual contributes towards reducing the high rate of absolute poverty and soaring rate of unemployment (Oladunjoye, 2015).

Business education is embodied in the national development policy of various countries across the globe owing to its immense contributions to economic growth and development. Business education promotes entrepreneurial activities that subsequently increase economic growth for the populace by establishing industries that will absorb the unemployed. Business education plays a vital role in an economy as it provides quality skills and competencies to learners thereby giving them the capacity to impart knowledge to others to manage offices and businesses. Business education instills the

spirit of entrepreneurship. An entrepreneur provides job for himself and for other people as well. This in turn helps to increase the national productivity and per capita income. Business education is a tool that may be used to resolve the unabated environmental degradation and developmental challenges of the country and make Nigeria among the leading 20 economies in the world by the year 2020 (Amoor &Udoh, 2008).

Business Education being a dynamic field of study has transformed the educational system to one which aims at grooming manpower to fill the ever growing vacuum created by unemployment. Business Education is an educational programme through which young people acquire knowledge, skills, and understanding of the nature and role of business and its organization, the economic environment in which it operates and the contribution it makes to the creation of wealth for sustainable economic development. Azih and Nwagwu, (2015) see business education as a global programme aimed at preparing individuals for an improved economic participation through equipping them to be intelligent consumers and producers of business pro ducts. The courses offered are developed to expose the students to core areas in the curriculum including general education, entrepreneurship, general business course (Marketing and Management), Accounting, Teaching Methodology and Industrial Work Experience Scheme. Equipping graduates to be innovative thinkers, with entrepreneurial mindset and attitude to break the cycle of graduate unemployment that cuts across all discipline in the country (Ekpenyong, 2016)

It is generally believed that a well-articulated business education programme may help reduce economic recession to the barest level. Business education is not limited to providing students with required skills for doing any particular job, but also equips students with skill competencies needed to promote economic growth and sustainable development. The objectives of business education as outlined by Nwaigburu & Eneogwe (2013) include:

- To equip students with adequate skills and knowledge needed for employment in business-related jobs upon graduation from school.To ensure that the manpower requirements of the country is met.
- To create an opportunity for students to acquire additional skills and knowledge through internship in offices and industries.
- To provide knowledge needed to fast-track socioeconomic development.
- To develop necessary skills needed for personal development and career progression.
- To equip students to be job owners and successful entrepreneurs.
- To produce vibrant academic personnel that will teach business education in secondary and tertiary levels of education.

Sustainable economic development connotes the all-round development of an individual. Ihingan (2007) posited that sustainable development is economic development that is long-lasting and do not decrease overtime. Sustainable development is a pluralistic concept that boils down to enhancing the quality of life of the citizenry via effective utilization of natural and human resources. In business parlance, sustainable economic development implies developing and implementing business strategies that meets the demands of businesses in the present and future. Sustainable economic development also focuses on developing students of business education with necessary skills for self-employment that can be directed to the economic advancement of Nigeria (Nwokike & Jim, 2017). The rationale behind sustainable economic development is to liberate people's economic, social and environmental needs. The United Nations in the year 2015 developed the sustainable development goals targeted to transform the world by the year 2030.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Recession or negative economic growth has been a nightmare to many developing economies, with Nigeria inclusive. Obasanho (2017) noted that despite the prediction by IMF (International Monetary Fund) and the declaration of National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), that Nigeria is out of recession, the economy remains underdeveloped; with business cycle contractions still high, household spending slowdown, and inflation rates hitting the roof top. There seems to be high rate of absolute poverty, soaring rate of unemployment, environmental degradation, high rate of population growth, economic backwardness and dilapidated infrastructures to mention but a few. The country urgently needs to focus on a pragmatic and functional skill-driven programme that can equip its recipients with relevant skills needed to stimulate the development of latent talents to promote innovative mindset and entrepreneurial attitude needed to drive sustainable economic growth and development. Can business education do this? These are the issues this study seeks to provide answers.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to assess the extent to which business education will act as a rescue to economic recession for sustainable economic development. Specifically, the study will assess:

- The extent to which business education influences reduction of high rate of absolute poverty.
- The extent to which business education influences reduction of soaring rate of unemployment.
- The extent to which business education influences reduction in environmental degradation.

1.3. Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- To what extent does business education reduce high rate of absolute poverty?
- To what extent does business education reduce the soaring rate of unemployment?
- To what extent does business education resolve problems of environmental degradation?

1.4 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance

- There is no significant difference in the responses between male and female business educators as regards the extent to which business education can reduce absolute poverty in Nigeria.
- There is no significant difference in the responses between male and female business educators as regards the extent to which business education can reduce the soaring rate of unemployment in Nigeria.
- There is no significant difference in the responses between male and female business educators as regards the extent to which business education can resolve problems of environmental degradation in Nigeria.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study may be of immense benefit to Business Education Students, Business Administrators, Business organizations, Government and future researchers.

The findings of this study may provide business students an avenue to appreciate the integration of theoretical and practical components in their programme that equip its recipients with relevant skills needed to stimulate the development of latent talents to promote innovative mindset and entrepreneurial attitude needed to drive sustainable economic growth and development.

It may create awareness on the need for schools to liaise with industries on the need to have up to date facilities that will help students acquire necessary skills needed in industry to become, self-reliant, and functional when they graduate.

This study may help this group absorb well trained and dedicated persons in the labour force that will enhance their productivity and performance. Government: The findings will provide encouragement for government to give adequate financial and logistics support to Business education programmes in tertiary institutions.

Future researchers on similar and related field may find this study useful as a reference point to assist them in their research endeavors.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The scope of this study covered the extent business education influences reduction of high rate of absolute poverty, the soaring rate of unemployment and reduce environmental degradation (in the four colleges of education in Delta State situated at Agbor, Asaba, Mosoga and Warri).

2. Literature Review

The theoretical framework that contributes to the understanding of the acquisition of relevant skills is that of Professor Edward Lee Thorndike an American educational psychologist. Thorndike introduced the theory of Identical Elements of Transfer of Learning. The theory states that the extent to which information learned in one situation will transfer to another situation is determined by the similarity between the two situations. The more similar the situations are, the greater the amount of information that will be transferred. Similarly, if the situations have nothing in common, information learned in one situation will not be of any value in the other situation. These identical elements may be in the form of procedures, of concepts, of actions, of facts, of attitudes, of

principles and techniques. It represents the central behaviorist stance that the amount of learning that can be generalized between a familiar situation and an unfamiliar one is determined by the number of elements that the two situations have in common.

The theory of Identical Elements of Transfer of Learning is applicable to this study in the sense that the more adequately equipped business graduates are, the greater the transfer of skills in the second situation (World of works) thereby helping the students become proficient and efficient, with employability skill he or she needs to be self-reliant to reduce unemployment, poverty and contributes towards sustainable economic development. This study reviewed the works of authorities and scholars that are related to the study.

2.1. Business Education and Reduction of High Rate of Absolute Poverty

Oyewole &Olaniyi (2017) carried out a study on Business Educators' Perception of the Impact of Economic Recession on Nigeria's Socio Economic. Two research questions were raised and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. A descriptive survey design was employed. The population consisted of 324 business educators in colleges of education and universities in South-west, Nigeria. The whole 324 business educators were used for data collection. The findings of the study showed that economic recession has highly affected Nigeria's socio-economic in Delta State, especially the poverty level which is the mother of all socio-economic problems. Adequate skilled manpower base will translate to increase in aggregate output, create jobs, reduce poverty, reduce unemployment and contribute to sustainable economic development.

2.2. Business Education and Reduction of Soaring Rate of Unemployment

Owenvbiugie &Ekpenyong, (2014) carried out a study titled Vocational Education: A transformative agenda for curbing unemployment. Five research questions were raised to guide the study. A descriptive survey design was employed; the population consisted of 1199 known small business operators in Edo State Nigeria. The sample size was 264 business operators which was 22% of the population. The findings of the study revealed the need for vocational and technical skills training as a strategy to curb unemployment. Conclusion can be drawn on the skill acquisition of business education graduates in curbing unemployment and reversing the tide of economic recession.

2.3. Business Education and Reduction of Environmental Degradation

Daru (2014) carried out a qualitative research with a case study design on Environmental Degradation: Key challenges to sustainable Economic Development in Niger Delta. A population of 20 persons,2 focus groupswith 8 research questions using purposive sampling. The study revealed that the lack of consideration for community expectations and demands by policy and decision makers is a focal point in the Niger Delta rejoins and activities of extractive industries such as gas flaring, poor disposal of chemical waste, oil spillage and other forms of pollutants which are externalities to sustainable economic development; and that the people affected by the consequences of environmental degradation have limited resources or power to enforce their rights. In light of the above, skill acquisition in business education will empower recipients with employable skills, to be self-reliant, employers of labour; having the resources to reverse the tide of environmental degradation for sustainable economic development.

2.4. Business Education; Reduction of Poverty, Unemployment and Environmental Degradation

Poverty alleviation is listed as one of the key Millennium Development Goals, and is one of the most important issues facing humanity today (Urama & Ekene, 2010). It is inextricably linked to the achievement of sustainable development, both at the economic and the environmental levels – neither economic nor environmental sustainability can be achieved without huge improvements in economic welfare of the people. Poverty is a ravaging economic and social malady manifests in the inability of the victims to acquire basic necessities of life. Environmental and economic systems have long interacted, but in recent years the scope and intensity of these interactions is causing widespread concerns (UNESCO, 2009). The pollutants and wastes generated by economic systems of capitalist, and indeed socialist development, have reconfigured the ecological systems of the planet – wiping out numerous sub-species of plant and animal, and changing the nature, dynamics and sustainability of long-standing ecosystems in many parts of the world.

At present, environmental sustainability issues as taught in Business Schools, is increasingly impacting the greening of business practices, through the addition of ethical courses into business education curriculum like; business ethics, business law and human resources development thereby reflecting the

seriousness of the issues involved, while increasing productivity and preserving ozone layers and ecological endowment for sustainable economic development (Urama &Ekene, 2010). Business education is a veritable instrument in poverty alleviation in Nigeria. Business education will help in alleviating poverty by making its graduate's posses' saleable skills, self-reliant, employed in establishments, and become employers of labour.

Business education equips it graduates with necessary skills and potentials, that will make them perform very well in business and also take to teaching as a profession. With courses in accountancy, OTM studies, computer, marketing and distributive education, recipients will acquire saleable skills, be self-employed and create jobs by being employers of labour (Osuala, 2010). Graduates of business education specializing in computer will be gainfully employed in companies to work as computer operators, or set up their own computer business outfits where they will handle different jobs like printing of invitation cards, posters, flyers and typing of documents. Business education graduates can take up teaching appointments in private and public educational institutions, imparting business education knowledge and alleviating poverty in the society (Amaewhule, 2000).

3. Methodology

The descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. Nworgu, (1991) stated that the descriptive survey design involves soliciting responses from sample/subjects through the use of questionnaires, in-depth interviews to collect information about peoples beliefs' feelings, behaviours and lifestyle. This design was found most appropriate for the study because it sought information from the respondents.
The population of the study comprised 111 business educators in four colleges of education in Delta State. The breakdown of the study population is given as follows:

Table 3. 1: Study Population

Colleges of Education	No of Business Educators
College of Education, Agbor	21
College of Education, Warri	19
College of Physical and Health Education, Masoga	13
Federal College of Education, Asaba	58
Total	**111**

Source: *HOD's offices of the various institutions*

The entire population of 111 constituted the sample for the study; there was no sampling. This is because the population size is manageable. A structured questionnaire designed by the researcher was used. The questionnaire has two sections. Section A dealt with demographic information of respondents, while section B comprised of 15 item statement. A four-point rating scale ranging from Very High Extent (4) High Extent (3), Low Extent (2), and Very Low Extent (1)

The instrument was validated by the researcher's supervisors and two other specialists in the Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Faculty of Education, University of Benin. Their corrections were imputed in producing the final draft. Cronbach alpha measurement technique was used in establishing the reliability of the questionnaire. The instrument was administered to twelve (12) Business Educators of the College of Education Ekiadolor Edo State, Vocational and Technical Department who were not part of the main study. A reliability coefficient of 0.77 was obtained. The 15-item questionnaires were administered directly to the respondents personally in company of two trained research assistants; the completed questionnaires were retrieved at the end of the exercise.

The data collected were analyzed using simple percentage, mean and standard deviation. Furthermore, the independent t-statistics was employed to test for any significant difference in the responses of male and female business educators. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was be used for the analysis of data

Decision Rule

Any item with a mean value of 2.5 and above was accepted as high extent (HE), while a mean value below 2.5 was accepted as low extent (LE).

4. Results and Discussion of Findings

The results for the study were obtained from the research questions answered.

Research Question One: To what extent does business education reduce high rate of absolute poverty?

Table 3. 2: Mean and standard deviation of Business Education and reduction of absolute poverty

S/N	Items	$\bar{\chi}$	S.D	Remark
1	Provides a stable source of income for individuals to enable them have access to basic essentials of life	3.77	0.42	HE
2.	Improves the quality of material wellness of individuals.	3.60	0.49	HE
3.	Makes individuals to be self-dependent and self-reliant.	3.59	0.49	HE
4.	Stimulates the income per head of the Nigerian citizenry.	3.68	0.48	HE
5.	Makes easy access to basic amenities such as potable water, sanitation, health care and education facilities.	3.67	0.47	HE
	Grand Mean	**3.66**		HE

Source: Researchers' fieldwork (2019).
Note: HE= High Extent; LE= Low Extent

The grand mean and standard deviation are 3.66 and 0.47. All the items on the table are rated high extent. It shows that all responses agreed that skills acquired in business education programme are capable of curbing poverty if properly harnessed. This is in line with Oyewole &Olaniyi (2017)) that skill competencies in business education will prepare one for gainful employment, and self-reliance and thus reduce poverty.

Research Question Two: To what extent does business education reduce the soaring rate of unemployment?

Table 3.3: Mean and standard deviation of Business Education and soaring unemployment

S/N	Items	$\bar{\chi}$	S.D	Remark
6	Provides manpower in firms, industries and conglomerate	3.74	0.44	HE
7	Equips individuals with skills and competencies to become employable in the labour market.	3.59	0.49	HE
8	Encourages the establishments of micro, small and medium scale enterprises.	3.18	0.39	HE
9	Makes individuals to be self-employed and employers of labour	3.71	0.46	HE
10	Provides entrepreneurs (actual and prospective) with adequate skills and knowledge needed for their businesses.	3.39	0.49	HE
	Grand $\bar{M}$ean	**3.52**		HE

Source: *Researchers' fieldwork (2019).*

The grand mean and standard deviation are 3.52 and 0.45. All the items on the table are rated high extent. It shows that all responses agreed that skills acquired in business education programme are capable of reducing unemployment in Nigeria to high extent. This is in line with Nwaigburu and Eneogwe (2013) that business education goes a long way to promote self-reliance and sustainable development by instilling the spirit of entrepreneurship among the youths to make them owners of enterprises, thereby reducing dependence on government provision.

Research Question Three: To what extent does business education reduce Environmental Degradation in Nigeria?

Table 3. 4: Mean and standard deviation of Business Education Environmental Degradation in Nigeria

S/N	Items	$\bar{\chi}$	S.D	Remark
11.	Makes businesses and industries socially responsible to the environmental needs of their host communities.	3.23	0.62	HE
12.	Makes businesses and industry prioritize on the environmental wellness of their host communities.	2.05	0.53	LE
13.	Ensures businesses and industries invest massively in environmental protection of their host communities.	1.93	0.60	LE
14.	Makes regulatory agencies clarify and assign ownership titles and tenure rights to business owners to curtail their environmental excesses.	1.99	0.59	LE
15.	Regulatory bodies provide incentives to business owners if amount of pollution generated is less than the emission standard of waste.	1.99	0.61	LE
	Grand $\bar{M}$ean	**1.99**		**LE**

Source: *Researchers' fieldwork (2019)*

The grand mean and standard deviation are 1.99 and 0.58. The data in table 4 revealed that almost all the items had a mean less than the cut-off point. The respondents opined that business education can to a high extent make enterprises socially responsive to the environmental demands of their local communities that business education can to a low extent – make enterprises prioritize on the environmental wellbeing of their local communities. This indicates that business education cannot effectively reduce environmental degradation in Nigeria. This is in line with the study of Daru (2014), which revealed that the lack of consideration for community expectations and demands by policy and decision makers is a focal point in the Niger Delta region.

Testing Hypotheses

The Hypothesis was tested using t. test at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the responses of male and female business educators as regards the extent to which business education can reduce absolute poverty.

Table3. 5: t. test analysis of the extent to which business education can reduce absolute poverty

Gender	N	DF	$\bar{\chi}$	SD	t-value	Sig	Decision
Male	69 109		3.686	0.462			
					.831	0.037	NS
Female	42	109	3.612	0.486			

Source: Researchers' fieldwork (2019).
Note: NS= Not significant; S= Significant

Table 5 shows that the t-value of .831 is significant at p-value 0.037, testing at alpha level of .05. This indicates that there is significant difference in the mean responses of male and female business educators on how business education can reduce absolute poverty in Nigeria. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis accepted. This finding corroborated the findings of Amaewhule, (2000) that business education graduates can take up teaching appointments in private and public educational institutions, imparting business education knowledge earn a living and alleviating poverty in the society.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the responses of male and female business educators as regards the extent business education can reduce the soaring rate of unemployment in Nigeria education.

Table 3. 6: t-test analysis of the extent to which business education can reduce soaring rate of unemployment

Gender	N	DF	$\bar{\chi}$	SD	t-value	Sig.	Decision
Male	69	109	3.488	0.454			
					.684	0.040	NS
Female	42	109	3.582	0.450			

Source: *Researchers' Fieldwork (2019).*

Table 6 shows that the t-value of .684 is significant at p-value 0.040, testing at an alpha level of .05. This indicates that there is significant difference in the mean responses of male and female business educators on how business education can reduce soaring rate of unemployment in Nigeria. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis is accepted. This is in line with the findings of Owenvbiugie & Ekpenyong (20014) that skills acquired in business education will empower the recipients to be self-reliant, employable and reduce unemployment.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the responses of male and female business educators as regard the extent to which business education can reduce environmental degradation in Nigeria.

Table 3.7: t-test analysis of the extent to which business education can reduce environmental degradation in Nigeria

Gender	N	DF	$\bar{\chi}$	SD	t-value	Sig.	Decision
Male	69	109	2.288	0.682	.		
					1.400	0.016	NS
Female	42	109	2.152				
				0.536			

Source: Researchers' fieldwork (2019).

Table 7 shows that the t-value of .682 is significant at p-value 0.016. Testing at an alpha level of .05.this indicates that there is significant difference in the opinions of male and female business educators on the extent to which business education can resolve environmental degradation in Nigeria. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternate hypothesis is accepted.

5. Conclusion

Nearly all the studies based on the findings, revealed that business education can reduce the high rate of absolute poverty; reduce the soaring rate of unemployment and to a low extent curb environmental degradation. That there should be synergy between government, industries and stakeholders in policy making and implementation, to ensure enterprises and organizations are made to prioritize on the environmental wellbeing of their local communities, and made to curtail the excessive use of resources in the environment. Finally, Business education has the potential of equipping its recipients with relevant skills needed to stimulate the development and flow of latent talents to become self-reliant, create jobs, reduce unemployment, poverty and rescue Nigeria from economic recession, promote growth and sustainable economic development.

6. Recommendations

In the light of crucial issues discussed in the study, examining the role of business education in rescuing economic recession in Nigeria, the following recommendations were made:

- Business education programme and its content should be made more practical and work experience to prepare students for the real work setting with employability skills.
- Regular training and development programmes, should be organized more regularly for business educators and students in Nigeria. These development initiatives will expand and deepen knowledge and make business education more responsive to environmental sustainability issues.
- The federal, State, local Government and relevant stakeholders in the public and private environment are beseeched to make favorable policies that would encourage the growth of small sized businesses in Nigeria to increase productivity.
- Government and private organizations should invest more adequately in business education programmes with up to date instructional facilities for adequate skill acquisition, self-reliance and job creation for sustainable economic development.

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Business Incubation of Small and Medium Enterprises Performance in Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study investigated the effect of business incubation on performance of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria. This study adopted survey research design, 386 SMEs were selected and structured questionnaire was used to collect data. Pilot study was carried out to ensure its validity and the reliability, the result range 0.701 to 0.855. Data was analyzed using multiple regression analysis. Findings revealed that business networks (β = -0.214, t = -3.161, $p<0.05$) had a negative and significant effect on market share. Findings revealed further that financial support (β = 0.480, t = 8.930, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.294, t = 5.692, $p<0.05$) had positive and significant effect on profitability. Also, the results revealed that financial support (β = 0.646, t = 12.256, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.435, t = 8.598, $p<0.05$) had positive and significant effect on firm size. Findings also revealed that that financial support (β = 1.423, t = 10.238, $p<0.05$), market expertise (β = 0.311, t = 2.484, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 1.112, t = 8.331, $p<0.05$) had positive and significant effect on performance of SMEs in Oyo State. Implications of findings were discussed.

Keywords: Business incubation, Business networks, Financial support, Government policy, Market expertise, Performance, Technology support

1. B**ackground**

Across the globe Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have been recognized to be the economic drivers. Majority of economies in the world are constituted primarily of SMEs. Despite the globally acknowledged importance of SMEs, this sector across the globe has been persistently plagued with poor performance. In 2016, Bibby Financial Services published its inaugural Global Business Monitor report, providing unique insight into the opportunities and challenges facing small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) across Asia, Europe and North America amid geopolitical change and rising economic uncertainty. The report indicated that several issues such as rising input costs, the burden of government regulation and ongoing cash-flow management have been constantly affecting the performance of SMEs in several regions across the world.

According to the Nigerian Bureau of Statistics/Small and Medium Enterprise Development Agency of Nigeria (NBS/SMEDAN) (2012), National MSMEs collaborative study revealed that there are 17, 284,671 MSMEs in Nigeria. The breakdown shows that micro businesses constitute about 17,261,753 or 99.87%, the small enterprises accounted for about 21,264 or 0.12% while the medium scale enterprises is about 1,654 or 0.01% (NBS, 2012). Yazeed, (2017) revealed that micro enterprises contribute 60-75% of the Nigerian employment, small enterprises contribute 20% and Medium enterprises contribute 5-10% according to the report of national enterprise development programme (NEDEP). Given the fact that micro enterprises constitute 99.87% of the total SMEs operating in the country; this explains that SMEs in Nigeria are characterized by low performance and therefore are unable to grow from one scale of business to another (SMEDAN, 2012). Also, in an international conference on SMEs, Oyelaran (2010), posited that SMEs contribute approximately 1% of the country's GDP compared to 40% in Asia and 50% in the USA. This implies that there are some forces behind their low performance in Nigeria.

Small and medium enterprises (SME), acknowledged as tools of economic development, are faced with several challenges as small businesses have failed at alarming rates (Amosa, Omolabi & Suleiman, 2017).

Governments around the world design institutions to support them. Equipping small business owners and managers with skills necessary for survival in a competitive environment is one of the most challenging responsibilities facing business incubators (Nugugi, Otieno &Wachira, 2017).

Several studies carried out by Alkasim, Bohari and Hilman (2017), Ayatse, Iyortsuun and Kwahar (2017), Cai, Farhan, Jawad, Mustapha and Nasir (2015), Kakabadse, McGowan and Theodorakopoulus (2014), Mulloth and Rao (2016), Nugugi, Otieno and Wachira (2017) have focused on conceptualizing growth strategy on Small and medium enterprise performance. However, these studies have not focused on how funding affects sales growth as even scholars such as (Achtenhagen, Ekberg & Melander, 2017; Amaugo,Anigbo, Egere, Igwe & Ogundana, 2018) have identified the need to fill this gap.

Year in year out, the governments at federal, state and even local levels through budgetary allocations, policies and pronouncements have signified interest and acknowledgement of the crucial role of the SME sub-sector of the economy and hence made policies for energizing the same (Mulloth &Rao, 2016). There have also been fiscal incentives, grants, bilateral and multilateral agencies support and aids as well as specialized institutions all geared towards making the SME sub-sector vibrant (Awolaja, Bako &Murtala, 2017). It has been shown that there is a high correlation between the degree of access business incubation dimensions and sales growth of SMEs. Awolaja, Bako and Murtala (2017) which used a sample of over 5,000 SMEs found that access to finance as a dimension of business incubation was ranked as either the biggest or second biggest obstacle by SMEs. However, majority of SMEs in Nigeria are unable to fund their marketing operations and as a result, this affects their sales growth (Abdullahi & Sulaiman, 2015).

Despite the large number of studies on business strategies, a number of these studies have so far yielded divergent results, thus leading to a scholarly discourse as to whether business incubation affect small and medium enterprise market share. The main idea of business incubation is to create a support environment for start-up and emerging companies, thereby contributing to the creation of new local jobs, economic development and technology transfer. Thus, the main objective of a business incubator is to support entrepreneurs to create successful start-ups within a reasonable period of time. A lot of consideration has been dedicated to the effect of business support strategies on firm development, incubator support performance, start-up success, entrepreneurship development and creative industries (Adelowo, Olaopa, & Siyanbola, 2012; Fatoki, Obaji, Obiekwe, Odugbemi &Olugu, 2015; Balogun, Obaju &Olugu, 2014; Amosa, Omolabi & Suleiman, 2017; Liu, Liu &Pi, 2017). A paucity of research exists on these constructs.

In Nigeria, SMEs lack strong business networks as a dimension of business incubation to connect with external business associates, suppliers and potential customers, expand the frontiers of their business and improve their market share. In today's Nigeria business environment, creating sustainable value for customers and shareholders requires creating effective business networks. SMEs in Nigeria have witnessed increased competition in the recent past and these has forced companies to go back to the drawing board to seek new ways of expanding their businesses and reach new markets more exhaustively for their products (Amosa, Omolabi & Suleiman, 2017). A major cause of this problem has been lack of accessing more knowledge and competence through networks with other firms (Lin & Lin, 2016). Existing scholarly literatures by (Adejumo &Akinyemi, 2017; Kesale, 2017; Ede, Mile, Ode &Wombo, 2014; Eveleens, Rijinsover & Welle, 2017) have emerged and have examined financial literacy and SME's performance, business incubator characteristics and SME's growth, business incubators and performance outcomes, business model development and start-up success, entrepreneurial competences and firm value. However, few empirical literatures seem to look at the relationship between business incubation (financial support, business networks, market expertise and technology support) and profitability. Some of these literatures have not provided adequate evidence on connection between market expertise and profitability. However, scholars (Iwu, 2017; Asikhia, Elemo, Kabuoh, Oduyoye, &Oyeku, 2014; Selma, 2017; Boyd &McDermott 2017) have identified the importance to fill this gap.

Nwaizugbo and Omodafe (2017) observed that while the SMEs constitute over 70 percent of the total enterprises in Nigeria and enjoyed reasonable support from international agencies, government and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), they contribute less than ten percent of the nation's gross domestic product (GDP) in terms of creation of employment, poverty reduction and industrial development (Adejumo &Akinyemi, 2017). They also observed that most SMEs' growth is hindered by a myriad of constraints which include lack of value-added marketing strategies, lack of modern

technology, and lack of marketing expertise among others which are indicators of poor business incubation (Adejumo &Akinyemi, 2017). Interestingly, studies have consistently found that innovative marketing practices are relevant to both small and large businesses (Mavondo, 2011; Reijonen, 2010; Carson, Gilmore & O'Dwyer, 2009). In this age of expanding globalization of trade/communication, technological advancement and challenging economic climate, it is observed that majority of Nigerian SMEs tend to be mired in a survival strategy rather than expanding with only about 40 percent celebrating their fourth anniversary; an indication of a high mortality rate and poor performance which is seen clearly through consistently declining levels of profits has been witnessed (Mohammed & Obeleagu-Nzelibe, 2014).

Despite the large number of studies on business start-up strategies, a number of these studies have so far yielded varying results, this calls for academic concern to scholars and practitioners as to whether business incubation affect firm size of small and medium enterprises. Quite a lot of attention has been devoted to the effect of business incubation practice and selection performance, business support and small business survival, support mechanism and business incubation performance, technological start-ups and success (Edokpolor & Muritala, 2017; Anita, Inger, Jarle & Oystein, 2016; Obaji, Olugu &Senin, 2016; Olawale, 2014; Cornwall, D'Souza, Matthews &Schenkel, 2015). Little attention has been given to issues associated with how business incubation affect firm size of small and medium enterprises in the Nigeria context. Hence, this study seeks out to investigate the effect of business incubators on performance of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria

2. Research Hypothesis

- There is no significant relationship between predictors of business incubation and market share of selected SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria
- There is no significant relationship between predictors business incubation and profitability of selected SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria
- There is no significant relationship between predictors business incubation and firm size of selected SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This study employed the survey research design to examine the effects of business incubation on performance of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria. This design was appropriate for this study because it extensively described the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables

3.2 Population

The population of small and medium scale enterprises in Oyo State is seven thousand, nine hundred and eighty-seven (7,987).

3.3 Sample size and sampling Technique

This study used all the three hundred and eighty-six (386) SMEs that have enjoyed incubation services in Oyo State, Nigeria. Total enumeration technique was used because of the fact that it allowed for a complete evaluation of the entire population.

3.4 Research Instrument

The data gathering instrument for this study was a well-structured questionnaire adapted by the researcher. The purpose of using questionnaires survey was because of the direct response, feedback and the literacy level of the proposed respondents

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

Data was analysed using inferential statistics (Multiple regression analysis). Inferential statistics was used to test the three hypothesis stated in the study to test the effect of independent variables on the dependent variables. The regression analyses provided estimate of equations to predict the magnitude of the dependent variable and provided values for the predictor variables.

4. Result

Table 1: Multiple regression analysis for effects of business incubation dimensions on market share of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria

N	Model	B	Sig.	T	ANOVA (Sig.)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F (df)
311	(Constant)	26.667	0.000	13.602	0.003[b]	0.050	0.038	4.064 (4,306)
	Financial Support	-0.136	0.064	-1.860				
	Business Networks	-0.214	0.002	-3.161				
	Market Expertise	0.099	0.133	1.506				
	Technology Support	0.033	0.636	0.474				
	Predictors: (Constant), Technology Support, Business Networks, Financial Support, Market Expertise							
	Dependent Variable: Market Share							

Table 1 above shows the multiple regression analysis results for the effect of business incubation predictors (financial support, business networks, market expertise and technology support) on market share of SMEs. The results reveals that business networks (β = -0.214, t = -3.161, $p<0.05$) has a significant effect on market share of SMEs. Although a business network has a significant effect on market share, the effect is a negative one. Further, the results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that financial support (β = -0.136, t = -1.860, $p>0.05$) has a negative and insignificant effect on market share while market expertise (β = 0.099, t = 1.506, $p>0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.033, t = 0.474, $p>0.05$) have positive and insignificant effect on market share of SMEs. This implies that SMEs in Oyo State should pay less attention towards financial risks sharing and granting access of their resources and assets to others as these might have a negative effect on their market share. The correlation coefficient, R^2 value of 0.050 indicate that business incubation dimensions have a weak positive and significant effect on market share of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria. The coefficient of multiple determination, adjusted R^2 value of 0.038 indicates that business incubation dimensions only explained 3.8% of the changes in market share of the SMEs in Oyo State. Also, the F-statistics (df = 4, 306) = 4.064 at p = 0.003 ($p<0.05$) indicates that the overall model is significant in predicting the effect of business incubation dimensions on market share which implies that business incubation dimensions have a significant effect on market share of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 2: Summary of multiple regression analysis for effects of business incubation dimensions on profitability of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria

N	Model	B	Sig.	T	ANOVA (Sig.)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F (df)
311	(Constant)	5.628	0.000	3.905	0.000[b]	0.453[a]	0.446	63.416 (4,306)
	Financial Support	0.480	0.000	8.930				
	Business Networks	0.011	0.823	0.223				
	Market Expertise	0.010	0.828	0.217				
	Technology Support	0.294	0.000	5.692				
	Predictors: (Constant), Technology Support, Business Networks, Financial Support, Market Expertise							
	Dependent Variable: Profitability							

Table 2 shows the multiple regression analysis results for the effect of business incubation dimensions (financial support, business networks, market expertise and technology support) on profitability of SMEs. The results reveals that financial support (β = 0.480, t = 8.930, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.294, t = 5.692, $p<0.05$) have positive and significant effect on profitability of SMEs while business networks (β = 0.011, t = 0.223, $p>0.05$) and market expertise (β = 0.010, t = 0.217, $p>0.05$) have positive and insignificant effect on profitability of SMEs. This implies that SMEs in Oyo State should pay more attention towards accessing finance and investing in technology as this would improve their profitability.

The correlation coefficient, R^2 value of 0.453 indicate that business incubation dimensions have a weak positive and significant effect on profitability of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria. The coefficient of multiple determination, adjusted R^2 value of 0.446 indicates that business incubation dimensions only explained 44.6% of the changes in profitability of the SMEs in Oyo State. Also, the F-statistics (df = 4, 306) = 63.416 at p = 0.000 ($p<0.05$) indicates that the overall model is significant in predicting the effect of business incubation dimensions on profitability which implies that business incubation dimensions have a significant effect on profitability of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 3: Summary of multiple regression analysis foreffects of business incubation dimensions on firm size of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria

N	Model	B	Sig.	T	ANOVA (Sig.)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F (df)
311	(Constant)	-1.060	0.454	-0.750	0.000^b	0.618^a	0.613	123.552 (4,306)
	Financial Support	0.646	0.000	12.256				
	Business Networks	0.079	0.104	1.630				
	Market Expertise	-0.076	0.110	-1.601				
	Technology Support	0.435	0.000	8.598				
	Predictors: (Constant), Technology Support, Business Networks, Financial Support, Market Expertise							
	Dependent Variable: Firm Size							

Table 3 shows the multiple regression analysis results for the effect of business incubation dimensions (financial support, business networks, market expertise and technology support) on firm size of SMEs. The results reveals that financial support (β = 0.646, t = 12.256, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.435, t = 8.598, $p<0.05$) have positive and significant effect on firm size of SMEs while business networks (β = 0.079, t = 1.630, $p>0.05$) has a positive and insignificant effect on firm size and market expertise (β = -0.076, t = -1.601, $p>0.05$) has a negative and insignificant effect on firm size of SMEs. This implies that SMEs in Oyo State should concentrate on access of secured funding and information communication within the business in order to improve their firm size. The correlation coefficient, R^2 value of 0.618 indicate that business incubation dimensions have a moderate positive and significant effect on firm size of SMEs.

The coefficient of multiple determination, adjusted R^2 value of 0.613 indicates that business incubation dimensions only explained 61.3% of the changes in firm size of the SMEs in Oyo State while the remaining could be attributed to other factors not included in this model. Also, the F-statistics (df = 4, 306) = 123.552 at p = 0.000 ($p<0.05$) indicates that the overall model is significant in predicting the effect of business incubation dimensions on firm size which implies that business incubation dimensions have a significant effect on firm size of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria.

5. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of business incubation market shares, profitability and firm sizes of SMEs in Oyo state, Nigeria. This was done by examining the predictors of business incubation (Financial Support, Business Networks, Market Expertise and Technology Support) on the dependent variables (Market Shares, Profitabity and Firm Size).The result of the regression analysis indicated that the predictors of the independent variables business networks, market expertise and technology support has a significant effect on firm size, however financial support showed no significance. The result of this findings is in agreement with the findings of Eveleens, Niesten, and Rijnsoever (2017) who examined how network-based incubation helps start-up performance: a systematic review against the background of management theories and results shows that the articles found a positive influence of network-based incubation on market share, sales growth and profitability. Roberta, Roberto and Silvia (2017) measured the effect of business incubators on the innovation performance of start-ups and results show that incubation programme positively moderates the impact of business and technical capabilities and collaborations on the innovation performance of start-ups. Mohammed, Mohammed, and Salman (2017) examined business incubators and its effects on success of incubated firms in Jordan. Results showed that strategic incubation services and support incubation services are positively associated to the success of incubated firms.

Cooper, Hamel, & Connaughton (2012) noted that business incubators strive to develop robust business and social networks to bring value to their resident companies in the form of intellectual and material resources. Also, Sá and Lee (2012) state that one of the central features of incubators is the provision of networking opportunities for tenants to establish collaborative relationships with other organizations. In line with this reasoning, Hansen, (2000) note that "most business incubators provide office space, funding, and basic services. The better ones also offer an extensive network of powerful business connections, enabling fledging start-ups to beat their competitors to market."

Furthermore the results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that financial support (β = 0.480, t = 8.930, $p<0.05$) and technology support (β = 0.294, t = 5.692, $p<0.05$) made positive and significant effect on profitability of SMEs in Oyo State while business networks (β = 0.011, t = 0.223, $p>0.05$) and market expertise (β = 0.010, t = 0.217, $p>0.05$) have positive and insignificant effect on profitability of SMEs in Oyo State, Nigeria. This result is in consonance with

the studies of Shepard (2013) and Dahlstrand and Politis (2013) found positive association between market expertise as a dimension of business incubation in terms of knowledge and capability, and profitability of firms. Also, Angulo-Ruiz and Pergelova (2014) found that financial resources were an important factor in incubator performance. In another study, Laosirihongthong and Somsuk (2014) found a significant and positive relationship between financial resources and incubator performance. Theoretically, the finding of this study provides support for teal options theory. Business incubation performance (BIP) is measured in terms of incubate growth and financial performance at the time of incubator exit. Operationally, there are five different mutually exclusive incubate outcome states at the completion of the incubation process, firstly, the incubate is surviving and growing profitably. Secondly, the incubate is surviving and growing and is on a path toward profitability. Thirdly, the incubate is surviving but is not growing and is not profitable or is only marginally profitable. Fourthly, the incubate operations were terminated while still in the incubator, but losses were minimized. Fifthly, the incubatee operations were terminated while still in the incubator, and the losses were large. A real options perspective, however, can be used to attain the performance indicators.

Shaheen and Malik (2012) described firm size as the quantity and array of production capability and potential a firm possesses or the quantity and diversity of services a firm can concurrently make available to its clients. Firm size plays a significant and crucial role in explaining the kind of relationships the firm has within and outside its operating environment. Babalola (2013) argues that the larger a firm is, the more the influence it has on its stakeholders, and so large firms tend to outperform small firms. The result of hypothesis three shows a significant relationship between financial support and technology support, this can be attested to by previous researchres in Nigeria (Adelowo and Egbetokun, 2012; Adegbite, 2002) in their study established that technological competence was a precursor for increase in firm size and also found a positive significant effect of technology support on firm expansion in Nigeria. Likewise, other studies outside Nigeria such as Carayannis and Von Zedtwitz (2005); Bøllingtoft and Ulhoi (2005) and Winger (2000) have reported positive findings between technological and infrastructural support as a dimension of business incubation and firm size. Also, Allahar and Brathwaite (2016) emphasize that incubation programmes diversify economies, commercialize technologies, create jobs and create wealth. Similarly, Salvador (2011) found that business incubators provide infrastructure, technology and related services to promote technological innovation and help the new ventures survive in their early stages and also increase in size.

6. Conclusion

From the result of the study, the predictors of business incubation (financial support, market expertise and technology support) have both positive and negative significant effect on the dependent variable (Market shares, Profitabilty and Firm Size) therefore it is important for entrepreneurs to focus on important factors such as access to long-term debt finance, flexible repayment period, access of secured funding, marketing intelligence, investment in training and development, environmental assessment and scanning, technological advancement, training on ICT use and application, investment in ICT infrastructure in order to enhance their performance.

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Responsiveness of Money Market Rates to Monetary Policy Committee Meetings (MPC) Communications

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Abstract. The Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) provides two sets of information to the financial market; it contains information on the policy decision, typically in the form of a change in cost of borrowing {monetary Policy Rate (MPR)} and level of liquidity in the market {Cash Reserve Requirement (CRR)}. The change in the both MPR and CRR affects other rates in the market because it represents a change in the cost of funds to the banks as well as liquidity in the economy respectively. The other set of information is that the committee communicates the future direction of monetary policy. These communications are likely to affect the market expectations, and therefore affect the interest rates. This study uses daily data for the period 2010-2019 to estimate the separate effects of monetary policy communication on money market rates, the study employed EGACH technique. It is found that the cost-of-money effect on the on money market rate is significant. So also, the effect of MPC communication on is found to be significant. This suggests that central bank communications is potentially a viable tool of monetary policy design and implementation in Nigeria. The study therefore suggests that the CBN should be proactive in designing an optimal communication strategy.

Keywords: Interest rates, Monetary policy rate, Liquidity ratio, EGACH

1. Introduction

Among the mandate of central bank of Nigeria is provision of sound and stable financial system. In order to achieve this, the monetary authorities set targets for key monetary and financial indicators, policy strategies that could lead to stable and sound financial system were develop. Among the strategies, the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) communicates its policy decisions to the general public in order to coordinates financial markets agents, so that the financial system could be sound and stable (Salisu, 2012), this is because information on both current and future policy stand may/not increase the increase the degree of agents expectations.

The primary objective of monetary policy is the achievement of price stability (Sanusi, 2011 a); however this may sound ambiguous because one may ask which price? Is it the price of Naira in relation to other currencies (i.e. exchange rate, which could be nominal or real effective), price of capital/reward for accumulating financial asset (i.e. interest rate, which could be deposit or lending rate), or the price of goods and services in the country {i.e. the general price level, which could be core or non-core inflation?}. Whichever price the CBN seeks to stabilize, there is no doubt monetary policy seeks to limit the growth of money supply to a level that is consistent with the desired level of output and prices (inflation, interest and exchange rates) or tampered with cost of borrowing or liquidity. Looking at the importance of money markets in the development of any economies this study concentrates to interest rates.

Interest rate is a price of borrowing and must be right and attractive to reward depositors and encourage long term savings as well as reward lenders. There exist conflicting and competing views regarding what constitute an appropriate interest rate depending on

whose perspective – savers or lenders/borrowers (Abubakar, 2012). Over the recent past, communication policy has become an important instrument of monetary policy globally. The recognition of the effects of information asymmetries and uncertainties on economic activities has led Central Banks to attach greater weight to communication policy as an instrument of monetary policy. On this light most of the countries are given interest on interest rates due to the contributions of both interest rate and the monetary policy instruments {Monetary Policy Rate (MPR) and Cash Reserve Requirement (CRR)} in influencing macroeconomic variables of a country such as inflation, output, exports and imports. Therefore, this work aimed to investigate the responsiveness of interest rates to MPC meetings.

The empirical question the study would answer is whether such communications and signals have separate and independent effects on the interest rates and, therefore, enhance effectiveness of monetary policy in Nigeria. The empirical answer to this question is undoubtedly useful to the monetary authorities, especially the MPC.

Therefore this study seeks to address if MPC communications is an effective alternative or complementary measure in achieving price stability in Nigeria. From the problem statement, the following research questions emerged.

2. Literature Review

This section is divided into two sub-sections the theoretical and the empirical reviews

2.1.1 Market Formation of Expectation

Market agents form their expectation psychologically, because economic agents use both past and current information in formulating their future expectation (Frydman and Goldberg, 2012). For instance, if market agents are interested in long-term returns, speculators are expecting rising rates and borrowers wishing to acquire long-term funds. These may lead to rise in demand for short-term fixed earning security (such as bond); and also, would require a rise in long-term yields in relation to short-term yields (Sergio and Frank, 2004). Therefore, these actions by investors, speculators, and borrowers would bid up the term structure upward until it is consistent with expectations of higher future interest rates. Thus, the long term interests depend on the expected series of short term (overnight) rates. This can be shown algebraically in equation (1).

$$R_t = \alpha_t + \frac{1}{n}(r_t + r^x{}_t + r^x{}_{t+1} + r^x{}_{t+2} + \cdots + r^x{}_{t+1+n}) + \varepsilon_t \text{----------} 1$$

Where:

R_t = Longer term rate of interest

α_n = Term premium

r_t = Current overnight rate

$r^e{}_{t+1}$= today's expectation of tomorrow's overnight rate and so on for.

ε_t = Error term implying that the term premium might be stochastic.

2.1.2 Market Expectations and Policy Communication

Investors in the stock market normally use information at hand to manage or coordinate future expectation in order to benefit most. Therefore, they consider Communication of central banks as one of the sources of information in which they respond to. If the Communication is in the right direction then it would be effective while non-effective if otherwise (Blinder, Ehrmann, Frasztscher, De Haan, and Jansen 2008). Furthermore, a well design Communication helps in strengthening the institutional independence of central banks, as well as enhancing the effectiveness of monetary policy (Egbuna, 2008).

According to Blinder et al. (2008) and Egbuna, (2008) Communication can be used as a strong instrument in the central banking, this is because it influences financial market and macroeconomic variables via expectation, and this is because Communication can manage future expectation on the economic activities and future monetary policy. While on the other hand, some scholars such as Ehrmann and Fratzscher (2005) and Blinder (2004) cited in Blinder et. al., (2008) have contradictory view, according to these scholars; central bank Communication may end up confusing market agents instead of enlightening them, also Communication may send bad signals to market agents, hence, information asymmetry and uncertainties influence policy makers to consider their Communication as an instrument and effective channel of monetary policy while not in reality.

But Blinder et al. (2008) assert that central bank may choose to communicate at a particular time because of a sudden change in the economic outlook or some other news due the fundamentals in the markets, central bank can uses its Communication to influences future expectation on short term rate, which influences long term rates and economic activity (financial market prices), and these prices affected macroeconomic variables and output. While

central bank meetings, just like monetary policy, affect financial markets very quickly, interest rates and asset prices affect the economy slowly. This is because many factors other than monetary policy influence macro variables, but financial market variables are reacting mostly to central bank communication.

A simple macroeconomic framework designed by Blinder et al. (2008) can be used to illustrate the role of central bank meetings.

$Y_t = D\ (r_t - \pi_t^e,\ R_t - \pi_t^e,) + \varepsilon_t$ ---------- 2

Given that the current overnight rate (r_t), the long term rates (R_t), and expected inflation (π_t^e), equation (2) is the aggregate demand, which is a function of r_t, R_t,.

The aggregate supply function is given in equation (3), which could but not necessarily be something like the New Keynesian Phillips curve and can be

$\pi_t = Be\ (\pi_{t+1}) + \gamma\ (Y_t - Y_t^*) + \varepsilon_t$ ----------3

Given that π_t mean inflation and Y_t and Y_t^* mean actual and potential real output respectively, the aggregate supply function is a function of Y_t and Y_t^*, Be and γ are constant. Equation (3) model could be closed by appending a central bank reaction function (Taylor rule).

$r_t = G\ (Y_t - Y_t^*,\ \pi_t, \pi_t^*) + \varepsilon_t$ ----------(4)

Where:

π_t^* denotes inflation target of the central bank.

Central bank Communication and learning are inextricably intertwined. The feedback effect of learning on the economy can lead to unstable or indeterminate outcomes which effective Communication by the Central Bank can help to avoid. This link could be captured by equation (4).

According to Blinder et al. (2008) central bank Communication matter if at least one of the following conditions holds: nonstationarity (either in the economy or the policy rule), the feedback effect of learning on the economy by market agents, expectations to be non-rational and finally asymmetric of information between the public and the central bank.

$r^e_{t+j} = H_j\ (Y_t, R_t, r_t, \ldots., s_t) + \varepsilon_t$ ----------(5)

Where:

r^e_{t+j} = Interest rate expectations

S_t = vector of Central Bank signals.

Equation (2) indicate that aggregate demand respond to the overnight interest rate (short-term rate), equation (5) indicate that expected future short-term rate of interest respond to central bank signals. Therefore, central bank Communication is important instruments in influencing economic activities.

2.2 Empirical Review

The initial work in Nigeria is by Sanusi (2011a and b) who established that central bank Communication is a strong tool of monetary policy in Nigeria. While (Sanusi, 2010a) estimated the effects of monetary policy signals and cost of funds on the interbank call rate and Open Buy-Back (OBB) rate, his result shows that the cost of money effect on the Open Buy Back rate is larger than it is on the Call rate; Sanusi (2011b) estimated the effects of monetary policy signals on the Nigeria Interbank Offer Rates (NIBOR), his finding revealed that the rates are significantly more volatile during weeks of the MPC meetings. These studies suggest that signaling effects are significant monetary policy tools in Nigeria

Chuku (2009) identified the effects of monetary policy innovations on output and prices in Nigeria, he employed Structural Vector Autoregressive (SVAR) model and find out that monetary policy innovation (M2) has effects on output and prices most with a very fast speed of adjustment and that of MRR and Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER) has effect on the proportional effects on outpumts and prices. While Yusuf (2010) conducted a research on the Nigeria inter-bank and monetary policy rates nexus, to find whether there is long-run relationship between the two or not, he used unit root test and co-integration test and find out that there is long-run relationship between MPR in the inter-bank money market as well as other Deposit Money Banks' (DMBs) interest rates. Okwo, Eze and Nwoha (2012) examined the effect of monetary policy outcomes on macroeconomic stability in Nigeria from 1985 to 2010. Their result suggests that monetary policy as a policy option may have been inactive in influencing price stability

Oloni and Adewara (2013) conducted a research on macroeconomic effects of Central Bank independence and transparency in Nigeria. Their findings revealed that CBN independence and transparency means more employment for the Nigerian economy using panel regression. It has negative effect on inflation and interest rate. The finding shows that increased independence lead to low interest rate is particularly very important for the growth of the economy. Also, the finding reveals that CBN independence and transparent has negative effect on inflation and interest rate.

Other studies that empirical studies have been done on response of interest rate to central bank communications, such David and Kehinde (2015), Maxwell Jimoh and Oluwatosin (2014), Anthony, Uzomba and Olatunji (2016), (2017) among others employed GARCH family technique, others such as Abuakar (2012), Aliyu, Saidu, Zubair and Dawood employed VAR and OLS respectively, find out that communications play vital role in influencing interest rates.

All the studies used MPR as the only monetary policy instrument and ignore CRR, but this study considered both, the only studies that used CRR are Mahmud 2019, but his work was on the sensitivity of MPC communications on stock prices; since CRR can play vital role in both capital market and money market there is need to undertake similar studies in the money market. Also other studies did not consider Treasury bill and fixed deposit rates as dependent of the MPC communication while this study does.

3. Analytical Technique

To achieve the major objective of this study, which is to examine the effect of MPC meetings communications on the money market rates, this study adopted Exponential Generalized Autoregression Conditional Heteroscedasticity model (EGARCH). The choice of this model is informed by our conceptualization of the effect of MPC meetings on the exchange rate as well as the nature of the data-high frequency.

If the result clearly and convincingly suggests that MPC meetings provides evidence of volatility reduction in the money markets rates, we can then conclude that MPC meetings can be used as a tool of managing money market volatility in Nigeria. Hence, volatility modeling using the EGARCH model would enable us achieve the objective of this study.

The justification for using the EGARCH over other methods is because the phenomenon associated with interest rate is volatility clustering, that is period in which the interest rate exhibits wide swings. In this case, the EGARCH model captures such volatility clustering which gives it relative advantage over other methods of correcting for heteroscedasticity.

EGARCH Model

This is used to assess the effects of MPC meetings on interest rates and investigate if MPC pronouncements reduce volatility in the interest rate in Nigeria. The EGARCH model is usually specified in two forms that are the mean equation and the variance equation specifications

Mean Equation

Exponential Generalized Autoregression Conditional Heteroscedasticity (EGARCH) model is specifically designed to model and forecast variance. The variance of a dependent variable is defined as a function of exogenous variables, which consists of the lagged dependent and independent variables and other pure exogenous variables. In presenting an ARCH model, there are two distinct equations or specifications, the first for the conditional mean and the second for the conditional variance. But the baseline model is given in equation 1

$R = \alpha_t + MP + e_t$ ……..1

R_t = is the current interest rate

MP_t = is the monetary policy instruments such as MPR and CRR (both public and Private sectors)

u_t = error term

The mean equation for 'u_t'is specified in equation (1). The mean equation, it is written as a function of exogenous variables with an error term (u_t). Equation (2) is the conditional error distribution which is estimated either using normal (Gaussian) or students-t or generalized error distribution

$\mu_i = \sum_{j=i}^{p} \rho_i \mu_i + \varepsilon_i$----------2

Variance Equation

In this case, corresponding to the orders of ARCH 'p', GARCH 'q' and Asymmetric 'r', the conditional variance model, namely EGARCH(p, q, r), has the following general equation:

$$\log \sigma^2 = \omega + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \beta_j \log \sigma_{t-j} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{t-i} \left| \frac{\varepsilon_{t-i}}{\sigma_{t-i}} \right| + \sum_{k}^{r} \gamma_{t-k} \frac{\varepsilon_{t-k}}{\sigma_{t-k}} + \sum D$$

……3

Where:

Logσ^2 = the conditional variance, it is always non negative irrespective of the possible negative parameter values.

$\sum_{j-1}^{q} \beta_j \log \sigma_{t-j}$ = ARCH effects

$\sum_{i=i}^{p} \alpha_i \left| \varepsilon_{t-i} / \sigma_{t-i} \right|$ = GARCH effects

$\sum_{k=1}^{r} \lambda \varepsilon_{t-k} / \sigma_{t-k}$ = Leverage effect

$\sum D$ = Communication dummy, take the value of one at MPC meeting dates and zero otherwise

The variance equation, expresses the conditional variance as a function of own lag (last period forecast variance), one period lag of squared residuals (last period squared residual), monetary policy instruments, Dummy variable to capture the meeting days and an error term. The presence of Dummy in the variance equation enables this study to determine effect of MPC meetings on the conditional variance i.e. volatility. The ARCH and the GARCH terms are also importance; this is because the ARCH term indicates the extent of volatility reaction to the variable under consideration. While the GARCH term demonstrates the time shocks take to die out, in other words it shows the spill-over effect.

The study used daily exchange rate data for the period 2010-2018. The data for this study depend mainly on secondary sources obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) via its web site www.cenbank.org. The rationale for choosing the MPR and CRR is because they are used by MPC members to control the supply of money, availability of money, and cost of money or rate of interest. Also, the starting date was chosen because the inauguration meeting of MPC was in January, 2010. The inaugural meeting was held in an era of greater transparency in monetary policy decisions with the adoption of communication policy as an important instrument of monetary policy. The influence improved transparency on the expectation formation process of the financial market participant and is therefore, likely to influence financial variables.

4. Unit Root Test

Before the application of a standard econometric technique, it is required that variables should be stationary. As a result, we carry out the stationary test on the variables: CRR, CRRP, R, and MPR. Non-stationary series usually result to producing a spurious regression results. Making inferences from this kind of models may be misleading. The results of the ADF and PP tests are reported in Table 1

The results of the ADF and PP tests as shown in Table 1 indicate that all the variables are not stationary at levels, except MPR and R which proved. As a result of this, we differenced all the series once in the case of both the ADF and PP tests. The variables became stationary after being differenced once. We therefore, conclude that the variables (CRR, CRRP) are integrated of order one, I(1) at all level of significance.

Table 1: The Summary of Unit Root Test

Test	ADF TEST P. Values		PP TEST P. Values		
	Level	1ST Diff.	Level	1ST Diff.	Remark
Variable					
CRR	-1.303542 (0.6300)	-45.09511 (0.0001)	-1.303394 (0.6301)	-45.09511 (0.0001)	I(1)
CRRP	-1.092575 (0.7208)	-39.91961 (0.0000)	-1.093213 (0.7205)	-39.91961 (0.0000)	I(1)
EX	-0.051535 (0.9526)	-34.06065 (0.0000)	-0.051535 (0.9526)	-44.79572 (0.0001)	I(1)
MPR	-5.378503 (0.0000)		-5.695056 (0.0000)		I(0)
R	-2.924568 (0.0427)		-2.926748 (0.0425)		I(0)
TB	-0.448444 (0.8984)	-45.17651 (0.0001)	-0.448444 (0.8984)	-45.17651 (0.0001)	I(1)
TD	-2.433557 (0.1326)	-45.05721 (0.0001)	-2.435538 (0.1321)	45.05721 (0.0001)	I(1)

The critical values are presented in parentheses in the above order of the significance levels.
Source: *Authors Computation Using E-views 9.0*

5. Results and discussions

Impact of Monetary Committee on Interest Rate

Having determined the distribution and the order of integration of the variables of study, this section estimates and reports the EGARCH model of equation. Different specifications of EGARCH model were estimated but the EGARCH (2, 2) was found to be appropriate, this was chosen based on the established model selection criteria. After comparing the AIC, SIC and R^2 which is lower in value compared to GARCH (1, 1) model. The EGARC (2, 2) model and is presented in table 2.

Table 2: EGARCH (3, 3) Estimation for Interest Rate (R)

Mean equation										
C 16.99909 (0.0000)		D(CRR) -0.008700 (0.7803)		D(CCRP) 0.002085 (0.8670)			MPR -0.013527 (0.0000)			
Variance equation										
C	ARCH(1)	ARCH(2)	ARCH(3)	GARCH(1)	GARCH(2)	GARCH(2)	LE(1)	LE(2)	LE(3)	D01
-2.802830 (0.0032)	1.439111 (0.0000)	0.664297 (0.1475)	0.336544 (0.6341)	0.028361 (0.8542)	0.040309 (0.8206)	-0.013563 (0.9370)	0.467846 (0.0935)	-0.175361 (0.7246)	0.115959 (0.7696)	1.480338 (0.0000)

Source: *Authors Computation Using E-views 9.0*

The result of the mean equation suggest that all the variables are not statistically significant unless MPR which is statistically significant at one per cent, the result shows a negative but weak (-0.013527) relationship between the interest rate and the MPR meaning that if MPR increases by one percent, interest rate will be increased by -0.013527. This could be as a result of either the monetary authority tempered with the asymmetric corridor of MPR or as a result of future expectation; this finding is consistent with that of Aliyu (2011).

While the result from the variance equation shows that all the ARCH and GARCH effect are statistically insignificant unless ARCH(1) while only LE(1) and communication dummy (D01) are statistically significant at one percent, ten percent and one percent respectively.

The ARCH coefficient indicates the extent of volatility reaction to the variable under consideration. The decision rule is that a value above 0.5 indicates intense reaction of the shock to the variable under consideration, while a value below 0.5 indicates mild reaction of the shock to the variable under consideration, therefore in this case the ARCH (1) coefficient is 1.439111 meant that interest rate is highly volatile in regard to MPC meeting this result is in consonate with that of Aliyu (2011).

So also the GARCH coefficient demonstrates the time shocks take to die out. The decision rule is that a value above 0.5, illustrates longer time shocks takes to die out and a value below 0.5 indicates shorter time shocks take to die out, the is not different from zero as obtained. So also, the leverage effect term (LE(1)) is different from zero as obtained the model means that the information or signals send my MPC at the end of each meeting is not symmetric in nature. This also indicates the existence of leverage effect. And finally the MPC communication has significant impact on interest rate; this finding is in line with all the others findings reviewed.

This involves determining if communication can be used a tool of managing interest rate volatility. Since it is found in our study, that communication reduces volatility in the Nigerian money market, it then follows that CBN can use communication as a tool of managing interest rate volatility in the Nigerian money market.

Impact of Monetary Committee on Treasury Bill Rate

So also after determined the distribution and the order of integration of the variables of study, this section estimates and reports the EGARCH model of three month Treasury bill rate (TB).

Table 3: EGARCH (1, 1) Estimation for Treasury Bill Rate (TB)

Mean equation				
C -0.000307 (0.9397)	D(CRR) -2.85E-05 (0.9999)	D(CRRP) -2.15E-06 (1.0000)	MPR 5.22E-05 (0.8948)	
Variance equation				
C -6.567625 (0.0000)	ARCH(1) 0.010000 (0.0000)	GARCH(1) 0.010000 (0.5072)	LE(1) 0.010000 (0.0000)	D01 0.000000 (1.0000)

Source: *Authors Computation Using E-views 9.0*

The result of the mean equation showed that Treasury Bill (TB) was positively but insignificantly related to MPR, while the TB showed a negatively but insignificantly related to CRR and CRRP; meaning that both the cost of borrowing and measure of liquidity do not influences TB.

While the variance equation revealed that ARCH (1) and LE (1) are positive and statistically significant while GARCH is statistically insignificant meaning that there is volatility of but it does not have spillover effect and there is symmetric effect, lastly the communication dummy suggest that the MPC meetings does not effect on TB
Impact of Monetary Committee on Time Deposit Rate

So also after determined the distribution and the order of integration of the variables of study, this section estimates and reports the EGARCH model of Time Deposit (TD).

Table 4: EGARCH (1, 1) Estimation for Time Deposit Rate (TD)

Mean equation				
C 8.82E-07 (0.0327)	D(CRR) -5.54E-08 (0.7026)	D(CCRP) -2.51E-08 (0.2845)	MPR -7.07E-08 (0.0000)	
Variance equation				
C -3.348755 (0.0000)	ARCH(1) -1.066258 (0.0000)	GARCH(1) 0.028544 (0.5072)	LE(1) 0.146061 (0.0000)	D01 -22.95813 (0.0000)

Source: *Authors Computation Using E-views 9.0*

Different specifications of EGARCH model were estimated but the EGARCH (1, 1) was found to be appropriate, this was chosen based on the established model selection criteria..
The mean equation revealed that all the variables are statistically insignificant unless MPR, and there is negative effect of MPR to TD.

On the other the variance equation shows that all the variables are statistically significant apart of GARCH (1). ARCH (1) as while as communication dummy revealed that there is reduction in the volatility, meaning that the CBN communication can be used to reduce the volatility in the TB market.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The results of the EGARCH models estimated in this work indicate that communication by MPC has significant effect on R, TB and TD in Nigeria during the period under review. These indices are indicators of the magnitude and movement of interest rates in Nigeria. Having found that MPC's communications *"Create News"* and *"Reduce Noise"*, In other words, communication by MPC *"Create News"* which manage market agents expectations and move monetary variables in the expected direction, and "*Reduces Noise*" which has to do with increasing the predictability of MPC actions, which in turn reduces uncertainty/volatility in the stock market. In other words The MPC communiqués, as noted earlier, reveal to the market the beliefs of the MPC about the future path of a number of economic and financial indicators. This information is used in setting the prices of many longer term financial assets. Therefore this provides empirical evidence in support of the literature that MPC communications have independent and separate effects on monetary policy outcome.

Having found that communication has significant effect on R, CR, TD and TB and reduces volatility in the Nigerian money market, we proffer the following recommendations:

- The study recommends that the MPC should be proactive in its communications to the public, and should seek to have an optimal communication strategy. It can be used in coordinating agents' expectation and for reduction of uncertainties/volatility in the Nigerian money market.
- The government through the monetary authorities can smoothen out any temporary fluctuations in the R, CR, TD and TB in Nigeria by using communication instead of using actual intervention. This would reduce cost of actual interventions which raises volatility and markets uncertainty. It also implies in turn that market volatility and uncertainty will be reduced as confirm by our findings or the results.

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Loan Default among Cooperative Women Entrepreneur in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Cooperatives have been identified as powerful vehicles of economic, social and political empowerment for women; especially those taking part in entrepreneurial activities. Many rural credit schemes and especially cooperatives, have sustained heavy losses because of loan default. This has been in the public domain but little has been done because cooperative are not regarded as financial institutions. This study investigated the causes of loan default among cooperative women entrepreneurs in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. 120 women entrepreneur were selected using multi-stage sampling techniques, structured questionnaire were used to obtain data from the women entrepreneur. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and Logit regression model. Results obtained on the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents' show that majority of the respondents were between the aged group 22 - 30 (35.0%) with an average age of 41 years per entrepreneur and mostly (50.8%) practiced Islam. 47.5% were married and 82.5% had one form of formal education or the other. Factors that determine loan default among the women entrepreneur revealed credit amount received, monthly income, interest on loan and marital status emerged as reliable predictors of women loan default in the study area. It can be concluded that business failure, late disbursement of fund, inadequate loan sizes, unforeseen contingencies (such as illness and death of a family member) and high interest rate were major factors that cause loan default while, obtaining flexible payment terms, timely disbursement of the loan, adequate loan sizes, reasonable interest rate, training before and after disbursement, monitoring of client business activities and available information on client integrity were found to be best measures to control loan default. Therefore, proper training should be done to enhance the borrowers' products marketability, financial management and accounting proficiency in order to boast their business performances for reasonable profit to accrue for settlement of the loan they borrowed and Credit supervisor should check with credit officers daily to ensure that policies are followed and the supervisor must respond quickly to solve credit officers' problems.

Keywords: Causes, Loan default, Cooperative, Women entrepreneurs,

1. Introduction

The role of women entrepreneurs in national development is becoming widely recognized in both developing and developed countries (Akande, 2012). The rate at which women now contribute to economic development through their participation in micro, small and medium-scale enterprises (MSMEs) is quite unprecedented despite several barriers to the full optimization of their economic potential. Female entrepreneurs have been identified by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development as a major force for innovation, job creation and economic growth. It is a fact that improving financial support for women would increase the number of new businesses, which in turn would boost economic activity, enable the expansion of old businesses leading to increased productivity and growth.

Financial empowerment enhances the bargaining power of women at the family level and this allows larger latitude for investment in child-nutrition, health and education, thereby regenerating the future workforce. Beyond the family, financial freedom is a precursor to gender equality and consequently, the assurance of social security (Eze, Emenyonu, Henri-Ukoha, Oshaji, Ibeagwa, Chikezie and Chibundu, 2016). In as much as women have reached some heights with men in almost every field of life, there is still some level of gender bias against women in the area of credit supply from financial institutions. This has been attributed to delinquency in loans obtained and lack of self-esteem and confidence in seeking for financial assistance (Eze and Ugochukwu, 2004). The question has been, do women really need credit?

For the past decade, majority of developing countries have witnessed some financial system experiences (changes) and innovation as result of the emergence of Microfinance Institutions (MFIs). International organizations have come in terms that Cooperative Institutions are genuine and efficient ways to ensure efficient implementation of programme mainly poverty alleviation schemes (projects) as well as seeking direct information on the needs and the interest of the poor across developing countries (Mohammed and Farouq, 2018). Cooperative is the small scale financial services that are given to people who are engaged in petty business in the urban and rural communities.

Cooperative Institution may be defined as any financial institution which offers not only small loans to microenterprises, SMEs, groups and individuals but also provides other financial services like savings, insurance, and investment advice including even training programmes to its clients (Alex, 2014). According to Okpugie (2009), Microfinance program was established to give loans, saving and forms of financial services to the poor people and low income earners for use in their small and medium businesses. The purpose of micro finance is not only to provide capital but to fight poverty on individual or group of people at all levels and also create institutions that provide financial services, training to the poor in terms of how the capital is used, which are incessantly ignored by the commercial banks (Mohammed and Farouq, 2018). These institutions consist of community banks, cooperative banks, rural banks, thrift banks, credit cooperative unions and NGOs.

Promoting women's empowerment is essential because in most cases women are responsible for their children and for their family, thus empowering women is empowering the society in large (World Bank, 2001). The global statistics show that women are in charge of 60-80 percent of the world's work, and produce 50 percent of the food. Despite the fact that their contribution is significant, they have limited economic advantage and access to productive resources (Aregawi and Haileslasie, 2013).

Women themselves have improved their own recognition over the years through their vigorous and conscious efforts in organising and articulating their concerns and in making their voices heard through prominent groups such as Women Non-Governmental Organisations (WNGOs) with the hope of empowering themselves. The WNGOs have women and the girl-child as the main target with the aim of emancipating the female gender, attempting to improve their standards of living and fighting against gender inequality (Omorede, 2014).

1.2 Problem Statement

Credit provision is one of the principal components of rural development, which helps to attain rapid and sustainable growth of small scale business. Credit is a temporary substitute for personal savings, which catalysis the process of production and productivity.

Despite Nigeria's plentiful agricultural resources and oil wealth, poverty is still a challenge in the country. Women play a major role in the production, processing and marketing of food crops. Women and households headed solely by women are often the most chronically poor groups within rural communities. Men have higher social status and as a result have more access to schooling and training even though women play significant roles in rural economic activities (IFAD, 2009).

It is no longer news that gender inequality is one of the most pervasive forms of inequality, particularly because it cuts across other forms of inequality (Ogunlela and Mukhtar, 2009). In parts of West Africa, including Nigeria, women generally have usufruct rights to separate holdings through their husband's lineage. Given this matrilineal nature of Nigerian society there is a tendency to discriminate against women farmers even in credit administration by institutions involved in cooperative and agricultural finance in the absence of reliable data and knowledge of what actually determine loan repayments by credit institutions such as banks, government agencies and NGOs (Ojiegbe and Duruechi, 2015).

Adedapo (2007) opined that demand for micro credit is very high due to structure of the economy of Nigeria where majority of the workforce is working in the informal sector. This situation causes a greater risk in the industry as result of the sector it serves. In most microfinance institution, the techniques of granting loans to an individual are using based on favoritism, speculative and experience of the earlier

decision which is not data driven to objective analysis it.

Over the years, the banking industry has seen periodic bank distress and sometimes collapse, with the cooperative institutions worst affected. This difficultly of bank distress has been outlined to number of factors, well known among them are improper risk management, favoritism, lack of unqualified personnel, economic factors such as the high interest rate, unstable inflation rate, and non-compliance to monitory and regulatory authorities (Allen DeLong and Saunders, 2004). Autio, Kaartinen and Lähteenmaa (2009) argue that credit risk continues to be a danger to microfinance sustainability.

Loan portfolio represents the highest operating cost and source of revenue to many of the cooperative institutions. However, most of loans given out to customers turn out to be non performing which have affected on the profitability and the general performing of financial lending institutions in developing countries. Most of the microfinance institutions that lend money in Osun State and Nigeria as whole are faced with problem of increasing nonperforming loans portfolios in spite of attempts to decrease the problem.

The sustainability of cooperative institutions depends mainly on the willingness to collect the loans well and competently as possible. That is financial viability depend on cooperative institution ensuring that their customers pay back their loans (low default of loan) and ensuring due diligent are done when loans are issued. In recent times, there have been complaints from customers that most of the cooperative do not pay back their interest accrued from the money and actual money. These cooperative attributed to the high default rate of clients which means that majority of microfinance institutions (including cooperative) are not attaining the internationally accepted standard risk of 3% of the bank's portfolio which raise concern on impact of businesses, individuals and the economy at large. However, in order to empirically determine causes of loan default among cooperative women entrepreneurs, a study of this nature becomes imperative as there is paucity of information to that effect in the study area.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study was to assess the loan default among cooperative women food entrepreneurs in Ifo Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

- describe the socio-economic characteristics of the women entrepreneurs;
- identify the various loan sources used by the respondent;
- identify the causes to loan default by the respondent;
- assess the determinant factors influencing loan default among the respondent; and
- examine the measures for controlling loan default among the respondent in the study area.

2. Conceptual Framework

The diagrammatic representation of conceptual framework shows how the variables are related. Diversion of loan borrowed, finance management practices, amount of loan borrowed and shrinking economic condition are independent variables in which the dependent variable, loan default depends.

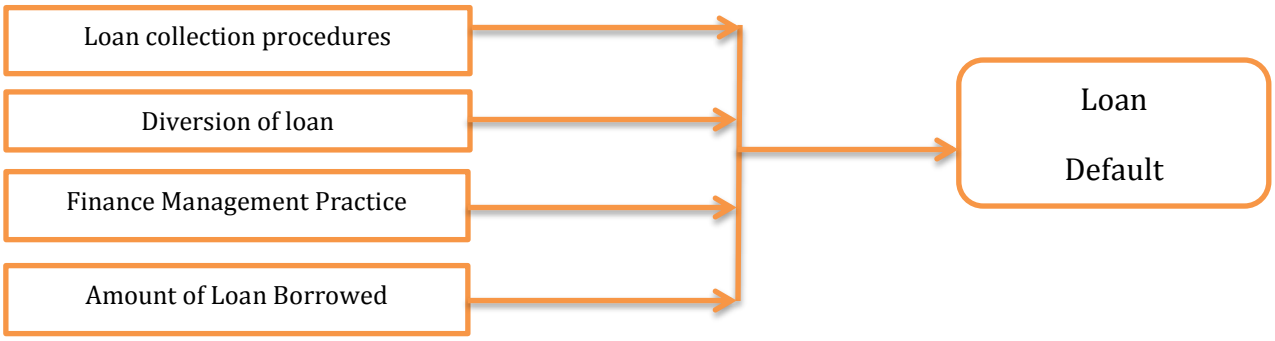

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: *Munyua (2016).*

2.1 Operationalization

While there appear to be consensus on what constitutes a negative business environment, much less has been written about what a positive one looks like. There are a few generally agreed-upon characteristics, however consistent, business owners know what to expect and can assess risks: a stable macro-economic environment, since knowing what to expect from future can be as or more important than having a low inflation rate or favourable currency position today; the existence of mechanisms for contract enforcement and dispute resolution; an uninhibited flow of capital for foreign and domestic investment; a flexible labour regime; access to information, and investment in education and technology. For these and other reasons, Cooperative tends to grow more than their formal counter parts do.

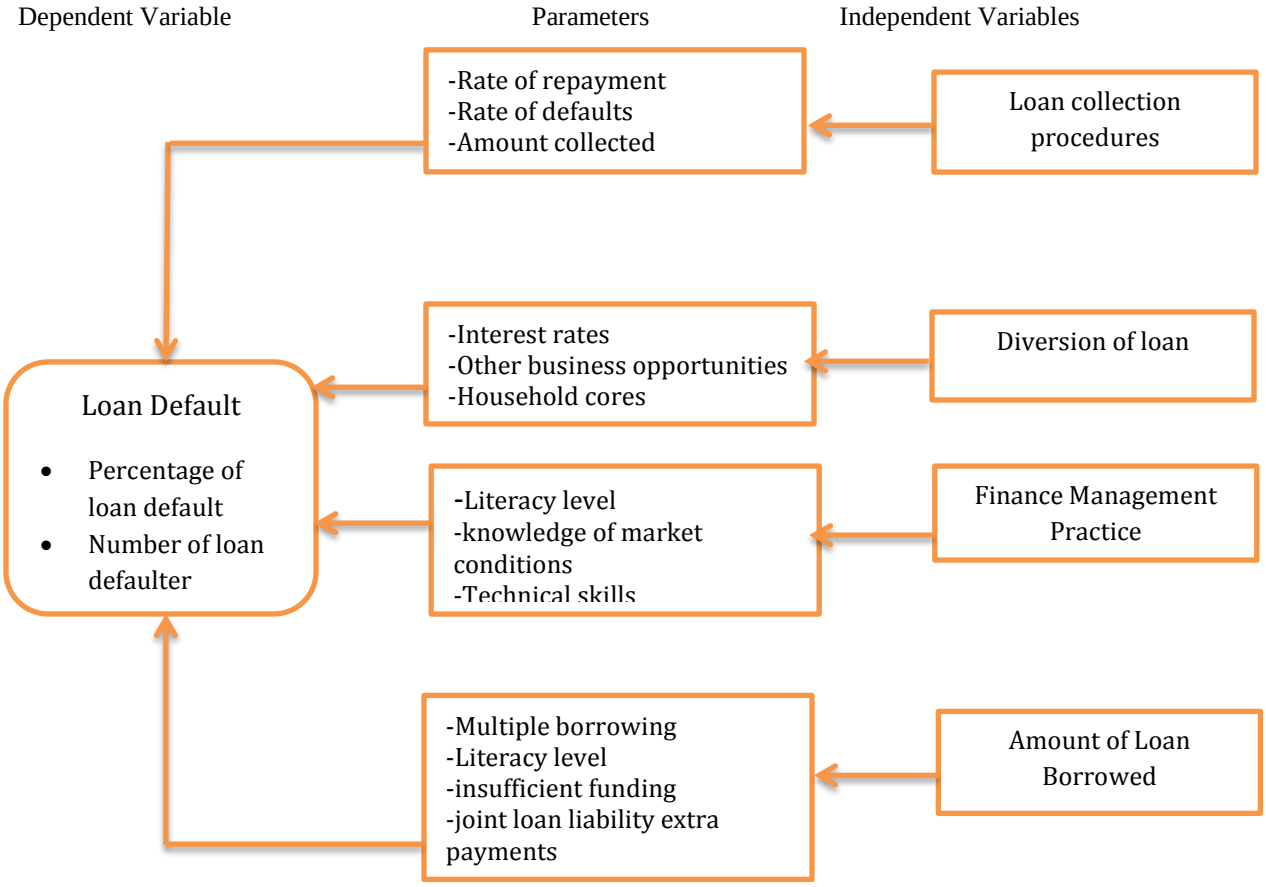

Figure 2: Operational Framework
Source: Munyua (2016)

3. Methodology

3.1 Study Area

The study area is Ifo Local government Area of Ogun State. The Local Government covers an area of about 82,000 square kilometers with an estimated population of 539,170 according to 2006 National Population Census figure. Its headquarters are in the town of Ifo. It is bounded in the North and South by Ewekoro Local Government Area and Ado-Odo/Ota Local Government Area respectively. It also shares boundaries with Obafemi/Owode Local Government and Lagos State in the Eastern part while it is bordered in the West by Egbado South Local Government.

The state has a tropical climate with rainforest vegetation on its Southern part and a derived savannah on its Northern end. The shorter dry season lasts for 4 months from November to February. Average annual rainfall ranges from 1,200mm in Northern part to 1,472 in the Southern part. The monthly daily sunshine hours range between 3.8 and 6.8. The relatively humidity ranges between 76% and 95% coinciding with dry and wet seasons respectively.

The majority of inhabitants are Yorubas made up of Egba Alake, Egba Oke-Ona, Egba Gbagura, Egba Owu and the Aworis. Other ethnic groups such as Hausa, Igbo, Tvis, Egun and many others are also residents in the local government. On the side of religion, the Local Government could be described as one of the most peaceful and tolerant Local Governments in the State as individuals/group of individuals practice their religion without any fear of harassment or molestation. While some are Christian and Islam, others held on to their traditional religion.

3.2 Method of data collection

Data used for this study consisted of both primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained with the aid of well-structured questionnaires which were administered to selected women entrepreneurs in Ife South Local Government Area of Osun State. The secondary data were obtained from published journals, books, Internet, periodicals, government official websites and other relevant sources.

3.3 Sampling technique

A multi-stage sampling procedure and purposive sampling was employed to select communities, villages and respondents. In stage one, five (5) communities were purposively selected. The purposive selection of the communities was based on abundant women entrepreneurs. In the second stage, two (2) villages were selected from each of the five (5) communities. Finally twelve (12) women entrepreneurs were randomly selected from each of the ten (10) villages and a total of one hundred and twenty women (120) entrepreneurs were selected for detailed study.

3.4 Method of data analysis

The data were analyzed using descriptive such as frequency distribution table and percentage responses, inferential statistics such as Logit model.

Factors influencing loan default among the respondents

Logit model was used to assess the determinant factors influencing loan default among the respondent. The Logit model is expressed as:

Model specification

$$Y = \ln\left(\frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\right) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_2 + ... + \alpha_k X_k + \varepsilon_i$$

Where:
Y is dichotomous dependent variable which can be explained as;
Y = 1, if cooperative women entrepreneurs is default,
Y = 0, if cooperative women entrepreneurs is not default, and
X's = independent variables defined as follows:
X_1 = Credit amount received in (₦)
X_2 = Educational level of the cooperative women entrepreneurs (Years spent in school)
X_3 = Monthly income (₦).
X_4 = Household size (number)
X_5 = Interest on loan (₦).
X_6 = Entrepreneur's experience (Years)
X_7 = Age of cooperative women entrepreneurs (Years).
X_8 = Marital status (Marital status = 1; 0 otherwise)

4. Results and Discussion

Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Women Entrepreneurs

This section presents the result of descriptive analysis aimed at describing the socio-economic characteristics of the women entrepreneur in the study area. The socio-economic variables examine includes age, marital status, education level, household size, working experience and annual income is presented in Table 1. The result shows that the average age of the respondents is 41 years, thus they are still in their productive age, about 75.8% of the respondents are between 22 – 50 years of age, this implies that women entrepreneur are very active in age and could utilize loan maximally. Majority (47.5%) of respondents are married, it shows that they are responsible and would use loan very productively. About 82% of the respondents are literate. Education will afford the women the opportunity to read and write and also to be able to process information that can enhance their access to loan. About 60% of the respondents are with household size ranging from 1 – 4, with average of 4 household members, this implies that increasing in family size would increase demand for loan in order to assist in catering for their family and also pay less for labour in their business. About 57.5% of the respondents are with working experience ranging from 1 – 10 years with average of 12 years. This is enough to run effective and efficient business, as experience is mostly important in business. About 26% of the respondents earned annual income between ₦601,000 – ₦800,000 with average income of ₦821,255. This shows that the income earned is still fair and that loan received has significant effect on their business.

Table 1: Socioeconomics characteristics distribution of respondents

Variables	*Frequency*	*Percentage*	*Mean*
Age(years)			
22 - 30	42	35.0	
31 - 40	24	20.0	
41 - 50	25	20.8	41 years
51 - 60	14	11.7	
> 60	15	12.5	
Marital status			
Single	31	25.8	
Married	57	47.5	
Divorced	9	7.5	
Widow	20	16.7	
Separated	3	2.5	
Education level			
No formal education	21	17.5	
Primary education	21	17.5	
Secondary education	32	26.7	
Tertiary education	46	38.3	
Household size			
1 – 4	72	60.0	
5 – 8	43	35.8	4 household member
> 8	5	4.2	
Working experience			
1 - 10 years	69	57.5	
11 - 20 years	21	17.5	12 years
> 20 years	30	25.0	
Annual Income (₦)			
120,000 - 400,000	19	15.8	
401,000 - 600,000	25	20.8	
601,000 - 800,000	32	26.7	
801,000 - 1,000,000	19	15.8	₦821,255
> 1,000,000	25	20.8	
Total	**120**	**100.0**	

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

Various loan sources used by the respondent

Various loan sources used by the women entrepreneur are presented in Table 2. Commercial Banks, friends, relative and personal saving were the only sources of fund available to the women entrepreneur in the study area. Majority (70.8%) of the women entrepreneur sources their business with their personal saving while others include; commercial banks (29.2%), loan from relatives (10.0%) and donation from friends (5.0%).

Table 2: Sources of fund used by the respondents

Sources	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Donation from friends	6	5.0
Loan from relatives	12	10.0
Personal savings	85	70.8
Commercial Bank	35	29.2

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

The implication is that the major sources of fund among the women entrepreneur were non-institutional sources. Credit from non-institutional sources is more attractive, because there is little or no insistence on collateral security. On the other hand, formal sources of credit had low patronage from the women entrepreneur, which may be due to lack or limited presence of banks in the study area, coupled with delay in approval and disbursement of loan and insistence on collateral security.

Causes to loan default by the respondent

The causes of loan default as perceived by the women entrepreneur is presented on Table 3. The result showed that business failure was the major (67.5%) cause of loan default, followed by inadequate loan size (63.3%), unforeseen contingencies, for instance illness and death of a family member (60.0%), unfavourable payment terms (60.0%), high interest rate (59.2%) and late disbursement of the loan (59.2%). This could be attributed to bureaucratic practices of most lending institutions in the study area. Clients' requests pass from table to table and this prolongs the management appraisals and results to late disbursement of fund. Late receipt of loan delays the buying of good

and services at the right time, and results poor sales which lead to business failure. This may result to loan default. This finding concurs with Agada *et al.* (2018) that early disbursement of fund is critical to minimize default. Other causes of loan default include: lack of awareness (55.0%), lack of training for the clients before and after disbursement (53.3%) and lack of supervision (42.5%).

Table 3: Cause of loan default

Causes	Frequency	Percentage
Late disbursement of the loan	71	59.2
Business failure	81	67.5
Unfavourable payment terms	72	60.0
High interest rate	71	59.2
Inadequate loan sizes	76	63.3
Unforeseen contingencies (illness and death of a family member, etc)	72	60.0
Lack of training for the clients before and after disbursement	64	53.3
Lack of proper and adequate supervision	51	42.5
Lack of awareness	66	55.0

Source: Field Survey, 2019 *Multiple response

Factors influencing loan default among the respondent

The result of Table 4 showed the report of factors influencing loan default among the respondents and it was achieved using Logit regression analysis. The diagnostic test shows that the Chi-Square is significant at 1% probability level and this attests to the normality of the regression errors indicating that the inclusion of independent variables significantly predicted the dependent variables in the specified binomial regressions.

The log likelihood values for the models are significant and similar thus confirming the fitness of the models and implies that the independent variables are important explanatory factors of the variations in the probability of loan default among the women entrepreneur in the study area. The results of the Logit model reveal that the coefficient of credit amount received by women entrepreneur is significant at 1% probability level and positively related to the probability of loan default. This implies that increase in amount received as loan will lead to increase in probability of being default, ceteris paribus. The result is in line with the a priori expectation as increased in credit size in the face of multifarious factors affecting sale in the developing economies would likely bring about increased in loan default among beneficiaries. Oladeebo and Oladeebo (2008) in Oyo state obtained similar results respectively.

The coefficient of monthly income is significant at 5% probability level and negatively correlated to the probability of being loan default among the respondents in the area. This implies that a unit increase in borrower's monthly income every other things remaining constant, will result in 0.7569 reductions in the probability of being loan default. The result is as expected because as the monthly income of the borrower's increases, part of the income will be channel to loan repayment.

Interest on loan has a significant positive relationship with the probability of being loan default among women entrepreneur in the area. The result agrees with a priori expectation as higher interest rate will induce higher the probability of women entrepreneur being default on borrowed money. The result could be linked to the urge by informal lenders to incorporate high risk premium and the cost of asymmetric information in the rural credit market.

The marital status coefficient has a significant positive effect at 5% significant level on the probability of women entrepreneur being loan default in the area. The result implies that married entrepreneurs are more likely to default. The possible reason for this result could be that most respondents diversify the loan into catering for their children needs.

Table 4: Logit regression estimates of determinants of loan default among the respondents

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t-ratio
Constant	-3.0254**	1.4452	-2.093
Credit amount received	0.1092***	0.0240	4.558
Educational level	0.0435	0.0557	0.781
Monthly income	-0.7569**	0.3475	-2.178
Household size	0.1671	0.1195	1.399
Interest on loan	0.1526***	0.0600	2.542
Entrepreneur's experience	-0.0782	0.0555	-1.410
Age	0.0208	0.0418	0.498
Marital status	1.1714**	0.5063	2.313
log-likelihood	-62.4619		
LR (Chi^2)	32.7940***		

******* and ****** implies significant at 1% and 5% respectively.

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

Measures for controlling loan default among the respondent

The result of measures control loan default is shown in Table 5. From the result it was revealed that flexible payment terms (70.8%) is the best measure to control loan default, followed by timely disbursement of loan (67.5%), adequate loan size (66.7%) and reasonable interest rate (65.0%). It is important to disburse adequate amount of loan which is proportionate to business expenses, this is a measure that is capable of preventing default. This is because if the amount is granted proportionately, there will be no room for wastage and the business will not be under funded. Underestimation can impact dependencies and the overall quality of the project. Overestimation may be wasteful for the resources on a particular task, but it is less likely to impact other tasks or overall quality. The result further revealed that training of borrowers before and after disbursement was indicated by 59.2% of the lenders. Prevention is better than cure. Borrowers are made aware of the condition of loan in the offer letter presented to them by the lending institutions and this plays an important role in loan default prevention.

Table 5: Measure to control loan default

Measures	Frequency	Percentage
Timely disbursement of the loan	81	67.5
Training before and after disbursement	71	59.2
Flexible payment terms	85	70.8
Reasonable interest rate	78	65.0
adequate loan sizes	80	66.7
Obtaining available information on client integrity	45	37.5
Monitoring of client business activities	58	48.3

Source: *Field Survey, 2019* *Multiple response

Others measures are monitoring of borrowers business activities (48.3%) and obtaining available information on client integrity (37.5%). This is an appraisal issue. Borrower's integrity is a key factor in appraisal process. Lending officers consider borrowing proportion and subsequent repayment in isolation from security. The borrowers are screened based on the future and the past. Lending is based on integrity, liquidity, purpose, profitability, spread, and suitability.

5. Conclusion

Evidence attained from this study show that business failure, late disbursement of fund, inadequate loan sizes, unforeseen contingencies (for instance illness and death of a family member) and high interest rate were major factors that cause loan default while, obtaining flexible payment terms, timely disbursement of the loan, adequate loan sizes, reasonable interest rate, training before and after disbursement, monitoring of client business activities and available information on client integrity were found to be best measures to control loan default.

With reference to the factors that determine loan default among the women entrepreneur; credit amount received, monthly income, interest on loan and marital status are significant in influencing the probability of loan default among the women entrepreneur.

6. Recommendations

Based on the conclusion above, the following recommendations are proffered:

- Proper training should be done to enhance the borrowers' products marketability, financial management and accounting proficiency in order to boast their business performances for reasonable profit to accrue for settlement of the loan they borrowed.
- The credit supervisor should check with credit officers daily to ensure that policies are followed and the supervisor must respond quickly to solve credit officers' problems. It makes no sense to have strong policies on paper that are not implemented in the field. More so, adequate visits enable credit officers to develop relationships in their neighbourhoods. Management and credit officers need to pay attention to details.
- Government and Cooperative should come together to reduce the lending interest rate by designing policies to help shape the Cooperative industry in the area.
- There should be effective and regular monitoring of the loan from the time of disbursement till the final repayment. This will help to prevent diversion and misapplication of funds which are identified.

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Migration in Edo State: Vocational Skill Acquisition Centers to the Rescue

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Abstract. This paper advocates that vocational skill acquisition centers can be a vital tool in curtailing the menace of migration in Edo state. It identifies certain factors such as lack of livelihood opportunities, unemployment, and poverty amongst others as some of the major triggers responsible for the seemingly irrepressible steady rise in the number of people seeking greener pastures abroad and amongst the West African Nations. However, Bernd and Alexandra (2018) stated that most of the trafficked women from Europe are believed to be from Edo state or its immediate neighborhood. A proactive action through Vocational skill acquisition centers in Edo state can help redeem the image of the state. This paper x-rays the line of relationship that exists between vocational skill acquisition centers and irregular migration trend in Edo State. And advocates that perhaps the most effective way to put a leash on the staggering trend of migration is to set up Vocational skill acquisition centers in nooks and crannies of Edo State as well as equip existing ones with programmes and modern sought-after skills that can make them relevant in their home country and empowered them to be self-reliant.

Keywords: Migration, Vocational Skill Acquisition Centers.

1. Introduction

While migration simply refers to the movement from one country or place to live and work in another, the movement of persons to other countries that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the State of origin, transit or destination is known as irregular migration. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) defines irregular migration as the movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving country. It is an all-encompassing term used to describe all forms of movement into a foreign country without satisfying existing rules and regulations for such travel. Irregular migrants also refer to foreigners living/working in a foreign country without proper documentation and/or satisfying the regulations and laws for migration.

According to the report by IOM (2017), migration from Edo sate and Nigeria in general to Europe has gained increased and extensive attention through popular discourse and media coverage over the last years. The report further gave an appearance of African migrants, based on three main assumptions: migration from the African continent is steadily increasing, it is mainly directed toward Europe, and its main drivers are poverty, lack of opportunities, and general violence. Over the years it has become a sort of normalized practice that a considerable number of Nigerians (an evident proportion from Edo State) escape year in year out through any possible means, rout or conditions with the goal of migrating into Europe and other developed Nations as they run from economic, social and political problems inherent in developing nations like Nigeria (Mohammed 2016). Human trafficking, modern slavery, smuggling of drugs and all forms of socio-economic vices are some of the problems associated with irregular migration as illegal migrants are rather inclined to all manner of crimes just to survive or fulfill the demands of their sponsors. The singularities and havoc associated with this type of migration has maligned the image and values of Nigeria amongst the community of Nations.

According to Crawley, Düvell, Jones and Skleparis (2016), there are certain drivers that influence this trend of irregular migration and until these drivers are

identified and addressed, irregular migration from Edo State and Nigeria in general would continue to be a cause of worry. Crawley, et al (2016) further opined in a survey carried out with respondents along the Central Mediterranean route on the triggers why people decide to travel abroad, amongst the triggers identified are lack of livelihood opportunities, as well as the insecurities created by unemployment and poverty. This goes to show the level of relationship that exists between economic engagement for citizens and irregular migration. The failure of the state to create an industrialized society that can engage our youths and give them a sense of economic security and productivity is a motivational factor leading to irregular migration (Solesi, 2014). Unemployment and the shortage of vocational skills are some of the developmental problems faced in Edo State and this is one of the major reasons why youths are constantly trying to cross borders illegally in search of greener pastures. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2019) the national unemployment rates for Nigeria between 2000 and 2019 showed that the number of unemployed persons constitutes 31.1% in 2000 and 23.1% as at June 2019. In light of the shortage of industries, technological advancements and the staggering rate of unemployment, Solesi further posits that the key indices necessary for adequate national development, capacity for improvement and sustenance of human development must be predicated on development of competent skills. These key indices are monitored by the establishment of structures and processes for transferring of such skills and competencies from one group of workers to another and from one generation to another.

Vocational skills acquisition is the process of learning skills that one can make a career off. It involves the development of new skills that can enable one become economically self-reliant and gainfully employed. Ogundele, Akingbade, and Akinlabi (2012) stressed that the contribution of Vocational Skill Acquisition Centers and Training on unemployment reduction through youth empowerment and social welfare service improvement will be much significant if introduced at all levels of the state. This will help curtail the excessive ambitions to find greener pastures abroad. Akpama, Esang, Asor, and Osang (2011) observed that acquisition of vocational skills lead to significant reduction of poverty among young adults who participated in vocational skills acquisition programmes.

The skills acquisition centers monitored by government in Edo State include: Edo Food and Agricultural Cluster (EDO-FAC) located at Ehor: A cluster that caters for everything agriculture. Edo Innovates Hub located at Institute of Continuing Education, Wire Road: A hub for ICT-based trainings. Edo Production Centre located at Magistrate Court, Benin-Sapele Road: A center to support growth of small and medium scale businesses. Edo Creative Hub; proposed to facilitate skills needed in the entertainment industry. In spite of these emergent responsibilities by State and Federal Government, the Human Development Index still shows a low level of development in the country (IOM, 2009). Based on the IOM report, the low Human Development Index value indicates that Edo State and Nigeria scores low in all the three dimensions of human development: that is, living a long and healthy life, being educated and having a decent standard of living.

2. Overview of the Trend of Irregular Migration in Nigeria

According to the report from IOM (2009) not less than 59,000 Nigerians were then in Northern African countries without valid travel documents. This number represented those who were in transit waiting for the opportunity to migrate to the West. In 2007 alone, almost 6,500 Nigerian citizens were apprehended in the European Union for illegal immigration. This number represented the largest population among the countries of the ECOWAS region. The large majority of apprehensions were carried out in Italy (2,523) and Spain (1,243). In the same year, 1,422 Nigerian citizens were removed from the European Union and as in the case of apprehension; removed Nigerians represented the largest number in the ECOWAS region (IOM 2009).

Irregular migrants come under two categories: those who enter the destination countries legally and overstay their visa, and those who leave Nigeria without proper travel documentation or entered the destination countries improperly. In addition, the categories of migrants who enter through the unofficial routes fall under the definition of irregular immigrants (IOM, 2009). In Nigeria figures indicate that more people are moving out of the country as emigrants than those coming in as immigrants. This trend has been confirmed in recent years and it appears it could further increase in the future.

3. Relationship between Migration and Economic Performance

Earlier in the 1950s emigration began with the elites and it was mainly for educational and administrative

purposes. This trend increased after Nigeria gained independence in 1966. These movements to the UK and the US were mostly people with professional skills leaving for school, work and business (Mberu & Pongou, 2010). However during the 1970s Nigeria experienced a substantial influx of foreigners which was caused by Nigeria's oil wealth after 1973 and many West-Africans seeking employment in Nigeria (De Haas and Flahaux, 2016). Conversely, in the early 1980s oil prices began to drop and the economy faced a downturn along with political repression and violence. As a consequence many of the labor migrants, about one million Ghanaians, were forced to leave Nigeria. The declining price of oil was what set Nigeria on a reverse gear from a highly sought after nation to a nation where citizens are scrambling to leave. This suggests that there is an incontrovertible relationship between economy of a nation and its migration trend. This period was described by Black, Kniveton, Skeldon, Coppard, Murata and Schmidt-Verkerk (2004) as Nigeria's "reverse migration transition" as the country was transforming from being a net immigration to a net emigration country. Ogundele et al (2012) suggests that Vocational skill acquisition centers have an important role in economic revival, one can therefore suspect that to undo this migration trend and set Nigeria back to a nation where citizens will prefer to live, work and invest, the role of vocational skill acquisition centers cannot be over emphasized.

4. Edo State in Focus

According to Bernd and Alexandra (2018) the Nigerian State of Edo is a primary source area for women and girls who are trafficked to Italy for sexual exploitation. Most of the trafficked women in Europe are believed to be from Edo state, with Italy being the most important destination for trafficked persons from Nigeria. Also, from a small survey sample of 65 Nigerians who did manage to make their way to Europe, half came from Edo State. Both the domestic and international press has also reported on the unusual place Benin City occupies in the migration corridor to Europe (Bernd and Alexandra, 2018). From January to September 2017, IOM "helped more than 2,400 stranded Nigerian migrant returnees from Libya . . . more than half of them are from Benin City or nearby villages in Edo state.

The status of Benin City as the single most important point of origin of Nigerian migrants dates back to the 1980s, when a number of Edo women were recruited for agricultural labor in Italy, but many ended up working as prostitutes (Okonofua, Ogbomwan, Alutu, Okop, and Aghahowa, 2004). Trafficking networks continued to foster, as migration became a generic and normalized option in Benin City, propagating through family and other social networks. Traffickers in turn benefit from economies of scale, because Benin City's pool of potential migrants is large. It is a sizable city, relatively educated population, and home to one of the largest universities in the country, but lacks as much economic opportunities available in a city like Lagos.

4.1 Factors that influence Migration in Edo State

Regardless of the state, the same factors are always put forward to explain the reason for the departures:

- Economic factors; poverty, unemployment.
- Demographic factors; population growth, urban growth.
- Environmental factors; flood, erosion, drought.
- Political or religious unrest.

According to a research conducted for the ICMPD on the root causes of irregular immigration, it highlights an even more detailed aspect of the reasons underlying these factors. Emigration is not simply described as a search for better living conditions, but a means to escape the humiliation linked to the inability to provide or maintain a fulfilling lifestyle (Lucie and Nelly, 2018). Economic factors such as extreme poverty, or other form of economic insecurities create a major potential for migration, while certain circumstances help transform this potential to actual migrations. The Eurostat survey enabled a detailed analysis of the reasons behind irregular migration. Two major reasons that influenced migration were: economic reasons; improving jobs, better income, better standard of living. Family reasons; family reunification with successfully escaped members or facilitators. Other reasons include educational studies, fear of war or persecution, retirement, end of employment contracts, homesickness, expulsion. (Lucie and Nelly, 2018).

West Africans who would migrate if given the means and opportunity were far more likely to cite economic benefits as their primary motivation (better jobs and pay, and the opportunity to send money home) than to mention gaining personal freedom, furthering their education, or escaping insecurity. Focus groups held with West Africans headed to Europe via Libya confirmed the survey results that migrants are motivated primarily by quest for economic opportunities (Kirwin and Anderson, 2018). The number of Nigerians leaving the country for a better life abroad is alarming and this is not only

injurious to the image of Nigeria as a country but also to the migrants themselves; the xenophobic looting and killing of foreign nationals in South Africa in recent years and several reports by the BBC of Edo citizens and other West African migrants in Libya, Europe and far Asia who are captured, mutilated and sold as merchandise, a phenomenon that has been popularized as modern slavery are some of the problems associated with the failure of the West African States, Nigeria and Edo State especially to creates a sense of economic security and purpose for citizens (Hegarty 2018). It is therefore reasonable to suspect that if migrants especially from Edo State had the means and opportunity in their hometowns, they would be less motivated to travel to other countries or continents, notwithstanding the perilous journey and opportunistic wrongdoings ahead.

5. Concept of Vocational Skill Acquisition

Skills are abilities that come from knowledge, practice and objective to do something well. **Vocation is a** type of work undertaken for utilitarian purpose such as the earning of a living or for national development. Vocational skill acquisition is therefore defined as the process of acquiring skills that don't require excessive mental intelligence for the purpose of becoming economically self-reliant (Foluke, 2013). It is a state of being able to do or decide a thing by oneself rather than depending on other people for help. Vocational skills include Barbing, Fashion Design, Automobile Repairs, Painting, Tiling, and Catering. Aside from these simple skills, we have another type which allows educated people to get the skills that would help them become experts in certain fields such as information technology, computer work (web design, software development, cyber-security), management and administration (project management, communication skills), media skills (cinematography, video editing, script writing, sound editing, performing arts).

Presently in Edo state, less than ten skill acquisition centers provide these trainings and various categories of persons have developed skills for employment in each of the centers for Edo residents and indigenes. Some include:

- Skill Acquisition Center Evbomodu Benin-Auchi Expressway.
- Pathons fashion academic Ihama Road GRA.
- Edo Production Centre located at Magistrate court Benin-Sapele Road.
- D.O.F Institute of Catering and Hotel Management, Upper Sakponba.
- Edo Food and Agricultural Cluster (EDO-FAC) located at Ehor.
- Edo Innovates Building at Institute of Continuing Education road, off Wire Road.

Okere (2018) in a news media reported that a total of 302 Libyan returnees recently graduated under skills development program organized by the Edo State Government. The Chairperson of the State task force against human trafficking, Prof. Yinka Omorogbe, explained that the two-week vocational training was part of efforts to ease the re-integration of the returnees into the society. She said, "Specifically, 163 of the returnees acquired skills in make-up, 92 in basic sewing, while 47 were trained in the art of bead making." The State Government also promised to assist the returnees who had successfully acquired skills in different trades to enable them set up small-scale businesses. One can argue that if these empowerment programs and open support were brought within the reach of these returnees before their journey began, they would have thought less about seeking for unsafe prospects elsewhere

6. Vocational and Technical Education

In Edo State, Vocational and Technical Education is offered in both Junior and Senior Secondary school levels. At the junior secondary level subjects offered are grouped under pre-vocational subjects. While at the senior secondary school level subjects offered are expected to conform to the general objectives of vocational and technical education in the country as contained in the National Policy on Education. Nigeria introduced a new senior secondary education model that emphasizes the skills as well as the academic development of learners. The skills component of the model is being pursued through the teaching and learning of vocational (trade-based) subjects developed by the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), Nigeria's agency for curriculum development. The trade subjects which are taught together with the academic oriented school subjects, allow students to acquire specific vocational skills in at least one trade area, based on students' choice. A fundamental gap was observed after five years of implementing the new education model. It revealed that, while students had learned the trades, they lacked the entrepreneurial skills and ingenuity to deploy the acquired skills for profitable economic ventures. In 2017, the curricula were reformed and a new trade and entrepreneurship curriculum was introduced to provide students with practical opportunities to acquire entrepreneurial competences alongside their trade-specific skills, by taking part in in-school

small-scale businesses ventures, to prepare them better for the world of work (International Bureau of Education, 2018).

7. Conclusion

The paper concluded that if the Federal Government aids the state in their development - on economic, social, political and environmental levels – through vocational skill acquisition policies, perhaps the citizens of Edo State will no longer be attracted by the idea of leaving: there will be no reason motivating the desire to leave one's country. Irregular migration would be eradicated.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made:

- Seeking to create more opportunities from Vocational Skill Acquisition for the country's ever-growing population.
- Empowering the youth population with marketable skills by setting up vocational skill acquisition centers and engaging every member of the society with diverse skills.
- Taking deliberate steps in revitalizing the economy and utilizing its rich human and natural resources.
- Developing aid programs and policies to monitor the structures put forward.
- Vocational Skill Acquisition Centers and Programs should be centered on the eradication of poverty, through the promotion of economic growth, job creation and promotion of good governance and human rights.
- Evenly distribution of these centers across the state to reach out to even those settled beyond the state capital, as these ones are identified as the most vulnerable.

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Prior Knowledge, Creativity and Entrepreneurial Alertness of Undergraduate Students in Ogun State-Owned Universities

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Abstract. This research examined prior knowledge, creativity, and entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities, Nigeria. A descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. Six hundred (600) respondents were selected as the sample for this study. The respondents were randomly drawn from four (4) Faculties (Faculty of Science, Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Administrations and Management Science. Prior knowledge to the business questionnaire, Creativity questionnaire, and Entrepreneurial alertness scale were used as instruments for data collection. The statistical methods of analysis used for testing the raised research questions were independent t-test and regression analysis at 0.05 level of significance. Findings revealed that there Prior knowledge of entrepreneurship and creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students. It was recommended among others that more activities will provide opportunities to gain authentic experience that will create bridges between the knowledge gained and the application of that knowledge in practice should be enforced in our tertiary institutions.

Keywords: Prior Knowledge, Creativity, Entrepreneurial Alertness, Opportunity recognition and Undergraduates

1. Introduction

Unemployment issue is one of the factors affecting the economic security of Nigerians, and this is a big challenge to the government, the masses and even researchers. Due to the rising unemployment rates and the richer opportunities offered by rapid globalization and marketization (Hu, Wang, Zhang & Bin, 2018), the call for tertiary institutions students to start their own businesses becomes imperative. This necessitated the introduction of entrepreneurship education in order to alleviate the problem and to encourage Nigerian graduate to become job creators instead of job seekers. This has led to the adoption of entrepreneurship studies as a general course for all university students so as to encourage educational institutions to develop entrepreneurial intention and to address the issue of graduate unemployment (Fungai Roseline, Rumbidzai, Njanike, Silas and Fungai, 2011).

Despite the introduction of entrepreneurship education, majority of the students' alertness to opportunities around them are questionable, they do not show the intention of using the skills possessed to create opportunities for themselves (Okafor, Iloani, Onochie, Abah, Ramoni & Edozie, 2018). Entrepreneurial alertness is describe as "the ability to recognise opportunities, and is the result obtained after receiving entrepreneurial education". The teaching of entrepreneurship education in our tertiary institutions supposes to motivate the generation of entrepreneurial intentions through improving the entrepreneurial alertness of the students (Sang & Lin, 2019).

According to **Montiel-Campos (2018), the term entrepreneurial alertness** was first used by Kirznerin 1973. He described it as a distinctive set of perceptual and cognitive processing skills that direct the opportunity recognition process that are overlooked for others. Entrepreneurial alertness is

important for recognizing the opportunities which can assist in availing the needed opportunities (Alvi, Sharma & Alvi, 2017). Tang, Kcamar and Busentiz (2012) describes entrepreneurial alertness as a particular idea that contributes significantly to our perceiving ability to initiate and pursue a new plan, has been acknowledged as the key for opportunity identification. Entrepreneurial alertness is an ability which can be investigated either as a cognitive feature or a conscious search behaviour, for it increases the individual's awareness about his surrounding environment and access to information, and consequently leads him to identify more opportunities (Puhakka, 2011).

Tang, Kacmar, and Busenitz (2012), in their view, conceptualise entrepreneurial alertness into three distinct elements, which are: Scanning and searching for new information, association and connection of that information with existing knowledge, and evaluation and judgment. Consequently, alertness is linked to students' creativity or students' ability to produce new and apt ideas. For students to develop an enterprising disposition which entrepreneurial capability represents, students must acquire a creative skill, and be well disposed to problem solving (Aboluwodi, 2018). In spite of the fact that creativity had been linked to entrepreneurial alertness and opportunity (Tang et al., 2012; Ghasemi & Rowshan, 2016; Montiel-Campos, 2016), only a small number of research has explicitly and empirically addressed creativity as an antecedent of entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduates in Nigeria.

Creativity is a key element of entrepreneurship, as it contributes to the unfolding of the whole entrepreneurial process and, within the entrepreneurial process, it entails ideas that are novel and useful for recognition of opportunities that can lead to new entrepreneurial ventures (Biraglia and Kadile, 2017; McMullan and Kenworthy, 2015; Gielnik, Frese, Graf, and Kampschulte, 2012; Shane, 2012; Heinonen, Hytti, and Stenholm, 2011). This is why Puhakka (2011) described Entrepreneurial alertness to business opportunity as the creativity of an individual, consisting of creativity base, creative process and creative product. According to Tang, Kacmar and Busenitz in Montiel-Campos (2018), creative potential is related to the level of practised creativity and that practised creativity, in turn, is related to the recognition of opportunities through the concept of entrepreneurial alertness. Shepherd and Patzelt (2018) believed that prior knowledge is an important element of creativity, because the prior possession of relevant knowledge and skill is what gives rise to creativity, that increase individuals' ability not only to produce more opportunities but also to enhance the level of innovativeness.

According to Hajizadeh and Mohammadreza (2016), entrepreneurial perception and creation can be facilitated through prior knowledge. According to Shepherd and Patzelt (2018), Prior knowledge is the unique information a person has on a particular topic which can be gained through education, experience and experiential learning that can enable that person to recognize particular opportunities. Prior knowledge acts as a guide that helps persons to pursue a situation as an opportunity (Nimeshi, 2018). Prior knowledge with the assistance of entrepreneurship education does trigger individual alertness into identifying gaps or opportunities that have been overlooked by others (Solesvik, 2013). Prior knowledge and information contribute to the development of one's repository of domain-specific tacit and explicit knowledge. This knowledge serves as the foundation for the development of cognitive frameworks that are required for processing and utilizing stored information. The knowledge can be garnered through education. Therefore, such entrepreneurial education enhances learner's entrepreneurial alertness ability.

Several researchers (Ghasemi & Rowshan, 2016; Li, Wang & Liang, 2015) in other countries had discovered that students' prior experience or knowledge, creativity in entrepreneurial activities have significant influence on students' entrepreneurial alertness. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the composite and relative influences of prior knowledge and creativity on entrepreneurial alertness are still under-explored among Nigerian undergraduates. It is therefore important to connect prior knowledge and creativity with entrepreneurial alertness of Nigerian students to provide new theoretical and practical insights to how the teaching of entrepreneurship education can help to reducing the problem of unemployment in Nigeria, hence, this study on prior knowledge, creativity and entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities. Specifically, the following research questions were raised to guide the study:

- What is the level of entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?
- Is there any significant influence of prior knowledge of entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

- Is there any significant influence of creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?
- Is there any significant combined influence of prior knowledge of entrepreneurship and creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

2. Methodology

For the purpose of this research, a descriptive research design of ex-post-facto type was adopted. This was appropriate because all the variables were not manipulated but were described as they existed. The population of this study comprised all undergraduates in the two State-Owned Universities in Ogun State, Nigeria. Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye was randomly selected for this study and Six hundred (600) respondents were selected as the sample for this study. The respondents were drawn from 4 faculties (Faculty of Science, Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Administrations and Management Science. One hundred and fifty (150) respondents were selected through a simple sampling technique from each of the four faculties to make up for a total of six hundred (600) respondents.
Three instruments were used to elicit responses or to collect data for this study. The instruments were prior knowledge of business, creativity questionnaire and entrepreneurial alertness questionnaire.

Prior Knowledge of Business Questionnaire: This is a self-constructed questionnaire. This questionnaire was divided into two (2) sections (i.e. Section A & B). Section A requested the personal information of the respondents e.g sex, age, department, etc. while section B consisted of 17 items designed to elicit information on the respondents' prior knowledge of business and its formation.

Creativity Questionnaire: This is an adapted form of the scale developed by Soh (2000). It is a 4-point Likert type scale of 20 items and 4 factors. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the questionnaire was 0.96. The scale has a factor structure of (i.e., judgment, flexibility, evaluation and frustration). Sample items for the factors are "I like to do things differently although doing this takes up more time" for judgment, "I often ask questions freely even if they appear irrelevant" for flexibility, "I like showing my work to my friends before submission" for evaluation, "Whenever I am frustrated, I love going to my teachers for emotional support" for frustration.

Entrepreneurial Alertness Scale: This is a scale developed by Cardon, Gregoire, Stevens & Patel (2013). This is a 13-item scale of 3 subscales for measuring Entrepreneurial Passion's two dimensions (Intense Positive Feelings and Identity Centrality) across the three domains of inventing, founding, and developing. Scale analysis techniques were used to identify items that showed poor item-to-total correlations to their intended construct. The Item-total correlations for the 3 subscales were 0.69 (for the feelings for inventing), 0.54 (for the feelings for founding) and 0.60 (for the feelings for developing) and the alpha reliabilities for the 3 subscales were .85, .72 and .77 respectively. These showed that the scales are reliable and form internally consistent subscales.

The researcher personally visited the respondents that were selected for the study. The respondents were asked to fill the instrument independently before returning them to the researcher. The statistical methods that were used for answering the research questions raised for the study were Descriptive Statistics (Mean response) and Regression analysis at 0.05 level of significance.

3. Results

Table 1: Distribution of respondents' characteristics

Demographic variables		Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	468	78
	Female	132	22
	Total	**600**	**100**
Age	15- 20	02	0.3
	21- 25	134	22.3
	26 & above	464	77.3
	Total	**600**	**100**

Table 1 presented the distribution of respondents by gender. According to the result of the analysis, 468 (78%) of the respondents were male while 132 (22%) were female. This showed that the majority of the respondents that constitute the target population were male. Furthermore, the Table also showed that the majority of the respondents

464 (77.3%) were 26 years and above, followed by 134 (22.3%) who were within the age range of 21 to 25 years while 2 (0.3%) were within 15-20 years of age. This showed that the majority of the respondents that constituted the target population were 26 years and above.

Analysis of Research Questions

Research Question One: What is the level of undergraduate students' entrepreneurial alertness in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

Data collected on undergraduate students' entrepreneurial alertness were used to classify respondents' score into two groups namely: low (below 2.50 cut off point) and high (above 2.50 cut off point). Based on this classification, the data on respondents' responses on entrepreneurial alertness were subjected to descriptive statistics as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean responses of the level of undergraduates' entrepreneurial alertness

S/N	Items	Mean	Remarks
1	Readiness to do anything to become an entrepreneur	2.76	High
2	Professional goal is to become an entrepreneur	3.05	High
3	Make every effort to start and run own business	2.57	High
4	Determination to create a business venture in the future	2.51	High
5	Not having doubts about ever starting own business	2.73	High
6	Strong alertness of ever starting a business	2.51	High
7	Reading news, magazines, or trade publications regularly to start own business	2.57	High
8	Thought about work-related matters in free time to start own business	2.70	High
9	Thought about work-related matters even during holidays to start own business	2.55	High
10	Thought about new business ideas in free time to start own business.	3.05	High
Grand Average		**2.70**	**High**

Table 2 indicated that items numbered 1 to 10 were with the mean scores above 2.50. This means that the students possessed a high level of entrepreneurial alertness. However, items 10 - "thought about new business ideas in free time to start my own business.", 2 - "students' professional goal is to become an entrepreneur" and 19 - "students' readiness to do anything to become an entrepreneur" with mean scores of 3.05, 3.05 and 2.76 respectively proved to be some of the most critical level of entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduates students. The implication of this is that majority of the students who participated in this study possessed high level of entrepreneurial alertness.

Research Question Two: Is there any significant influence of prior knowledge of business on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

Table 3: Regression analysis of prior knowledge of business and entrepreneurial alertness

REGRESSION		**ANOVA**				
Model	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
R =.049[a]	Regression	133.921	1	133.921	1.196	.027[b]
R^2 =.020	Residual	55758.551	598	111.965		
Adj. R^2 =.000	Total	55892.472	599			

Table 3 revealed that prior knowledge and entrepreneurial alertness yielded a co-efficient of regressions (R) of 0.049 and a regression square (R^2) of 0.02. This shows that 2.0 % of the total variance in entrepreneurial alertness is accounted for by prior knowledge of business. The table also indicated that the analysis of variance of the regression data produced an F-ratio value of 1.196, significant at 0.05 level. This implies that prior knowledge of business had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities.

Research Question Three: Is there any significant influence of creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

Table 4: Regression analysis of creativity and entrepreneurial alertness

REGRESSION		ANOVA					
Model	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Remarks
R =.033[a]	Regression	114.104	1	114.104	.553	.045[b]	Sig.
R^2 =.010	Residual	102727.278	598	206.280			
Adj. R^2 = -.001	Total	102841.382	599				

Table 4 revealed that creativity and entrepreneurial alertness yielded a co-efficient of regressions (R) of 0.033 and a regression square (R^2) of 0.10. This showed that 1.0 % of the total variance in students' entrepreneurial alertness is accounted for by creativity. The table also indicated that the analysis of variance of the regression data produced an F-ratio value of .553, significant at 0.05 level. This implies that creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities.

Research Question Four: Is there any significant combined influence of prior knowledge of business and creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities?

Table 5: Regression analysis of prior knowledge, creativity and entrepreneurial alertness

REGRESSION		ANOVA					
Model	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Remarks
R =.756[a]	Regression	19249.04	2	9624.52	397.87	.000[b]	Significant
R^2 =.571	Residual	14441.20	597	24.19			
Adj. R^2 = .570	Total	33690.24	599				

Table 5 revealed that prior knowledge, creativity and entrepreneurial alertness yielded a co-efficient of multiple regressions (R) of 0.756 and a multiple regression square (R^2) of 0.571. This showed that 57.1 % of the total variance in entrepreneurial alertness is accounted for by the combination of prior knowledge of entrepreneurship and creativity. The table also indicated that the analysis of variance of the multiple regression data produced an F-ratio value of 397.87, significant at 0.05 level. This implied that prior knowledge of business and creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities.

4. Discussion

The purpose of this research was to investigate the influence of prior knowledge and creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities. Research question one stated what is the level of entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities? The result revealed that the students possessed a high level of entrepreneurial alertness. The result revealed that Undergraduate students always thought about new business ideas in free time to start their own business. Their professional goal was to become an entrepreneur and the students were ready to do anything to become an entrepreneur. This revealed that the undergraduates had the determination to become an entrepreneur which was evident from their responses.

Research question two stated that is there any significant influence of prior knowledge of business on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities? This result corroborated the findings of Kusumawardhany and Trisnawati, (2019) which showed that prior knowledge has a positive effect on business idea alertness. The study revealed that the higher the prior knowledge and business idea alertness, the higher the entrepreneurial opportunity. This is also in line with the findings of Sarpinah, Naimullah, Anis, and Naim (2017) and Li, Wang and Liang (2015) which revealed that prior knowledge had significant and direct influence on entrepreneurial alertness of students at public universities.

Research question three stated that is there any significant influence of creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities? The result revealed that creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities. This result corroborates the findings of Montriel-Campos (2016) and Hu, Wang, Zhang and Bin (2018) who used a moderated mediation model to identify a positive correlation between creativity and entrepreneurial alertness.

Research question four stated that is there any significant influence of prior knowledge of business and creativity on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students in Ogun State-Owned Universities? The result revealed that prior knowledge of business and creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students at Ogun State-Owned Universities. This result is in consonance with Ghasemi and Rowshan (2016) who discovered that students' prior experience or knowledge, creativity in entrepreneurial activities have significant influence on students' entrepreneurial alertness. This result is also supported by Li, Wang and Liang (2015) whose study showed that entrepreneurial alertness significantly and directly predicted opportunity recognition, whereas prior knowledge significantly

and indirectly affected opportunity recognition through its impact on entrepreneurial alertness.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Entrepreneurship alertness is vital in enhancing the entrepreneurship career of students at the tertiary level of education. The findings of this study revealed that undergraduate students always thought about new business ideas in free time to start their own business. Their professional goal was to become an entrepreneur and the students were ready to do anything to become an entrepreneur" It was also revealed that Prior knowledge of entrepreneurship and creativity had a significant influence on entrepreneurial alertness of undergraduate students. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that activities that will provide opportunities to gain authentic experience that will create bridges between the knowledge gained and the application of that knowledge in practice should be enforced in our tertiary institutions. Students should be advised to possess entrepreneurial skills that could be useful to them in the future. The government should endeavour to create a skill acquisition centre that can prepare university students on how to recognize the opportunities around, irrespective of their courses at the University. Entrepreneurship education should be practically oriented so as to sustain students' interest.

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Integrating Succession Planning for Family Business Continuity: A Conceptual Analysis

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Abstract. The economic importance of family business - wealth creation, employment generation, locally rooted and strong connection to their communities cannot be over emphasized; besides being widely acknowledged as major proportion of most small and medium enterprises in the global economy. However, pertinent to most family businesses is the desire to maintain family leadership of the company by appointing as top executive from family members one who has qualification and significant experience with the company. *F*amily businesses can only position themselves for this and other future expansion by investing in robust managerial development through early involvement of family members and adapting succession planning best practices. This study seeks to advance knowledge on succession planning and managing family businesses by shedding light on the inter-link between them. The study further explained why, despite robust efforts of founder's investment and commitment, majority of family businesses still failed to survive especially on the transition of such to young generation. From the analysis of this study, the major sources of failure common in family businesses are family conflicts, poor entrepreneurial exposure, *incompetent members of the next generation and flamboyant lifestyles among others*. The study draws conclusion and make recommendations base on the findings.

Keywords: Business transition, Family business, Family conflicts, Family participation, Succession planning

1. Introduction

All over the world family business is playing a major role in the area of incubating young entrepreneurs and generating employment opportunities for the family and non-family members. Hence, family business has become an academic research of interest for many reasons. According to Joachim (2015) family businesses have the potential to outperform any other form of business organization through their inherent synergies between owner and management. Second, they are guided by the uniquely powerful value of wanting to build a healthy business that they want to pass on to their children. Third, all families with a business owe it to their previous and future generations to learn, reflect and plan wisely. A major area of research therefore is how to generate a better understanding of what it takes to sustainably keep families in business for generations unborn. As noted by (Tatoglu, Kula & Glaister, 2008; Wee Yu Ghee, Mohammed and Hasliza 2015) family business capacities to fuel economic development and growth have always been anticipated when owners are credited with nurturing cross-generational entrepreneurial talent, a sense of loyalty to business success, long term strategic commitment and corporate independence. It is thought that loyalty generally exists in family firms and that the ownership should remain in the family. In most cases the sincere hope of family entrepreneurs is to transfer the firm to the next generation of the family, thus keeping the ownership in the family.

The desire to keep the family firm going, the desire of self-fulfillment and the desire for independence are often the motivations for succession planning (Stenholm, 2003; Stavrou, 1999). Despites these motivations, managing family businesses are complex as it involves many delicate issues. In the opinion of Neubauer and Lank (1998) family businesses are among the most complex forms of business because of the overlapping of operational and strategic issues of ownership, control, and management. Most often, problems arise when the

entrepreneur's vision – which is essentially focused on creating new and better products and services – is increasingly seen by other family members as a simple mechanism to make money. Accordingly, the delicate balance of rights and responsibilities of owning families in relation to their business tends to shift over time towards a growing sense of entitlement by the owners to a never-ending – and increasing – flow of dividends (Joachim, 2015). Sometimes, this shift is abrupt when a strong and successful leader disappears and an ill-prepared next generation needs to assume control. From previous researches, two major dichotomies have been identified as common to every family business. First, each multi-generational family business develops its own particular history, which is made up of both gains and pains, but it is essentially based on a culture of resilience and the unshakeable commitment to succeed over the long term. Second, each family business is basically a story about people – entrepreneurs and their families whose personal values and visions leave an indelible imprint on the businesses that they have created and that subsequent generations continue to manage.

As emphasized by Tagiuri & Davis (1996), it is important to note that when families grow, it is usually seen as a happy event. For families in business, however, more family members mean more complexity, since they bring diversity of interests, skills and needs. This diversity needs to be understood, accepted and carefully planned and managed with high sense of maturity. Sometimes, if this is not properly managed, it degenerates into conflict of interest, rivalry and unhealthy agitation for business resources which eventually may lead to total sellout of the business. This made the issue of succession planning vital in the lives of family business. Everett (2014) opined that while more is written about this area of family business than any other, succession planning is often the most neglected area by the typical family firm owners. The problems and resistance associated with developing a viable, coherent, and agreeable succession plan are immense. For the family business owner, the ability or willingness to manage and direct the interactions between the extraordinarily complex areas of personal, family, management, ownership, and estate issues can be disheartening and this can be effectively managed by succession planning (*Roscoe & Vieira 2012).*

There is a clear consensus that inheritance (or transfers of ownership or as gifts) does not explain intergenerational entrepreneurship or family business continuity (Parker, 2009). In support of the above, Lindquist, Sol and Praag (2014) found that in the United States, an estimates of 5.6% businesses are acquired by inheritance, 1.6% as gifts while 4% through other means. Canadian and Danish evidences produce similar numbers of 5.5% are acquired through inheritance (Aldrich, Renzulli, and Langton 1998) and 8% through gifts (Sorensen, 2007). In a study on family business by Kay (2007), it was confirmed that majority of owner-managers intend to pass the business on to their children, but less than 20% have a succession plan. More so, in a survey of 322 family businesses conducted by KPMG in 2012 showed that only 11% had a succession plan in place for their CEO. This is a damning statistic when we consider the fact that only 30% of family businesses survive to the second generation and only 15% survive to the third generation (Bigliardi & Dormio, 2009). The implication of this is that only 30% of owner-managed businesses are passed on to the first generation, and that only 15% make it to the third. Most interestingly, existing literatures on family businesses focusing on survival rates in developing nations has further confirmed that only roughly one third of family businesses survive the transition from founder (first generation) ownership to second generation owner-management, and among this, only one third tend to survive the transition from second to third (and beyond) generation (Ibrahim, Dumas, & McGuire, 2001). The major reason adduced to this high failure is poor succession planning and poor communication with the next generation. Lansberg (1999) argued that leaders of family businesses needed to share ideas about the success and continuation of the family business with the next generation. The current study hence intends to investigate how succession planning is integrated to successful family business management for continuity.

2. Literature Review

Change - as it were is inevitable in social and business landscape, hence the evolving nature of global business environment and emergence of new concepts. From time immemorial, it is not uncommon for parents to carry out some forms of trade and transfer same to the next generation for continuity. However, the advent of family business in the global business landscape has generated lots of scholarly attention in recent times. More so, family business has gained sporadic social and economic recognition among writers, researchers and policy makers in various economies of the world considering the economic and social impacts they have (Brigham, 2013).

Conceptually, a family is considered as a group of persons belonging to the same hereditary structure or domaine, assembled by genetic inheritances, biological ties and or affinities, with components including direct descendants or offspring, legal spouses and cohabitants. As common to most concepts in social and management sciences, coming up with a single most coherent definition of family business is difficult. Accordingly, (Huovinen & Tihula, 2008) emphasize that comparing various research results is, however, problematic, because there is not a single, coherent definition of a family business available in literatures. This according to Neubauer & Lank (2009) may be due to the slight consensus of the young research field, also because of different elements, which affect the varying definitions among scholars and writers.

In an attempt to accommodate the varying views on family business, Sinha (2014) classified the definitions of family business into two – structured and processes. Accordingly, structured definitions are given based on ownership and or management of family business. Example of this is Leach (2011) who described family business as one in which a single family effectively controls a firm through the ownership of greater than 50 per cent of the voting shares; and a significant portion of the firm's senior management is drawn from the same family. Holding the same view, Ogundele, Idris and Ahmed-Ogundipe (2008) described family business as any organization in which members of a family (be it monogamous, polygamous or extended households), hold controlling shares and which does not separate ownership from management. More so, Chua, Chrisman & Sharma, (1999) viewed family business as a business governed and/or managed with the intention to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families.

On the other hand, the structured definitions are given based on the involvement of family members in the operations of the business. Accordingly, "family businesses are firms which have been closely identified with at least two generations of a family especially when the link has had mutual influences on company policies and on the interest and objective of the family (Donnelley, 1988). In the vein, Davis and Stern (2004) viewed family businesses as those where policies and decisions are subject to significant influence by one or more family units; and whereas this influence is exercised through ownership and or through the participation of family members in management. These definitions connote that i is the interaction between two sets of organizations, family and business, that establishes the basic character of the family business and defines its uniqueness.

It is important to acknowledge that family businesses vary in size from small neighborhood stores to multinational companies. However, while some scholars see family firms as a setting for the formation of nascent entrepreneurs and where entrepreneurship flourishes (Otuya, Kibas, Gichira, and Martins, 2013), some others argued the opposite – that family firms are conservative, introverted, inflexible and lack entrepreneurial spirit. Moreover, the homogeneity of family firms is often questioned because every family business has its own history, culture and idiosyncrasy that differ in various ways. Nonetheless the legal form, sector or age, a firm needs to meet the certain conditions to be considered as a family business (Heinonen & Toivonen 2003). First, a family (i.e. an extended family formed e.g. by siblings, grandparents and cousins, or at most a small number of families) controls the ownership of the business. Second, persons belonging to the family, or extended family, are on the board or participate otherwise in the activities of the firm. Buttressing the above, Lee-Chua (1997); and Bigliardi & Dormio (2009) assert that in a family business, at least 50% of ownership and management responsibilities fall within one family – whether related by blood or marriage.

In the views of Neubauer and Lank (1998), a family business is a proprietorship, partnership, corporation or any form of business association where the voting control (i.e. majority vote) is in the hands of a given family. Similarly, Huovinen & Tihula (2008) stressed that typical of all family businesses is the integration of a firm, ownership and business. Therefore, the central element is the continuity of the business operations, i.e. there is a conscious intent to transfer the firm (leadership and control) to the following generation yet another generation after. This singular motive has made the recognition of family business more critical to national economic growth and the resultant effect substantial to global business stability. Shankar and Astrachan (1996) emphasize that the criteria one may use to describe a family business may include: the percentage of ownership; the voting control; the power over strategic decisions; the involvement of multiple generations; and family members' being active in management.

KPMG (2011) found that as much as the majority of family business owners would like to see their businesses transferred to the next generation, it is

estimated that 70% of these businesses do not survive into the second generation and 90% do not make it to the third generation. This makes the issue of succession planning integral to continuous survival of family business. However, Ward (2004) states that the most critical issues facing business-owning families are family-based issues more than they are business-based issues. This implies that managing family-based issues are also critical to the growth anticipation of family business.

In practice, family business is the intersecting relationship between family members, non-family unit, and the business that is believed to form the unique set of features that explains performance differences between family and non-family businesses (Dewi & Dhewanto, 2012). This intersection also serves as a source of mutual aid and participation within the families and businesses. Family participation often strengthens the business because family members are usually very loyal, innovative, responsible and dedicated to the family firm (Koiranen, 2000; Tagiuri & Davis 1996). Such loyalty can reduce struggling for power in the firm, give rise to great communication, cooperation and trust, and create understanding. The spirit of enterprise and efficient actions also belong to the strengths of the family business (Neubauer & Lank 1998,). Decision making is more centralized and efficient because of simultaneous roles in the family firm (Tagiuri & Davis 1996). However, simultaneous roles can also have negative outcomes such as family, ownership and business issues possibly have been mixed up, firms suffering from a lack of marketplace objectivity and poor profit discipline.

It is important to acknowledge that the same family tie that brings family participation, loyalty and innovation into the business may also be a source of conflicts. Huovinen & Tihula (2008) emphasized that family conflicts may arise due to disagreements over growth targets, succession decisions, product offerings, or even over seemingly unexciting issues such as those relating to hours of operation. In relation to the above, Lussier & Sonfield (2012) argued that conflicts within businesses may also be driven by family issues relating to time spent away from the home, marital differences, or inattention to important family events. In any case, such conflicts are often a direct result of close and repeated interactions between family members, the non-family unit, and the business. Much of the research in the family business arena has focused on how to manage the conflicts inherent in a family business (Anderson & Johnson, 1985; Prince, 1990; Kaye, 1991; Dyer and Handler 1994). Such work has focused on issues surrounding the selection, socialization, training, rewards, and promotion of family members as well as the impact of family involvement on nonfamily employees. Other work has emphasized the impact of family involvement on the culture of the organization McCollom, 1988; Astrachan, 1988); the firm's strategy Lyman, 1991), and organizational structure Still other studies have attempted to understand family influence on the firm by conducting cross-cultural studies (Donckels & Frohlich, 1991). All the above make family business complex and delicate to manage hence, conscious succession planning is inevitable.

In modern economy, family businesses are playing significant roles in economic development of both developing and developed economies. In recognition of the above, Bird, Welsch, Astrachan, and Pistrui (2002) postulated that family business has been the strength and the power of commerce since the ancient economies. They are effective engine for every economy in terms of job creation and tax collections. Esuh, Mohd and Adebayo (2011) posited that majority of family businesses in developing nations have the same characters with the small firm characteristics where the family businesses are flexible and agile that enable them to be controlled or maneuvered by owner-managers who are mainly family members. As reflected in many giant economies of the world, the percentages of family businesses occupy are enormous and could not be underplay. Brazil –90%, USA – 96%, Belgium – 70%, Finland – 80%, France – 60%, Germany – 60%, Netherlands – 74%, Poland – 80%, Portugal – 70%, Spain – 79%, UK – 70%, Australia – 75% (Timmons and Spinelli, 2009). Considering this significant contribution of family businesses around the world, Onuoha (2013) states that the key to business survival depends to a large extent on its ability to be well managed which entails professionalizing the enterprise. Since family businesses are more vulnerable to harsh business environments and have more mortality rate, it will be in their interest to professionalize.

Planning for the succession of top leaders is critically important for every company, yet it is unfortunately one of the most commonly neglected areas. Family companies, which are typically closely aligned with the founder and sometimes with a family member serving as chief executive officer, generally and most often lack a planned succession (Coleman & Carsky, 1999). Family business succession comprises two processes – the management succession and the ownership succession. According to KPMG (2014), each requires involving family members so that at the

end of the processes the family members would have been involved and will feel comfortable making decisions about their individual and collective futures in the management and ownership of the family business. Succession planning is essential when there are either too few or too many potential candidates as this creates confusion and uncertainty for investors, customers, suppliers and employees. In any company, one of the most important jobs for the board and CEO is ensuring an uninterrupted flow of capable management. Accordingly, Craig (2014) stressed that to maintain continuity and prevent last-minute scrambles to identify the next generation of leadership, executives and boards of family businesses must actively plan for succession and, when they must consider recruiting an outsider, take care to find an individual who not only has the appropriate leadership skills, but also is compatible with the organization's culture. Carraher and Carraher (2006) opined that for companies that do it best, succession planning is not just about selecting the next Chief Executive Officer; it is a comprehensive approach to developing management talent throughout the organization.

The problem of both ownership and management succession has largely been the domain of research on family-owned businesses as family dynamics come to the forefront during succession (Dyer & Handler 1994). Planning is inevitable in any organization either small or large. It is thus an integral element in management functions used for coping with the challenges of the contemporary business environment (Brown & Coverly, 1999). Most importantly, planning assists in providing direction to organization members to know where the organization is heading and where to expand their major efforts. It further guides in defining the business the firm is in, the end it seeks and the means it will use to accomplish those ends (McCathy & Minichiello, 1996). Sonnenfeld (1988) found that there are various types of retirement styles of founders or CEOs. "Monarchs" do not leave until they are forced out or die. "Generals" also leave office only when forced out, but plan a return to power often to rescue the company from an inadequate successor. "Ambassadors" leave willingly and become advisors to the firm. "Governors" rule for a term and then pursue other ventures. Handler and Kram (1988), and Dyer (1992) have discussed the psychosocial dynamics that make it difficult for the entrepreneur to contemplate transferring ownership and management to the next generation. Succession planning is in direct conflict with the entrepreneur's needs for control, power, and meaning. Thus, one study of Harvard-educated entrepreneurs noted that 48.9% planned to "never" retire, while another 23.3% did not know when they would retire or were planning to retire sometime after age sixty-five (Duffy & Stevenson, 1984). Retirement is clearly not something that is eagerly anticipated by the vast majority of entrepreneurs.

The founder's family members may not want to accept the founder's mortality and may see the founder as the only person able to manage family conflicts and keep the family together. Thus, they are reluctant to see the founder move out of a leadership role. The family may also be unwilling to upset the founder with discussions regarding retirement, for family members can be seen as being disloyal by suggesting retirement. Suppliers and customers who are used to dealing with the founder may resist forming relationships with the next-generation family members who are gaining in power. Thus, it is not at all surprising to learn that few entrepreneurs proactively engage in succession planning, often to the detriment of the family and the business (Dyer, 1992). Handler (1992) found that the degree of mutual respect and understanding between next-generation successor and founder is a key factor affecting succession. Other critical factors were the degree to which next-generation career interests, psychosocial needs, and life-style needs were met through the firm. Also, the degree of sibling accommodation rather than rivalry and the family's commitment to perpetuate the firm were important to the succession process. This study, as well as others by Davis (1982), Patrick (1985), and lannarelli (1992), reinforces the importance of not just looking at succession from the perspective of the entrepreneur, but instead recognizing his/her relationship to the heir. Considering the heir's perspective and including him/her in the planning process is critical to effective succession management.

Family business succession is the process of transitioning the management and the ownership of the business to the next generation of family members. This transition would normally include family assets as part of the processes. In this case, family members typically play a critical and controlling role in both the management succession and the ownership succession. In this process, the effective integration and management of the family component will have a major determining effect on the success of the succession process (KPMG, 2011). Crick, Bradshaw & Chaudhry (2006) opined that the companies that are most effective at maintaining management continuity plan regularly and systematically for management succession.

Succession planning begins by taking into account the company's strategic objectives — such as a planned expansion into new geographic or product markets — and challenges.

The board must identify the skills and expertise the company will need over the next three to five years given its strategy and circumstances. This process should conclude with the development of a detailed position specification outlining the qualities and experiences that are required of the top executive. The nature of family relationships during the transition period also has been shown to be related to a successful succession process (Dyer, 1986). According to Dyer and Handler (1994), certain characteristics are inevitable in families that would manage succession most effectively. These include consistent views regarding what is equitable; well-developed contingency plans; superordinate goals; the ability to manage conflict effectively; and finally, a high level of trust. Such conditions not only serve to help the family remain healthy during the succession period, they also are related to helping the firm remains stable during the transition period.

The existing literature and further research on family businesses have continued to promote the need to address the family component in the family business succession process. Many scholars and researchers have recommended that a substantial portion of the succession activities should focus on managing the family expectations and the family dynamics which can be achieved by actively integrating the family into the process. Certain challenges are common to family businesses all around the world. In the event of the founder's death or disability – several dynamics related to the family occur. First, there is often a struggle within the family for control of ownership of the enterprise which often results intra-family communication problems. Dyer (1992) argued that communication within families is not as reliable as communication between strangers. In dealing with this, communication issues need to be worked out and dealt with as part of the planning process. In the opinions of Churchill & Hatten (1987) parents need to be willing to truly listen to their children, and not punish them for thinking differently or try to control them with money. In this respect, children need to be opened to communication as well, and to consider and respect the advice and suggestions of the older generation.

In literatures, sibling rivalry is major challenge of family business (Davis,1982; Patrick (1985). Without careful planning and parenting, including outside counselling, sibling rivalry can wreck a succession plan. Patrick (1985) acknowledged that unfortunately, sibling rivalry often stays buried until after the parent is dead. Deal with sibling rivalry right at the beginning, and building a plan that will not fall apart is a major issue in sustaining a family business. Problems can arise either when more than one sibling is involved in the business or when only one of the children is involved. The decision you make with the business can affect how other family assets are considered, including houses and cottages, hence, sibling rivalry must be dealt with utmost thoughtfulness (Churchill & Hatten, 1987).

Lannarelli (1992) noted that coercing kids into the business is another major challenge in family business. Some kids do not want to take over the family business or having an affair with it. In such case, entrepreneurial values need to be grown and shared through leaders' role modeling, explicit statements and resiliency in the face of adversity. The family and the business will be better off in the long run if one ensures that successors are committed and enthusiastic willingly without been forced (Davis, 1982). It is impossible to include everyone in the succession plan. Resentment can easily result if the family is not prepared for the succession plan, especially if the founder/original owner is not on ground to explain it. Osborne (1991) argued that preparing the family is as important as with preparing oneself, the business and the successor.

Managing the obligations of both work and family has also been described as a source of conflict for the entrepreneur. Dyer (1992), in his study of over one hundred entrepreneurs, describes several entrepreneurs facing conflicts between work and family. Marital conflict, neglect of children, and divorce can all be outcomes if work-family issues are not managed well by the entrepreneur. Dyer and Handler (1994) identified certain habits of women in business (family business inclusive) and their major concerns. Conventional women entrepreneurs are highly committed to succeed as a wife and mother as well as being successful in business. Innovative women entrepreneurs are more interested in developing a successful business than in filling traditional sex roles. Domestic women entrepreneurs give high priority to their families, while giving the business less attention. Thus they prefer home-based businesses or other work that will not interfere with their family obligations. Radical women entrepreneurs generally start their businesses to champion women's issues; however such women do not adhere to traditional business values. It is therefore suggested that while planning succession, all these habits must be put in consideration

especially when women are included (Dyer and Handler, 1994).

Asking the business to support too many families is yet another major challenge in family businesses identified by (Dyer and Handler 1994). As time goes by more and more families can become dependent on the business for financial supports. This can be a terrible drag on the business, and may expose the whole family to economic disaster if there is a problem in the business (Handler & Kram, 1988; and Dyer, 1992). Many owner-managed businesses are too small to support too many families. In some cases the retiring owner manager remains dependent on the business. This according to Dyer (1992) increases the risk to the business and the family, and could create a scenario where a downturn in business fortunes leaves both the older and the younger generations unable to support themselves at a time when the younger generation would typical need support from their parents or grandparents.

Major issues explored by Berman Brown and Coverly (1999) were problems inherent in succession planning in family businesses. They argued that the problem of finding a successor is difficult and most often the person with the best qualities for the position may be disregarded. In a similar study on succession planning in family business, Chung and Yuen (2003) emphasized that though must second, and third generation family business successors are more educated, the technicality involved and expansion is usually a major problem. In their (Chung and Yuen) findings, the certain succession issues and concerns are identified as presented in the table below.

Common Succession Issues and Concerns in Family Business

An authoritarian owner in the family business	
Board of directors from family members only	
Favoritism for a family member over a dedicated employee	
Inadequate experience in that particular industry	
Lack of working knowledge to run the business	
Incapable of exercising the power of authority with siblings	
Inequity/equity of rewards among family members	
Communication problem between family members	
Lack of competence and capability to run the business	
Lack of interest	
Lack of proper training	
Male is given preferential treatment to female	
Reluctance to let go of power and control	
Ability to develop talent and resource	
Father expectations on business different from son	
Father working style different from son	
Can share visions and goals with business owner	
Trust between family members	
Has a mentor in the family business	
Decision making by family members only	

Source: Chung and Yuen (2003), Wee Yu Ghee (2015)

In literature, there are three phases in the lifecycle of family businesses with fundamentally different characteristics, cultures and needs. The first phase according to Handler and Kram (1988) typically involves an entrepreneur who builds the business alone, with full power and control. It is characterized by an "I" culture because the capital, or assets, of the business reflect the personality of the entrepreneur who has built the business in creative and "revolutionary" ways. Similar, Duffy & Stevenson (1984) characteristics can be applied to following generations where sole or dominant owners fully control the business. Typically, the oldest family businesses in the world have applied this model of passing on full ownership to one descendant (Dyer, 1992). This model can also be found in monarchies and in farming.

Phases in Family Business

	Founder/Dominant Owner	Siblings	Cousins
Size	1	Small Family	Large Family
Power	Control	Sharing	Separation
Culture	I	Us	Us & Them
Capital	Person(ality)	Competence	System
Change	Revolutionary	Evolutionary	(R)evolutionary

Source: *Schwass (2007)*

The second phase according to Schwass (2007) involves the children of the founder or the dominant owner. It is characterized by an "us" culture because the siblings share the power over the business. Often better educated than the previous generation, they bring new competencies to the business and often apply them to improving the operational efficiencies after the turbulent, revolutionary growth from the previous generation. Duffy & Stevenson (1984) argued that this phase is about creating an environment of teamwork based on trust and professionalism. Most family businesses fail at this very difficult juncture, where power sharing replaces total control. The "I" generation has never experienced a succession towards an "us" culture. This leaves the sibling generation typically ill prepared and lacking an effective role model. In addition to the emerging difficult intra-generational relationships, the inter-generational relationship with the senior generation becomes increasingly conflicted.

The third phase brings in the cousins and the family now has a larger number of members and branches. According to Davis (2003), this phase is about diversity and power separation – "us and them" – with some involved in the business and others not involved. The business is now large enough to run by itself – at least for a certain period. Schwass (2007) stressed that those family members who are passive owners and receiving dividends will want that to continue without risky strategies, whereas those working in the business will be concerned about growing it to satisfy the increasing demand for dividends by the growing family. While the sibling phase was about unity in a small family, the cousins' phase is all about managing diverse characteristics, skills, interests and needs. Coleman & Carsky (1999) concludes that few families effectively manage this difficult transition. The key to success is accepting the diversity rather than suppressing it and putting in place a practical, transparent and effective governance structure.

3. Conclusion and Implications of the Study

Lee-Chua (1997) and Bigliardi & Dormio (2009) claimed that the challenges related to dealing with an expanding family concurrently with a growing business; the related issue of professionalism, which necessitates the introduction of new ways of conducting business that in many cases are in direct contrast to the incumbents' methods; the introduction of outside experts, including non-family directors; and the introduction of new generations with new ideas into the business have all been unveiled as common concerns of every family business, hence a need for succession plan. Parada, Sharma and Yusof (2014) further argued that the development of the next generation and professionalization of the business affects the ability of family members to succeed their parents as leaders and owners. These processes support the capacity of the family business to reliably provide products and services and to extend their presence into new areas through market, process and product innovations. As such family members need to develop and build experiences that shape the breadth and depth of knowledge for the task ahead.

Furthermore, in many family firms, ownership and management are maintained (or intended to be maintained) across several generations and a key challenge for long-term survival is to sustain the entrepreneurial spirit of the founding generation of entrepreneurs (Craig, 2013). As all businesses in the long run, regularly need to renew their way of doing business in order to stay competitive as they risk losing their entrepreneurial capacity likewise in family business. The most important therefore is that a focus on; and understanding of, entrepreneurship is now universally considered to be necessary in order to better prepare next generation leaders, top executive, and business-owners. To that end, next generation family members, no matter their current career interest or future projection, are being encouraged to increase their entrepreneurial skill set by including exposure to entrepreneurship related activities so as to take the family business to the far reaching desires of the founder.

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Ownership Structure and Financial Performance of quoted Food and Beverage Firms in Nigeria

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Abstract. The study examined the effect of the ownership structure and its dimensions (such as managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership) on the financial performance of eighteen food and beverage quoted firms on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) during the period 2010-2018. The study used secondary data on managerial ownership (MO), employee ownership (EO), private ownership (PO) and return on equity (ROE). These were sourced from the annual report and accounts of the firms used for the study. Data collected were analysed using pooled regression, fixed and random effect regression. The result showed that managerial ownership had an insignificant (positive) effect on return on equity (t=1.63; P=0.329; P>0.05). Employee ownership had significant positive effect on return on equity (t=2.19; P=0.001; P<0.05). Private ownership had significant effect on return on equity (t=3.2; P=0.005; P<0.05). Managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership had a significant combined effect on return on equity (Wald Chi^2=32.91; R^2=0.682; P=0.000). The study concluded that ownership structure had a significant effect on the financial performance of quoted food and beverage manufacturing firms in Nigeria.

Keywords: Ownership Structure, Managerial Ownership, Employee Ownership, Private Ownership, Financial Performance, Return on Equity.

1. Introduction

The performance of an entity is of importance to shareholders and institutional investors Ahmed and Hadi (2017). Hence, it is the responsibility of business managers to ensure that corporate resources are optimized to ensure commensurate returns. Further, since the going concern of an entity largely depends on its performance, managers are constraints to invest in projects and investment that are worthwhile. Despite the discretionary power of managers, the choice of investment often depends on the level of resources available and the ownership of such investment fund. A firm may source for fund internally or externally however, the utilization of such fund is usually accompanied with the interest of its provider. As evident in the literature, the composition of an entity's finance alternatively called ownership structure is important for management decisions. Therefore, the ownership structure of any company is a serious factor affecting a company's financial performance. A firm's ownership structure is composed of investors, financial institutions, mutual funds, international firms, block holders, family members and managers (Kluiver, 2017). The impact of ownership structure on firm performance is derived from the agency theory. The separation of management from control creates a "principal-agent problem" in which managers (agent) might make decisions that are not in the best interest of the owners (principal). Managers may use private information for their benefit and act against shareholders' interests and views (Mudi, 2017). This managerial opportunism, in which managers seek self-interest through deceit, can prevent maximization of shareholder wealth.

In developing countries, corporate governance impacts public policy objectives. Good corporate governance reduces emerging market vulnerability to financial crises, strengthens property rights, reduces

transaction costs and the cost of capital, and leads to capital market development (Ngang, 2017). Weak corporate governance frameworks reduce investor confidence and can discourage outside investment. Moreover, since pension funds are invested in equity markets, good corporate governance is vital for preserving retirement savings. Over the past decade, the importance of strong corporate governance has been emphasized by a growing body of academic research. Nevertheless, there is limited empirical research done on the food and beverages industry in Nigeria.

Basically, ownership is considered from two main dimensions: ownership concentration and ownership identity. Ownership concentration refers to the number of shares owned by the majority of shareholders. Ownership identity relies on the people who have shares in the corporation and how they use such shares to generate revenues for the shareholders. These classifications lead to the major types of ownership as already identified in this study which are managerial ownership, private ownership and employee association ownership. This study, therefore, examines the effect of ownership structure and its dimensions (such as managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership) on the financial performance of listed food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

2. Review of Related Literature

Abosede and Kajola (2011), described ownership structure as the fraction of shares owned by a firm's most significant shareholders, with much attention given to the fraction owned by the five largest shareholders. Lawal, Agbi and Mustapha (2018) viewed ownership structure as a combination of concentrated ownership and large stockholdings by institutional owners for productivity. Uwalomwa and Olamide (2012) viewed ownership structure as decisions made by those who own or who would own shares. The study measured ownership structure as the composition of board ownership, institutional ownership and foreign ownership.

2.1 Dimensions of Ownership Structure

Several attempts have been made by scholars to identify various types of ownership structure within an organization. Some of the identified ownership types are discussed as follows:

Managerial Ownership: Managerial ownership is the percentage of shares owned by a firm's management that is, the composition of board members, CEO and top management (Andow & David, 2016). Laiho (2011) view managerial ownership as the insider holdings by the board of directors and the management team.

Employee Ownership: Kruse has classified employee ownership into four dimensions: the percentage of employees who participate in ownership; the percentage of ownership held within the company by employees; the inequality of ownership stakes among employee-owners and the prerogatives and rights that ownership confers upon employees.

Private Ownership: Private firms, in general, are viewed to be superior to state-owned enterprises and, in theory, privatization may help to minimise the agency problem and lead to greater efficiency by improving monitoring systems and providing agents with better incentives to perform (Andow & David, 2016). Concerning the benefits of employee ownership to the organisations, academic literature refers to private ownership as a double-edged weapon. Furthermore, it is shown that companies with private ownership are much more motivated to seek wealth maximisation and reduce costs. So, by relieving state-owned companies from excessive burdens by privatisation, as a result, performance may increase.

2.2 Financial Performance

There is no universal definition of the concept of financial performance. Firm financial performance is used to describe the state of affairs of a firm. In analyzing a firm financial performance, emphasis should be made in formulating an adequate description of the concept of a firm's financial performance which uncovers the different dimensions upon which firm's financial performance should be evaluated. In terms of measurement, several scholars measure firm financial performance differently. Demstz and Lehn (2001) measured firm financial performance as the accounting profit rate. Kechi (2011) measured firm financial performance by Return on Asset (ROA) and Profit Margin (PM). Fazlzadeh et al. (2011) measured firm financial performance as the Net Income to total assets and ordinary income to total assets. Uwaloma and Olamide (2012) measured firm financial performance as Return on Asset (ROA). However, this study defines financial performance as Return on Equity measured by the proportion of profit after tax to total shareholders' equity at book value.

2.3 Empirical Review

There are various studies on ownership structure as it affects financial performance of quoted companies.

Some focused on measuring financial performance while others concentrated on examining the determinants of the financial performance of corporate entities. For instance, Mirza, & Javed (2013) studied 60 Pakistani corporate firms listed in Karachi stock exchange for the period of 2007 to 2011 to examine the determinant of financial performance. Corporate governance, ownership structure, capital structure, economic indicators and risk management were used as independent variables. The study concluded that the debt to equity ratio has a positive impact on performance, while the long-term debt to total assets and short-term debt to total assets have an adverse effect on firms' performance.

Shah, Butt & Saed (2011) study examines the relationship between ownership structure and performance of the listed companies in an emerging South Asian market. Performance of the firms has been quantified by using market-based measures as well as accounting-based measures. Marris Ratio and Tobin's Q represents the market-based measures of companies' performance whereas Return on Equity and Return on Investment captures the financial reporting perspectives. Percentage of shares held by the Board of Directors has been used as the proxy for ownership structure. The sample has been divided into three groups by using Cluster analysis. Chi-square test for homogeneity provides that groups are significantly different. Companies concentrated ownership at Board show weak performance whereas the companies with independent Board perform better. Descriptive statistics also confirm the result. The study reveals ownership structure is negatively related to the performance of firms. Therefore we can safely say that a more independent and effective board of Directors accelerates a firm's performance.

Balagobei and Velnampy (2017) assessed the relationship between ownership structure and financial performance of listed beverage food and tobacco companies for the period of 2010-2015. This study also examines the impact of ownership structure on financial performance. The sample consists of 10 listed beverage food and tobacco companies in Sri Lanka. In this study, data was collected from secondary sources and hypotheses are examined using Pearson's correlation and regression analysis. The results reveal that ownership concentration and foreign ownership structure are positively correlated with financial performance of listed beverage food and tobacco companies while institutional ownership structure isn't significantly correlated with financial performance. It is also found that there is a significant impact of foreign ownership structure on financial performance.

Ahmed and Hadi (2017) examined the impact of ownership structures on firm financial performance in the MENA region. The sample covers nine MENA countries (Egypt, Bhrain, Qatar, Kuwait, Tunisia, UAE, Morocco, Oman, and Jordan) for the year 2014. The impact of ownership structure on firm performance was examined. Performance is proxied using insider ownership, governmental and blockholders. The study control risk, size, country effect and industry type. Results suggest that blockholders, insider ownership and governmental ownership play a crucial role in firm performance measured by Tobin-Q, ROE, and ROA respectively. The results suggest that insider ownership negatively affects firm's return on equity, while blockholder ownership has a positive impact on a firm's Tobin-Q.

Abosede and Kajola (2011) investigated ownership structure and firm performance: Evidence from Nigerian Listed Companies. This study examined the relationship between firms' ownership structure and financial performance in Nigeria, using a sample of thirty listed companies between 2001 and 2008. Using pooled OLS as a method of estimation and after controlling for four firm-specific characteristics, results show a negative and significant relationship between ownership structure (director shareholding) and firm financial performance (ROE). This is in support of Entrenchment hypothesis. Also, the study does not support a nonlinear relationship between ownership structure and firm performance.

Lawal, et al., (2018) examined the effect of ownership structure on performance of 28 listed insurance firms in Nigeria. From 2011 to 2016, data was collected from the annual report of 28 insurance firms listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange for the period of 2011-2011-2016. The ex-post facto was employed by the study to examine the effect of ownership structure of performance of listed insurance firms in Nigeria. In addition to the descriptive statistics and correlation, multiple regression technique through panel data methodology was applied for model estimation. Data were subjected to pooled General Least Square, Fixed Effects, and Random Effects regression model to test the hypotheses of the study. Ownership structure proxied by managerial ownership, institutional ownership and ownership concentration was adopted as independent variables. Firm financial performance as the dependent variables was proxied by Book value per share. This study found ownership structure having a significant positive effect on the performance of the listed insurance firms except concentrated ownership with a negative effect.

2.4 Theoretical framework

Financial scholars have propounded various theories to explain financial performance of an organization. These theories include: agency theory by Jenson and Meckling (1976), stewardship theory by Donaldson and Davis (1991), resource dependence theory by Barney (1986) and stakeholder theory-ST by Freeman (1994) theory. However, this study is hinged on stakeholder theory (ST). Stakeholder theory challenges the primacy assumption of shareholder interests and advocates that a company should be managed in the interests of its entire stakeholder (Freeman, 1994). The theory is based on the assumption that values are necessarily and explicitly a part of doing business and that managers need to articulate the shared sense of value they create to bring its key stakeholders together. The stakeholder theory argues that managers should make decisions to take account of the interests of all stakeholders in a firm including not only financial claimants but also employees, customers, communities and governmental officials (Aymen, 2014).

3. Methodology

The study employed secondary data which was quantitative. Information on managerial ownership, employee ownership, private ownership and return on equity from 2010-2018 were obtained from the annual reports and accounts of the selected quoted firms on the NSE. The study sample included all the eighteen (18) food and beverages manufacturing companies in the population because of the relatively small size of the population. The study adopted panel repression with random and fixed effect to test the formulated hypothesis. The test was conducted using STATA 10 software package.

3.1 Variables Identification and hypotheses

Dependent variable: This study employs Return on Equity (RoE) as a proxy for financial performance because it is an important accounting-based and widely accepted measure of financial performance. It is the ratio of earnings to total equity and it measures how well a company use investment to generate earnings growth. It is obtained by dividing profit after tax by total shareholders fund. RoE = Profit after tax/total shareholder's fund.

Independent variables: Three independent variables which are: managerial ownership (MO)-is the portion of company's equity/shares held by the management team or board of directors. Employee Ownership (EO) is the percentage of equity capital/shares in the hands of the employee. and third is Private Ownership (PO) which is the amount of the firm's equity capital spread among private individuals and firms.

In the pursuant of the objective of this work, four hypotheses were formulated to guide this study and analyzed using pooled regression, fixed and random effect model and Wu-Haussan test was employed to analyze the null hypothesis. The four hypotheses are as listed below:

HO_1: There is no significant effect of managerial ownership on return on equity of quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

HO_2: There is no significant effect of employee ownership on return on equity of quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

HO_3: There is no significant effect of private ownership on return on equity of quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

HO_4: There is no significant combined effect of managerial, employee, and private ownership structure on return on equity of quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework that financial performance of the quoted food and beverages' firms is affected by managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership.

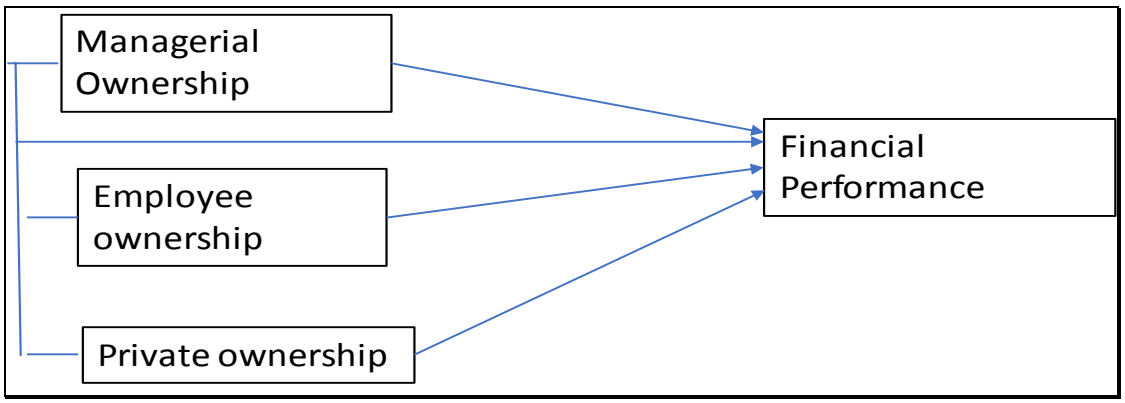

Fig. 1: Conceptual framework

The model for this study is constructed in line with the conclusion of Anis et al (2017). The model is specified below:

$RoE_{it} = f(MO_{it}, EO_{it}, PO_{it},)$……equ. 1

$RoE_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 MO_{it} + \alpha_2 EO_{it} + \alpha_3 PO_{it} + \mu_{it}$ ……equ. 2

The study adopted panel regression with random and fixed effect to test the formulated hypothesis. The test was conducted using STATA 10 software package.

4. Results and Findings

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table1 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables in the study. The minimum and maximum values for return on equity (RoE) are 12.91% and 57.21% respectively with a mean and standard deviation of 25.16% and 1.73% respectively. The standard deviation of 1.73% implies that the data employed for this study deviate from the mean value from both sides by 1.73%. This means that there is a wide dispersion of the data from the mean because the standard deviation is higher than the mean value.

Table 1 also shows that the minimum and maximum values for management ownership (MO) are 14.52% and 21.03% respectively with mean and standard deviation of 18.28% and 6.18% respectively. The standard deviation of 6.18% implies that the data employed for this study deviate from the mean value from both sides by 6.18%. This means that there is a wide dispersion of the data from the mean because standard deviation is higher than the mean value.

The minimum and maximum values for employee ownership (EO) are 9.12% and 12.79% respectively with mean and standard deviation of 12.31% and 17.28% respectively. The standard deviation of 17.28% implies that the data employed for this study deviate from the mean value from both sides by 17.28. This means that there is a wide dispersion of the data from the mean because standard deviation is higher than the mean value.

Also, private ownership (PO) has maximum and minimum values of 1.10% and 3.30% respectively and mean value of 1.57%. The standard deviation for private ownership is 0.19%. This shows that the data deviate from the mean value from both sides by 0.19%. This means that there is a wide dispersion of the data from the mean because standard deviation is higher than the mean value.

From table 1, the skewness values for ROE, MO, EO and PO are negative and this implies that the distribution is negatively skewed. Also, ROE and MO are leptokurtic because their kurtosis values were greater than three (3), while EO and PO are platykurtic since their value is less than three (3) which implies that the variables produce fewer and less extreme outliers than those of the normal distribution. The Jarque-Bera values indicate the normality test for the variable which tests if the residuals are normally distributed. The Jarque-Bera values for all variables suggest that the residuals are normally distributed given the probability values.

Table1: Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Descriptive Values	Variables			
	RoE	MO	EO	PO
Mean	0.2516	0.1829	0.1231	0.0157
Median	0.2312	0.1511	0.1062	0.0121
Maximum	0.5721	0.2103	0.1279	0.0330
Minimum	0.1291	0.1452	0.0912	0.0110
Std. Dev.	0.0173	0.0618	0.1728	0.0019
Skewness	-1.1093	-0.2910	-0.2911	-0.8910
Kurtosis	3.1973	3.0123	2.2190	2.1115
Jarque-Bera	12.8192	8.1022	6.7191	18.9012
Probability	0.8102	0.12091	0.2719	0.4923
Obs	162	162	162	162

4.2 Correlation and Regression results

The correlation matrix shows the association among the independent variables (management ownership, employee ownership and private ownership) and the criterion variable (return on equity). The summary of the associations among the variables of the study is presented in table below:

Table 2. Pearson correlation matrix

Variables	**RoE**		**MO**	**EO**	**PO**
RoE	1				
MO	0.6911	0.06120*	1		
EO	0.5918		-0.2891	1	
	0.0000*		0.0005*		
PO	0.3013		0.5723	0.2965	1
	0.0017*		0.5210*	0.0001*	

*At 5% level of significance

Table 4.2 revealed that employee ownership (EO) and private ownership (PO) of the firms under the study were positively correlated with return on equity. The values of 0.5918 and 0.3013 of the variables indicated p-values of 0.0000 and 0.0017 that were significant at 5% respectively. In contrast, managerial ownership (MO) had positive relationship with return on assets that was not statistically significant ($r = 0.6911$; $p = 0.0612$, $p > 0.05$).
The interaction of the independent variables among themselves showed that employee ownership and managerial ownership were negatively correlated among themselves ($r = -0.2891$; $p = 0.0005$, $p < 0.05$). On the other hand, the relationship between managerial ownership (MO) and private ownership (PO) were positively and insignificantly related among themselves ($r = 0.5728$; $p = 0.5210$; $p > 0.05$). Also, the result indicated that employee ownership and private ownership are positively and significantly related ($r = 0.2965$; $p = 0.0001$; $p < 0.05$).

The result showed that some of the variables exhibited strong association while some exhibited low association. Overall, the relationship for the independent variables among themselves is not significant. This does not mean that multicollinearity exists among the independent variables of the study. This can only be assumed when the variance inflation factor and tolerance values are comparatively beyond the established rule of thumb. The tolerance value and variance inflation factor (VIF) are advanced measures for assessing harmful multicollinearity among independent variables. The variance inflation factor and tolerance values are determined with the use of STATA 10 and were found to be concurrently smaller than ten and one respectively, indicating the absence of harmful multi-collinearity. This, therefore, indicates the adequacy of fitting the model of the study with three independent variables.

Table 3 Pooled Regression Model

Variables	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**	**T-statistics**	**Prob.**
MO	0.039183	0.008192	4.783081	0.0621
EO	0.178292	0.201738	0.883780	0.0062
PO	0.067891	0.009221	7.362650	0.0052
R-Squared	0.671071	Mean dependent variable		9.291022
Adjusted R-Squared	0.618191	S. D. dependent variable		2.100557
S.E regression	1.288910	Sum Squared resid		517.9183
F-Stats.	5.102217	Durbin Watson		0.981178
Prob. (F-Stats)	0.000000			

*At 5% level of significance

Table 4.3 showed the result of the pooled regression. The result revealed that the p-values of employee ownership and private ownership of 0.0062 and 0.0052 were significant at the 5% level of significant. Meanwhile, the p-value of managerial ownership of 0.0621 was not significant at 5% level.

Table 4 Fixed Effect Model

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	T-statistics	Prob.
MO	0.481901	0.218974	2.200722	0.0525
EO	0.862729	0.372920	2.313443	0.0001
PO	0.778220	0.427811	1.819074	0.0007
Weighted Statistics				
R-Squared	0.745612	Mean dependent variable		11.89323
Adjusted R-Squared	0.728732	S. D. dependent variable		6.745190
S.E regression	1.298642	Sum Squared resid		521.8932
F-Stats.	6.892011	Durbin Watson		1.762211
Prob. (F-Stats)	0.000021			

The result of the fixed effect model is similar to that of the Pooled regression model. Precisely, only the managerial ownership remains insignificantly different from zero at the 5% level. Meanwhile, the R-squared and the adjusted R-squared of the fixed model shows a better fit of the model. It is clear from the t-statistics that the intercepts are all significantly different from zero at the 5% level of significance. This may not be at all surprising since the intercept terms may subsume the company variable, which was proven to be significant in the Pooled regression models.

Table 5 Random Effect

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	T-statistics	Prob.
Constant	0.266458	0.033827	7.877080	0.0000
MO	0.281922	0.078256	3.602560	0.0031
EO	0.017181	0.006819	2.519577	0.0001
PO	0.015902	0.003892	4.085817	0.0026
GLS Transformed Regression				
R-Squared	0.560292	Mean dependent variable		10.51980
Adjusted R-Squared	0.559007	S. D. dependent variable		2.144560
S.E regression	1.490782	Sum Squared resid		513.9373
F-Stats.	5.902744	Durbin Watson		1.562819
Prob. (F-Stats)	0.009123			

The random effect model results differ quite significantly from that of the fixed-effect model. Although the managerial ownership (MO) variable remain to be significantly different from zero at the 5% level together with the intercept.

In the above two models of fixed effect and random effect models, the study has developed two estimators that have different properties depending on the correlation between α_i and the regressors. Specifically, if the effects are uncorrelated with the explanatory variables, the random effects (RE) estimator is consistent and efficient. The fixed effects (FE) estimator is consistent but not efficient. However, if the effects are correlated with the explanatory variables, the FE estimator is consistent and efficient but the RE estimator is now inconsistent. Hence, it is natural to proceed by computing the Wu-Hausman test to identify which estimator is correct.

Table 6: Wu-Hausman Test

Variables	Coefficient	T-Values	P-Values	Tolerance	VIF
C	0.0275	2.90	0.010		
MO	0.0292	1.63	0.329	0.6729	2.13
EO	0.0619	2.19	0.001	0.7191	1.32
PO	0.0793	3.53	0.005	0.5280	1.24
R^2			0.682		
Wald Chi^2			32.91		
Prob. Chi^2			0.000		

Table 6 shows that the functional relationship between the dependent and independent variables is: $ROE = 0.0275 + 0.0292MO_{it} + 0.0619EO_{it} + 0.0793PO_{it} + \mu_{it}$

The table showed that managerial ownership has a positive insignificant impact on the return on equity of the listed food and beverages firms. This can be observed from the value of beta the coefficient of 0.0292 with a p-value of 0.329 indicating that the p-value was not statistically significant at 5%. This implies that managerial ownership as one of the proxies of ownership structure insignificantly affected the financial performance of listed food and beverage manufacturing firms in Nigeria. The result serves as a basis for accepting the first null hypothesis, which states that there was no significant effect of managerial ownership on return on equity. Hence, this study concluded that there was no significant effect of managerial ownership on return on equity.

It also revealed that employee ownership has a positive significant impact on financial performance as a proxy by return on equity of listed food and beverage firms in Nigeria. This can be seen from the value of the beta coefficient of 0.0619 with a p-value of 0.001 indicating that the p-value was statistically significant. This implied that employee ownership had a significant effect on the financial performance of the firms. The result provided sufficient evidence to reject the second hypothesis, which states that there was no significant effect of employee ownership on the return on equity of the food and beverage firms under the study. Hence, this study found that there was a significant effect of employee ownership on return on equity of food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

It was also shown that private ownership has a positive significant impact on financial performance as a proxy by return on equity of listed food and beverage firms in Nigeria. This can be seen from the value of the beta coefficient of 0.0793 with a p-value of 0.005 indicating that the p-value was statistically significant. This implied that private ownership had a significant effect on the financial performance of the firms. The result provided sufficient evidence to reject the third hypothesis, which states that there was no significant effect of private ownership on the return on equity of the food and beverage firms under the study. Hence, this study found that there was a significant effect of private ownership on return on equity of food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

The Wald Chi-square value of 32.91 showed the combined effect of managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership on return on equity. The p-value of 0.000 for the Wald Chi-square indicated that managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership had a significant effect on return on equity. This form the basis through which the study rejects the fourth hypothesis which stated that "There was no significant combined effect of managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership on return on equity". Hence, this study found that there was a significant combined effect of managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership on return on equity of food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

Results indicated that there was no significant effect of managerial ownership on return on equity. There was a significant effect of employee ownership on return on equity. There was a significant effect of private ownership on return on equity. There was a significant combined effect of managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership on return on equity.

5. Discussion

Based on the empirical analysis, this study concludes that both managerial, employee and private shareholding should be prioritized against ownership concentration by food and beverage firms in Nigeria as this can increase the financial performance of the sector under investigation. This confirms to economic criterion, and could be supported by the work of Akinleye, Olarewaju and Fajuyagbe (2012); they opined that an increase in managerial, employee and private ownership could lead to an increase in the financial performance of an organization due to positive effects shown by his empirical analysis. It is therefore concluded that, organization's financial performance is dependent upon its managerial, private and employee ownership structures as high managerial shareholding can stimulate management of an organization towards increased efficiency. Therefore, ownership by managers may be seen as a system of aligning the interests of managers with those of the shareholders in a way that enhances corporate performance.

However, this form of managerial ownership can also lead to entrenchment of managers, which is costly when they chose to pursue their self-interests against the interest of the organization. It has been argued that the overall effect of managerial ownership on firm performance depends on how well the entrenchment effect and incentive alignment are balanced (Kumar & Zattoni, 2017; Lawal, Agbi & Mustapha, 2018; Saidu, 2019; Yahaya & Lawal, 2018).

The findings therefore, suggest that when managers also double up as shareholders, they are motivated to work towards realization of the wealth creation

objective of the shareholders of whom they are part. On the other hand, managers who are not shareholders are more likely to engage in insider dealings as a way of enhancing their personal wealth and prestige. The private ownership which has also been identified in the study to have shown positive effect on firms' financial performance was as a result of the fact that private investors are more sophisticated than other shareholders because they are more professional regarding capital markets, industries, and businesses and they are better informed. Apart from that, private shareholders have higher capabilities in taking actions and can therefore monitor managers more effectively and less costly (Ogaluzor & Omesi, 2019).

6. Conclusion and Recommendation

From the findings of the study, the following conclusion was drawn guided by the objectives of the study. On the first objective, he result of this study shows that there was no significant effect of managerial ownership on return on equity. On the second objective, the result revealed thatthere was significant effect of employee ownership on return on equity. From the third objective, it was apparent that there is a significant effect of private ownership on return on equity. The result of the fourth objective shows that there was significant combined effect of managerial ownership, employee ownership and private ownership on return on equity.

From the conclusion drawn, it is imperative to recommend that: There is dire need to reasonably increase managers' shareholding of the quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria as not only meant to increase the equity of the firms but as a way of motivating them towards increasing their operational efficiency. At the same time, the managers should be protected by the Board of Directors from unnecessary direct interference by other shareholders. The private ownership is one of the identified ownership structures that have proven empirically positive to firm's financial performance in this study. This was linked by the researcher to the fact that private owners frequently deploy their professionalism and wealth of experience to the firms towards meeting corporate goals. Therefore, the private ownership should be increased against concentrated ownership for better performance. Stock Exchange Commission as a regulatory body should encourage potential managers to invest more in any company in the food and beverage industry to enable them manage the firm well as their funds are invested in the firm. Stock Exchange Commission should ensure that potential private investors are encouraged to invest more as private ownership impact on financial performance of food and beverage firms in Nigeria to ensure that ownership structure impact on firm financial performance of quoted food and beverage firms in Nigeria.

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Cooperative Societies and Households Poverty Reduction Nexus: A Study of Minna Metropolis, Niger State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Poverty is one of the major challenges facing the world, most especially, the third world. Government of nations have continuously come up with different economic and social policies or programmes in other to reduce the level of poverty in their countries, Nigeria inclusive. Despite these efforts, the rate of poverty World over is still alarming and on the increase. It has been acknowledged that cooperative societies have been playing a vital role in economic development most especially at medium and micro level. Using a set of co-operative society's member's data generated from the administration of structured questionnaire to 500 members of a cooperative, in Minna metropolis, the study examines the role of cooperative societies on poverty reduction in Minna metropolis, Niger State, Nigeria. Therefore, this paper investigates the impact of cooperative societies on household's poverty reduction in Minna metropolis, Niger State, Nigeria, using Structural Equation Modelling approach (SEM/AMOS). The results obtained shows that cooperative society has significantly improved the living standard of its members in the study area, thus, fulfilling our a priori expectation that cooperative society has positive impact on household's poverty reduction in the study area. This study therefore recommends the use of policy measures that would continue to make cooperative societies relevant to household's poverty reduction in Minna metropolis, Niger State, Nigeria in particular and the world in general.

Keywords: Cooperative Societies, Households, Poverty Reduction, Niger State, Nigeria, Structural Equation Modelling Approach (AMOS).

1. Introduction

Poverty is multidimensional in nature and has continuously troubled the world for decade now. Governments of the world have come up with different policies and programs in other to reduce the menace of this pandemic called poverty. Evidences have shown that a substantial number of the people are living below the poverty line in spite of the efforts made towards reducing the level of poverty by most nations (Ijaiya & Adesina-Uthman 2019). According to (UNDP, 2013), despite the greatest achievement in the reduction of poverty since the introduction of the Millennium Development Goals by the United Nations in 2000, there is still a widespread of human poverty in the world.

However, poverty situation in Nigeria is worrisome. It is high, widespread and pervasive consuming a huge part of the country's large population and has become a major feature in the country (Ajudua & Imoisi, 2017). Over the years Nigeria government have come up with numerous policies and strategies in other to reduce the level of poverty in the country, despite this efforts, it is confirmed that the rate of poverty is still on the increase (NBS, 2014; Balogun, Yusuf, Omonana & Okoruwa, 2011; Balogun, 2011; Ojimba, 2012;

Zaccheaus & Nwokoma, 2012; Ijaiya, Dayang & Norimah, 2016; Ijaiya & Adesina-Uthman 2019). This situation however, contradicts the belief that the country is endowed with the enormous human and physical resources.

Cooperative societies have been posited as an important in reducing poverty. All cooperative societies, social or economic, are mechanisms that ensure the growth and prosperity of communities. In developing and transitioning countries that lack access to capital, education, and training, cooperative structures allow communities to pool together their resources to solve problems, identify common goals and target the causes and symptoms of poverty (Mhembwe & Dube 2017).

On the premise of the economic situation in Nigeria and the importance attached to cooperative societies as a solution to social interaction and well-being; it thus become necessary to examine these cooperative societies and its relevance to poverty reduction focusing on Minna metropolis in Niger State. Therefore, this paper examines cooperative societies and its role on household's poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: section two provides the literature review of cooperative societies and poverty, section three provides methodology and data source, section four present and interpret the result, while conclusion and policy implication is provided in the last section.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 Cooperative Societies

Cooperatives societies are first and foremost, voluntary business associations formed by people of limited means through contribution of share capital that forms the basis of sharing out the profits that accrue from the business or use as dictated by its members, reasons why it has to be democratically managed by the members themselves. (International Cooperatives Alliance, 2015) defined cooperatives as an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically-controlled enterprise.

Cooperative is a group-based and member-owned business that can be formed for economic and social development in any sector (Ohio Co-operative Development Center, OCDC, 2007).The International Labour Organization (ILO)sees cooperative as an association of person usually of limited means, who have voluntarily come together to achieve a common economics goal through the formation of a democratically controlled business organization, making equitable contribution to the capital required and accepting fair share of the risks and benefits of the undertaking in which members actively participate.

Cooperative is a catalyst for local entrepreneurial growth; because it retains within the communities in which they operate the mobilized capital, as well as surplus derived from outside transactions, both accumulating for further entrepreneurial development. This opinion supports the view of Olaleye (2007) who sees cooperative societies as a business voluntarily owned and controlled by its members and operated for them and by them on a non-profit or cost basis.

Cooperative enterprises provide the members means whereby a significant proportion of humanity is able to take into its own hands the tasks of creating productive employment, overcoming poverty achieve social integration and continue to be an important means of acquiring self-help, self-responsibility, democratic voice, equality, equity and solidarity.
According to the Department for International Development (DFID) (2005), cooperatives have four main characteristics:

They are formed by groups of people for a specific need or problem; they are formed freely by members through contribution of assets; the formed organization is governed democratically in order to achieve desired objectives; they are independent enterprises promoted, owned and controlled by people who are members to meet their needs. Cooperatives therefore focus on serving members and communities (FAO, 2013). They help build a "solidarity economy" that emphasizes mutual self-help, inclusion, participation and concern for community, thereby reflecting the priority placed on goals beyond the profit motive. They help ensure decent, regular incomes to their members and enable local access to safe, affordable and nutritious food. For instance, by creating opportunities for employment and investment for rural population, agricultural cooperatives contribute to stabilizing communities and preventing social conflict.

2.2 Types of Cooperative Societies

2.2.1 Consumer Cooperative Societies

Consumers' cooperatives societies are societies primarily formed by consumers with the sole aim of eliminating the challenges posed by middlemen in their quest to secure goods required for daily use at lower price. It is a society that is service oriented rather than profit oriented. These societies purchase goods directly from manufacturers and wholesalers and sell to members thereby eliminating the profit oriented middlemen. Consumer co-operatives do not use advertising but rely on word-of-mouth. They ensure a regular supply of goods at reasonable rates. They thus function as the public distribution system and well as develop a mechanism to check prices of consumer goods in the market. The scarcity of consumer goods during the Second World War gave rise to the formation of many consumer societies in Nigeria; however, not long after the end of the most of these societies faded away. But recently, like all consumers, they end the chain of production. Goods are bought from the co-operators on wholesale basis, stored and sold to the consumers and members of the public at the current market price. At a given time, members are paid dividends calculated on the basis of their purchase.

2.2.2 Producer Cooperative Societies

Producer cooperatives were formed to enhance the production of goods and services of various kinds. Indeed, the chief characteristic of producer cooperative society is its pronounced cooperative nexus. By this it means a strong functioning working relationship between the cooperative complex and the members. There is a very strong working relationship between a productive society and its members. Ijere (1986) classified producer cooperative in two: producer cooperatives for mutual work in the area of farming, livestock, fishing, forestry extraction (or mining), processing, industry, labour and handicrafts; and auxiliary cooperative for the marketing of product and the supply of professional goods, such as credit machinery, tools, input, storage, irrigation, accounting, insurance, technical guidance, etc.

2.2.3 Marketing Cooperatives

Through the marketing cooperatives, middlemen are eliminated and the unnecessary waste of products avoided. Nwankwo et al. (2016) noted that in the villages of old Anambra and Anambra States, for instance, piles of uncracked palm kernels are now left under sun and rain to waste away. If the owners were in marketing cooperatives, it would have been simple for them to dispose of. Nwankwo et al. (2016) further noted that the cooperatives through their pooled resources would be able, as producer merchants, to explore and harness all the possible avenues for efficient and profitable marketing of our products both internally and internationally.

2.2.4 Housing Cooperative

This emerged as a result of the system whereby people form a group for the purpose of building houses for one another on rotational basis. As at the time, this type of cooperative existed. Mud and that were used in building.

2.2.5 Transport Cooperative Societies

Transport cooperative societies cater for the transit problems of their members as well as the external transportation of their goods. Sometimes, they carry out some activities for non-members for a price.

2.2.6 Input Service Cooperatives

These societies exist to supply its members with seasoned inputs at reasonable costs. It is mostly operated on agro business line.

2.2.7 Cooperative Thrift and Loan Societies

The Roman Catholic teachers in Abeokuta started the first cooperative thrift and loan society in 1940. This type of society was designed for salary earners and primarily to take care of their old age and retirement. Members make regular thrift savings during the period they are under employment and an individual could also make other savings for special purpose if he wishes. Such savings could be children's school fees, vacation, leave, etc.

3. Poverty: Concepts, Types, Causes and Consequences

Poverty is the state of being poor. It is a concept which affects individuals and the economy socially, economically and otherwise and has been posited by scholars to have contributed to all forms of socio-economic and political problems in economies (Ajudua & Imoisi, 2017). Poverty is multidimensional in nature; scholars have described it in different ways. There is no precise agreement on the definition of poverty. Depending on the societies and changes over time, the perceptions, contexts, meanings and usages may differ among the observers and researchers. World Bank (2006), defined poverty as a condition of having insufficient resources or income. In its most extreme form, poverty is a lack of basic needs, such as adequate and nutritious food, clothing, housing, clean water, and health services.

United Nations (2009) posits poverty as the inability of getting choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. This means the lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in the society; lack of food and clothes; not having a school or clinic to go to; lack of land to farm and grow food or a job to earn a living; lack of access to credit; insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities; susceptibility to violence; living in a marginalized or fragile environments; lack of access to clean water or sanitation".

According to Powerful Information Grassroots International Development, (PIGID, 2014), poverty deprives people of their security and well-being; safe water and adequate food, clothing and shelter, education and healthcare; rights, and their freedom, dignity and peace of mind and end up putting people's lives in danger and robbing them of their future.

Related to the concepts of poverty are the types, causes and consequences of poverty. Jensen, (2009), identify six main types of poverty, which includes: Situational poverty; Generational poverty; Absolute poverty**;** Relative poverty; Urban poverty and Rural poverty.

Situational poverty is generally caused by a sudden crisis or loss and is often temporary. Events causing situational poverty include environmental disasters, divorce, or severe health problems. (Woodford & Anderson, 2012). Generational poverty according to Barrientos, (2011) is a situation in families where at least two generations have been born into poverty. Families living in this type of poverty are not expected to get out of poverty. Absolute poverty**,** involves scarcity of necessities such as shelter, running water, and food. It is a situation of day-to-day survival on day-to-day survival. It is having an annual income less than half of the official poverty line. It can also be defined in terms of the minimal requirements necessary to afford minimal standards of food, clothing, healthcare and shelter (Bergh et al., 2014). Relative poverty refers to the economic status of a family whose income is insufficient to meet its society's average standard of living. In other words, it is referring to the living standards of majority in a given society and separates the poor from the non-poor. Households with expenditure greater than two-thirds of the Total Household Per Capita expenditure are non-poor whereas those below it is poor. (MacKeigan et al., 2013). Urban poverty occurs in metropolitan areas with higher populations. The urban poor deal with a complex aggregate of chronic and acute stressors, it consists of ghettos, slump, and shanties which characterized by inadequate welfare services, low per capita income, over-crowded accommodation and environmental degradation. (Rusch et al., 2014). Rural poverty occurs in nonmetropolitan areas with lower populations. In rural areas, there are more single-guardian households, and families often have less access to services, support for disabilities, and quality education opportunities. It is characterized by poor living condition. Programs to encourage transition from welfare to work are problematic in remote rural areas, where job opportunities are few (Whitener, Gibbs, & Kusmin, 2003). (See Himanshu et al., 2011).

Maldonado (2004) classified the causes of poverty into two; low productivity of available household resources and the high income and consumption volatility experienced by poor households. The first one is associated to limited endowments (that is, human capital, technology and knowledge, social capital and physical capital), not well-defined property rights, and precarious access to markets (e.g., markets for goods and services, financial services, labor markets, and land markets). These constraints make it difficult for poor households to take fuller advantage of their productive opportunities. The second one is the instability of income and consumption results from the incidence of shocks and the lack of mechanisms to anticipate and cope with adverse occurrences. The inability of households to deal efficiently with shocks may lead to loss of productive assets and, thereby, reduce income-generating opportunities. To solve this problem, households may choose strategies that generate lower, but more stable returns in the process trap into poverty. Consequently, poverty involves a complex array of risk factors that adversely affect the population in a multitude of ways. It has a wide ranging and often devastating effects. World Bank (2006) highlighted five major consequences of poverty which include malnutrition and salvation; infectious disease and exposure to the element; mental illness and drug dependence; crime and violence and long-term effect.

3.1 Poverty Reduction Strategy in Nigeria

Poverty reduction strategy in Nigeria has always been part of the national development plans and implemented at both national and regional levels through entrepreneurial development initiatives
Ogwumike (2001), and Ilesanmi et al. (2015), in their work grouped the poverty reduction strategy in Nigeria into three eras, that is, the pre-SAP era, the SAP era, and the democratic era. The pre SAP era saw the introduction of poverty reduction

programmes such as the Operation Feed the Nation, the River Basin Development Authorities, the Agricultural Development Programmes, the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme, the Rural Electrification Scheme and the Green Revolution. In the SAP era, the following poverty reduction measures were introduced: The Better Life for Rural Women, the Directorate of Employment, the Family Support Programme, the Peoples' Bank of Nigeria and the Family Economic, Advancement Programme, while the democratic era witnessed the emergence of the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) designed to reduce poverty by providing employment for 200,000 people in the country on a yearly basis. It was also aimed at inculcating and improving better attitudes towards maintenance culture on highways, urban and rural roads and public buildings.

The Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) as a strategy was phased out in 2001 and replaced by the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which was an integral part of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). Apart from being a poverty reduction strategy, NEEDS that was initiated in 2004 had other objectives which includes: wealth creation, employment generation and value orientation (NPC, 2004).

4. Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the collective action theory. Marshall (1988) defined collective action as an action taken by a group (either directly or on its behalf through an organization) in pursuit of members' perceived shared interests. Members can contribute in various ways to achieve the shared goal: money, labour or in-kind contributions (food, wood).

The action can take place directly by members of a group, or on their behalf by a representative or even employee. The coordination can take place through a formal organization, through an informal organization, or, in some cases, through spontaneous action. Thus, an organization may contribute to collective action, but the two concepts are not the same. In the context of natural resource management, the collective action of deciding on and observing rules for use or non-use of a resource can take place through common property regimes or by coordinating activities across individual farms. Three major tenets of collection action are:

- It requires the involvement of a group of people
- It requires a shared interest within the group
- It involves some kind of common action which works in pursuit of that shared interest.

The nature of cooperative society is easily explained by the social action theory. Cooperatives are made up of individual who through a combination of resources are able to confront and overcome several socio-economic challenges confronting them. Putnam's (1995) three components of social action as explained above appears to be the essential values on which cooperative societies thrive on and which to a large extent determine their success.

Clearly, the social action theory is relevant to this study since it enhances our understanding of the cooperative as a self-help organization that depends on member contribution, commitment and participation for its success.

5. Empirical Review

Adekola & Dokubo (2017) examined how operations of cooperative societies in Rivers State have been carrying out poverty reduction activities among their members so as to help them contribute to community development. The population of the study comprised 2,355 members of twenty-one (21) registered cooperative societies whose activities cover thrift and loan, and thrift and credit facilities. Stratified random sampling technique was used to sample 1,103 representing 50% of the members of the twenty-one (21) thrift loan and credit cooperative societies which were used for the study. However, factors such as Lack of capital and corruption among the heads of cooperative societies in the State have been militating against the effectiveness of the cooperative poverty reduction activities. Therefore, in order to sustain the cooperative poverty reduction activities, cooperators need cooperative education.

Olaleye, (2007), examined the effectiveness of the strategies adopted by the cooperatives societies to alleviate poverty among their members. The study employed the ex post-facto method with the sample size of 1276. Structured questionnaire was used to gather the data. The finding shows that cooperative societies in urban area adopt twelve main strategies to curb poverty among their members; it was also revealed that 4 of these strategies were not effective, while 3 were very effective. The study therefore recommends that for the cooperative societies to be able to focus and improve on their performance in poverty alleviation, there is need for a reduction in the number of strategies being used.

Abbas (2016) assessed the roles of cooperative societies on poverty reduction in Yobe State, Nigeria. Using multi-layer random sampling technique responses from questionnaires and interviews conducted with key informants served as the main source of data. The study showed that the activities of cooperative societies have improved the living standard of its members through provision of skills, trainings, job opportunities and financial assistance thereby reducing the poverty level of its members and communities. The finding of the study also showed that, despite various successes achieved by the cooperative societies in poverty alleviation, its efforts are not without some challenges. The study thus identified and developed effective policy measures within which cooperative societies can exploit to benefit all its members and communities especially in the area of poverty alleviation.

Okafor et al., (2018), examines agricultural cooperative and empowerment of rural dweller in Awka North L.G.A of Anambra state, Nigeria. To achieve this 254 structured questionnaire were used to collect data from women agricultural cooperatives in the area. The study provides empirical evidence on the women's socio-economic characteristics as well as determines the relationship between membership duration and member's income, and also the effect of farm input; credit and extension visit on income which is proxy for empowerment. Findings revealed that the joint effect of the explanatory variable in the model account for 38% of the variations in the income profile of members of agricultural cooperatives. Two coefficients (farm input and credit) are not significant while extension visit was significant at 1%. Membership duration also shows a positive correlation with income of the members. There is a significant difference between the incomes of members after joining cooperatives**.** The study recommends that women in the area should be encouraged to form or join cooperatives for enhanced income and poverty reduction. Cooperatives should improve in the provision of farm input and credit to their members in other to enhance their agricultural production capacity thereby empowering the rural women economically.

6. **Methodology and Data Source**

The study was conducted in Minna metropolis, Minna is the state capital of Niger State, and is located some 740 kilometers from Lagos and 140 Kilometer from Abuja the Federal Capital of Nigeria and on latitude North 6o.301 and longitude East 8o.801of the equator. By 2006 census it has an estimated population of about 253,125 people (NPC 2006). Minna is divided into two local governments, that is Bosso local government area and Chanchaga local government area. Data were collected through structured questionnaire administered among members of cooperatives in the study between the month of September 2019 and November 2019. A multistage sample design was used to collect cross sectional data from members of the cooperative societies in the study area. Specifically, a stratified sampling method and a random sampling were used in selecting the respondents. The first stage was to identify the sample areas which comprise 2 local government areas, that is Bosso local government area and Chanchaga local government area. The second stage identified the number of cooperative societies and the number of members in each, while the third stage of the sampling involves random selection of 250 members in each of the selected study areas. In all a total sample of about 500 cooperative societies members were randomly selected to respond to the questions in the questionnaires.

In determining the impact of cooperative societies on poverty reduction in Minna metropolis, an econometrics model of simultaneous equation modeling through structural equation model was built around the indicators of cooperative societies and poverty reduction as the main objective of this study. The model was used in estimating the impact of these indicators on the poverty reduction in the study area. The variables considered are as follows: Members contributions, interest rate, and credit facility.

These can be represented in the following model:

PovR = F (MC + IR + CF) + Ui

Where:

PovR = Poverty status of the cooperative societies members in the study area.

MC = Members contribution to the cooperative societies in the study area.

IR = Interest rate on loan by the cooperative societies in the study area.

CF = Credit facilities available to members

Ui = Error terms

The responses to the questionnaires by the respondents were coded and then analyzed using SPSS version 22. Structural Equation Model (SEM) was conducted using Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS). All tests were statistically significant at 95 percent confidence interval.

Structural Equation Model (SEM) is a statistical tool used in testing and estimating the causal relationships among latent variables. SEM was derived from an econometrics simultaneous equation modeling. SEM technique can be

categorized among the second generation multivariate analysis such as confirmatory factor analysis, correlation, multiple linear regression and path analysis (Fornell, 1987). Also, SEM is a technique used by researcher to simultaneously assess the relationships that exist between multiple independent and dependent constructs. SEM can also be called latent variables model, the term structural depicts a causal relationship that the parameters show. AMOS is the software used in the analysis of the data. According to Kline (1998), a sample size that is more than 200 can be considered to be large enough for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis. Hence, this study is qualified to adopt Structural Equation Model (SEM) technique, because the sample size exceeds 200.

7. Results and Discussions

7.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, age of the respondents in the study area. For instance, 5.80 % of the respondents is under the age of 21years. While 35.10 % were between the age of 31 and 40 years. The mean age group of the respondents is 35 years. An indication that most of the respondents under this study are in their economic active age, meaning that at this age they are to be more efficient and productive which is likely to impact positively on their livelihood and move them out of poverty.

This result is invariance to the work of Marx et al. (2012), who were of the view that in most cases people in their active age were not willing or even if they are willing, they cannot get job because of unemployment problem. But in agreement with the work of Ibitoye & Odiba (2015), in their study found that economic active age of the heads of household make them more efficient and productive which gave them a higher chance to overcome poverty than those of the older and younger age.

Also, gender of the respondents was shown in Table 1, out of 500 respondents of the entire study, 86.00 % were male, while, 18.20 % were female. An indication that we have more of male than female, this can be attributed to the culture of the study area, where female is not encouraged to work, here most women are full house wife, whose major work is to take care of the children and the husband. This situation is likely to increase the economic burden on the heads of household, which may increase the level of poverty status. This result is in agreement with the work of Ibitoye & Odiba (2015), who also have more male heads of household than female heads of household in their study, which was as a result of labor intensive.

Table 1 also shows marital status of the respondents, 29.00 % of the respondents were single, majority, 70.10 % were married, and also only 12.20 % were either widow or widower. An indication that there are more married people under this study, this can be attributed to the focus of the study which is basically on the members of cooperative societies, also because of the high level of homogeneity of the marital status of the heads of household. The result is in agreement with the work of Marx et al. (2012) and Ibitoye & Odiba (2015), who were of the view that more married people in the area, can also be attributed to high level of homogeneity of the farmer's marital status in their study.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Factors		Frequency	Percentage	Factors	Frequency
	N=500	%				N=500	%		N=500
Age(Years)				**Primary Occupation**				**Educational Status (Years)**	
less than 21	28	5.80		Agric/Fishing	21		4.40	10 Years	8
21-30	159	33.20		Trade		119	24.80	11 Years	91
31-40	168	35.10	35 Years	Transportation	110		23.00	12 Years	49
41-50	90	18.60		Technical/Professional	91		18.80	15 Years	290
51-60	41	8.60		Civil Servant	65		13.60	3 Years	10
>60	14	2.90		Construction	15		3.10	6 Years	21
Gender				Handcraft	14		2.90	7 Years	5
Male	412	86.00		Others		65	13.60	8 year	1
Female	88	18.20		**Secondary Occupation**				9 years	25
Marital Status				Agric/Fishing	65		13.60		
Single	139	29.00		Handcraft	21		4.40		
Married	336	70.10		Trade		119	24.80		
Widow/Widower	25	12.20		Transportation	14		2.90		
Household Size				Construction	15		3.10		
Between 1-3	158	32.80		Technical/Professional	65		13.60		
Between 4-6	278	58.00	5	Government Service	110		23.00		
Between 7-10	64	13.40		Others		91	18.80		

Source: *Field Survey 2019*

7.2 Measurement Model Fit

In the measurement model, the model fit generated along with the output including the Comparative fit index (CFI), Normed fit index (NFI), Goodness of fit index (GFI), Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) and Relative Chi-square meet their expected range to justify the validity of the measurement model.

Table 2: Established Criteria for fit Indices

Fit Indices	Authors	Recommended Values	Values from current model
CFI	Bentler, (1990) Hatcher, (1994),	>.90	9.14
NFI	Bentler & Bonett, (1987)	>.90	9.26
GFI	Yuan, K.H, (2005) Steiper, J.H, (2007) Hair et.al., (2010	>90 >.80	9.48
RMSEA	Byrne, (2001), Hu & Bentler (1999)	< 0.50 or <= 0.08	0.05
Relative Chi-square	Marsh & Hocevar, (1985), Bentler (1990)	0.05 or < 5.0	2.324

The CFI generated for the study was 9.14, NFI is 9.26, GFI is 9.48, RMSEA is 0.05 and Relative chi-square is 2.324. Also, the unidimensionality was tested and this was achieved because all factors loading was positive and greater than 0.5.

Table 3: Discriminant Validity Testing

	MC	IR	CF	Pov
MC	**0.85**			
IR	0.24	**0.75**		
CF	0.29	0.42	**0.85**	
Pov	0.36	0.44	0.37	**0.95**

The value in diagonal and bold is the square root of AVE of the construct while other values are the correlation between the respective constructs. The discriminant validity is said to be achieved when a diagonal value (bold) is higher than the values in its row and column. Therefore, this study exhibits sufficient discriminant validity since the value in bold is higher than the values in its row and column. Also, there is the absence of multicollinearity since the correlation coefficient among the latent variables did not exceed 0.85 (See Zainudin 2015).

Table 4: Results of SEM on the Impact of Cooperative Societies on Poverty Reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria

Construct	β	SE	Beta	CR	ρ	Results
MC	0.228	0.022	0.244	4.213	0.000***	Significant
IR	0.232	0.030	0.442	7.413	0.001***	Significant
CF	0.254	0.032	0.148	4.234	0.004***	Significant

$R = 0.89$

$R^2 = 0.79$

Note: Asterisks indicate significance level: ***1%, **5%, *10%, MC = member's contribution, IR = Interest rate, CR = Credit facility.

Table 4 shows the results of the regression analysis on the impact of cooperative societies on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. The R^2 value of 0.79 shows that 79 percent variation in the dependent variable (Poverty) is explained by the explanatory variables (cooperative societies components). According to Chin et al. (2003), R^2 values greater than 0.67 is having practical value, R^2 value between 0.33 and 0.66 is assumed to have moderate explanatory value and while R^2 value between 0.19 and 0.32 has weak explanatory value, therefore, R^2 for this study is 0.79 and it has a practical explanatory power. Looking at the individual variables, it is shows that all independent variables, (that is, cooperative societies components), are significant, an indication that the model is acceptable. For example, member contributions (MC), has a coefficient of 0.228, with critical ratio of 4.213 was positively related to poverty reduction and statistically significant at 1 percent level. The beta result of 0.244 indicates that member contributions have 24.4 percent direct effect on poverty reduction in the study area. Interest rate (IR), has coefficient of 0.232 with critical ratio of 7.413 been positively related to poverty reduction and statistically significant at 1 percent level. The beta result of 0.442

indicates that interest rate has 44.2 percent direct effect on poverty reduction in the study area. Credit facilities (CF), has coefficient of 0.254 with critical ratio of 4.234 been positively related and statistically significant at 1 percent level. The beta result of 0.148 indicates that credit facilities have 14.8 percent direct effect on poverty reduction in the study area.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper investigates the impact of cooperative societies components on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria, using Structural Equation Model technique. The findings of this study revealed that member contributions (MC), interest rate (IR), and credit facility (CF) all have positive impact on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. Up till now, government of the nation Nigeria inclusive, have failed to recognized the immense contribution of the cooperative societies has necessary missing link in fighting poverty, yet its contribution to the improvement in the living standard of members of the populace. This study focused on investigating on the causal relationship between cooperative societies and poverty using Minna metropolis. The result of the study showed clearly that there is a very high level of poverty and cooperative societies has far in reducing the rate of poverty to some extent in the study area. There is a reaction causation effect between cooperative societies and poverty in the study area. Member contributions, interest rate as well as credit facility have great impact in the reduction of poverty in the study area. This is consistent with the few studies that have investigated on the causal relationship between both. The result of the study further showed that member contributions, interest rate and credit facility causes reduction in the poverty status of members in the study area. Thus there is a direct link between cooperative societies and poverty in the study area.

The results of this study notwithstanding, it recommends that members should be more committed and be honest in improving their contribution; this will go a long way in the financial status of the cooperative. It is also recommended that cooperative societies should look in to the interest rate and review so that it will easy for members to be to pay back with ease. The study also recommended that credit facility should be made available to members as at when due; this will go a long way in easing economic hardship of the members. It also recommended that government can also come to the aid of the cooperative societies by making available soft loan with either no interest or low interest. However, policy measure that would further improve cooperative societies in reducing the poverty status of the populace in the study area and Nigeria at large should be put in place.

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Assessment of Health Hazards and Challenges among Poultry Workers in Egbeda Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. There are many factors that could lead to health hazards among the workers in the poultry business which invariably hamper their production and productivity over time. Hence, a study of assessment of health hazards/challenges among poultry workers in Egbeda local government area of Oyo State, Nigeria was conducted. Purposive sampling was used for selection of 6 villages from the study area while 80 respondents were selected with simple random sampling. Data was analyzed with both descriptive statistics (frequency distribution and simple percentages) and inferential statistics (pearson product moment correlation). The findings revealed some common health hazard challenges experienced as neck pains (53.8%), back pains, (45%), leg pains (41.3%) and general body pains (35%) among the poultry workers. In addition, the findings showed that most respondents in the study area contracted health hazards through injury (68.8%), poor working environments (62.5%) and unhygienic environment (55%). Furthermore, strategies dominantly used in managing the environmental hygiene/health were proper hygiene (81.2%), use of disinfectants (80%), vaccination (76.2%) and physical cleaning and clearing of wastes/dirt's management (70%). Furthermore, the result revealed that there is significant correlation between management strategies and common hazards experienced by poultry workers in the study area ($r = -0.481$, $p < 0.05$). In conclusion, the findings revealed that the poultry workers were predisposed to a number of common health hazards/challenges. It is however recommended that the extension officers should disseminate necessary information management strategies for poultry health hazard. The community health officers should enforce and educate the poultry workers on proper hygiene practices to prevent epidemic in their work environment.

Keywords: Poultry Workers, Health Hazards Challenges, Occupational Work Safety

1. Introduction

Historically the poultry industry is not just labour intensive but also a hard intensive industry like other industries (including apparel and electronics) with cumulative trauma disorders (CTD'S) among the workers (Kitalyi, in FAO 1998). Many different methods are used for rearing poultry. Production systems range from small, village-level scavenging poultry flocks (Kiltayi in FAO 1998) from which few poultry enter the formal market system, to integrated intensive operation in which large companies control all aspects of the production and marketing chain upstream and downstream from production units (Tyson foods 2006). Between lies a range of systems from individual farms practicing to industrial type of production (Sim et al., 2006) to flocks of ducks reared on paddy fields (Gilbert et al., 2006) which are often transported long distances to graze on recently harvested fields. Poultry workers involved in poultry breeding, farming, loading and transport of poultry birds processing facilities face a number of potential health hazards. Exposure to chemicals such as ammonia or disinfectants and detergents used in poultry farms are possible hazard as well as exposure to poultry dust, both inorganic and organic. Poultry production systems are complex, multi-layered and deal with perishable or shelf-life products. It is common for feed mills, hatcheries, farms and processing plants to be owned or managed and/or managed by the same company. Effective recognition

of hazards and informal assessment of risks has long been the basis of progress in the industry (Cross, 1996). Health hazard is an inherent feature of modern poultry production. Production systems are complex and both the intermediate products (hatching eggs, day old chicks e.t.c) and products (meat and eggs) are perishable. The bulk of experts in the poultry profession is at the commercial specialization rearing birds for egg and meat while a small population are breeders (Vose, 1996). Occupational infections include parasitic diseases which can limit the range of applied diagnostic and certification procedures only to diseases induced by pathogenic agents or by exposures occurring in the occupational environment (Lipinska et al., 2011). In some cases, it becomes difficult or even impossible to identify the real cause of patients' complaints. Occupation bio hazard are infectious agents or hazardous biological materials that exert harmful effects on workers' health either directly or indirectly in the working environment through waste pollutants, micro-organisms, virus or toxins (Wkipedia, 2010). The occupational infectious diseases are commonly found as part of a systematic infection involving the respiratory organs in immune compromised workers. Biological or etiological causes of disease are on the increase and have its source from occupational factors (Liu et al, 2010). Two main groups of biological agents of occupational hazard are allergenic and/or toxic agents forming bioerosols, causing occupational diseases of the respiratory tract and skin, primarily in agricultural workers, and agents causing zoonosis and other infectious diseases that spread by tick or insect vectors through various exposures routes. Bioerosols are biological particles of organic dust and or droplets suspended in the air such as viruses, bacteria, toxin, fungi, secondary metabolites of fungi, and particles of faeces, bodies of mites and insects and feathers, and urine of birds. They often induce disorders of the respiratory system or skin (Lawniczek, 2010). However, agricultural production has a lot of risk than businesses in other sectors of economy (Hardeaker et al., 2004). The risky nature in agricultural production may be attributed to several factors beyond the control of the producers. Such factors include environmental factors, vagaries of nature, diseases, insect infestations, general economic and market conditions contribute to the price, yield or net return variability of agricultural producers. The sources of risk in agriculture are numerous and diverse (World Bank, 2005; Dupaigre et al., 2006). Therefore, there are many serious safety and health hazard in the poultry industry such noise pollution, dangerous equipment, slippery floors, musculoskeletal disorders and hazardous chemicals (including ammonia that is used as refrigerant). This entire health hazard can affect poultry workers physically and psychologically as a result of harm and risk detrimental to the industry leaving her goal unachieved. Since workers have a right to a safe work place, there must be provision of safe and healthy environment for them. But poultry workers are infected with diseases as a result of poor management and lack/inadequate information on bio-security measures. Health hazards assessment is the identification of potential threats to poultry industry. There are some hazards which ravage the poultry industry as a result of not identifying and examining the activities in the vicinity of the farm. Therefore the need of identifying hazards, the pathways for their entry into poultry industry and provision of measures to reduce risk. The specific objectives of the study are to identify poultry management systems used by the respondents; identify the common health hazard challenges experienced by the respondents; and assess the strategies of managing health hazard challenges. This study therefore, hypothesized that strategies for management of hazards do not control the common health challenges among poultry workers in the study area.

2. Methodology

This study was carried out in Egbeda local government area of Oyo state, Nigeria. Egbeda local government headquarters is in the town of Egbeda. It has an area of 191km² and a population of 281,573 of the 2006 census. Egbeda geographical coordinates are 7° 22' 0'' North, 4° 3' 0'' East. Egbeda local government is sub-divided into 10 wards: Erunmu, Ayede/ Alugbo/ Koloko, Owo bale/kasumu, Olodan/ajiwogbo, Olodo/kumapayi I, Olodo II, OlodoIII, Osegere/awaye, EgbedaOlode/Alakia and Olubadan estate. The target population of the study was poultry workers in Egbeda local government area of Oyo state. The sampling procedure was 30% selection of ten wards (Erunmu, Olodo/kumapayi and Egbeda) through purposive sampling in Egbeda local government and in each of the selected wards, 2 villages were randomly selected. The sample size was 80 poultry workers in Egbeda local government area. Data collection was with the aid of a well-structured questionnaire and personal interview guide. The data collected was analyzed with descriptive and inferential (Pearson product moment correlation) statistics.

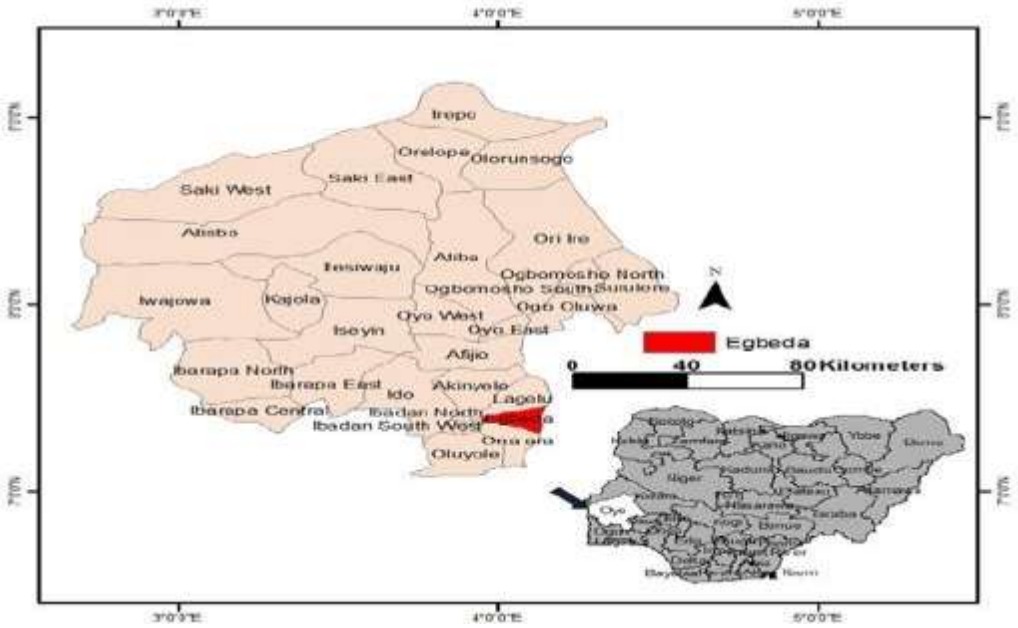

Figure 1: Map of Oyo State showing the study area Egbeda Local Government Area

3. Result and Discussion

Table 1: Management system of poultry in Egbeda Local Government

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Management system		
Battery cage	35	43.8
Deep litter	24	30.0
Both	21	26.2
Types of birds raised		
Layers	20	25.0
Broilers	14	17.5
Cocks	13	16.2
Layers and broilers	19	23.8
Broilers and cocks	13	17.5
Feeding method		
Manual	64	80
Automatic	16	20
Water supply method		
Manual	43	53.8
Automatic	37	46.2

Management Systems of Poultry in Egbeda Local Government

Table 1 showed that 43.8% practice battery cage system, 30% practice deep litter system. The result also showed that 25% of respondents in the study area raise layers, 14% (broilers) while 23.8% reared both. The poultry feeding and drinking systems are predominantly done manually by the respondents in the study area with about 80% and 53.8% respectively. These results from the research work were an attestation that the predominant management system implored by those that are into poultry in the study area is battery cage and they are into raising of layers birds. Also from the feeding and giving of water to the birds which are done mostly manually if work ethics are not followed can lead to the ways by which the workers get these health hazards. This finding negates that of Chrysostome et al., (2002) who proposed that small holder chicken production in Bangladesh is best raised in battery cages. Kinh (2006) also established that intensive system has been established in the country but that feeding system is faced by many problems in Vietnam.

Table 2: Common health hazards/challenges experienced by poultry workers

Health hazard (%)	Always (%)	Occasional (%)	Never (%)	Ranking
Neck pains	53.8	21.2	25	1
Back pains	45	36.2	18.8	2
General body pains	35	45	20	4
Waist and thigh pains	28.8	43.8	27.5	5
Leg pains	41.3	37.5	31.3	3
Measles	16.3	30	53.8	13
Rashes	10	27.5	62.5	16
Eczema	10	27.5	62.5	17
Profuse sneezing	26.3	43.8	30	7
Catarrh /cold	27.5	52.5	20	6
Asthma	12.5	33.8	53.8	14
Cough	23.8	48.8	22.8	8
Stomach ache	23.8	45.0	31.3	9
Dysentery	12.5	20	67.5	15
Fever	22.5	57.5	20	10
Diarrhea	10	33.8	56.3	18
Loss of appetite	17.5	52.5	30	12
Shortness of breath	20	40	40	11

Common health hazards/challenges experienced by poultry workers

Table 2 revealed that majority of the respondent experienced some health problems such as neck pains (53.8%), back pain (45%) and leg pains (41.3%). The respondents occasionally experienced common health problems such as fever (57.5%), loss of appetite (52.5%), catarrh (52.5%), coughing (48.8%), general body pains (45%), stomach ache (45%), profuse sneezing (43.8%) and waist and thigh pains (43.8%). The table also showed the ranking of common health problems experienced by poultry workers in the study area with the use of weighted score. Series of body pains ranked between 1^{st} - 5^{th} positions, respiratory infections ranked between 6^{th} – 8^{th} while other infections 9^{th} – 18^{th}. This shows that carrying heavy loads of feed and inhalation of endo-toxins and other microscopic organism found in air is a gateway to these predominant health problems among poultry workers in the study area. The result of this study in regards to the work of "The Bureau of labor statistics (2016) Raleigh, North Carolina, found out that over-exertion, repetitive movements result in leg pain, lifting of materials, body movement injuries, exposure to harmful substances, contact with objects or equipment and musculo-skeletal disorders are common health hazards usually faced by poultry workers in North Carolina, United States of America.

Table 3: Degree of experiencing various health problems by poultry workers

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
High	51	63.4	15.9
Low	29	36.6	

Table 3 revealed the degrees of various health challenges experienced by poultry workers in Egbeda local government area of Oyo State, Nigeria. The Table showed that majority of the respondents (63.4%) experienced one form of health problems or the other. This implies that many of these poultry workers were seriously ill at one time or the other due to the farming operational system over time.

Table 4: Distribution of strategies used in managing health hazard problems

Strategies	Frequency	Percentag	Ranks
Proper hygiene	68	81.2	1
Quarantine	53	66.2	5
Physical management	56	70	4
Use of protective wear	47	58.8	7
Use of disinfectants	64	80	2
Daily inspection	48	60	6
Vaccination	61	76.2	3
Respiratory equipment	42	52.5	9
Use of low dust material	44	55	8

Strategies used in managing health hazard problems

Table 4 showed the strategy used in managing health problems in the study area. The result revealed that (81.2%) used proper hygiene as a means of managing health problems this means that with the use or maintaining proper hygiene contracting health hazard can be well managed, other strategies are; use of disinfectants (80%), vaccination (76.2%), physical management (70%), quarantine (66.2%), daily inspection (60%), use of protective wears (58.8%), use of low dust material (55%) and the use of respiratory equipment (52.5%). This is also in line with the work of (Adam et al., 2011) whose findings also showed that vaccination, hand washing (categorized as proper hygiene) was predominant among poultry farmers for managing health hazard in his study area.

Table 5: Level of strategies used in managing health hazards

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
High	53	67.2	6.0
Low	27	33.8	

Table 5 above categorized the strategies used in managing common health hazard problems. It revealed that majority of the poultry workers (67.2%) manage common health problems with the health strategies. This implies that majority of the poultry workers found these management strategies effective to a large extent.

Hypothesis testing

The result from Table 6 on test of hypothesis showed that there is significant effect of management strategies used on common health hazard experienced by poultry workers in the study area ($r=-0.481$, $p<0.05$). This finding is in agreement with the study of Adedeji (2011) who revealed that preventive measures (management strategies) and drugs are positively significant to management of health challenges among poultry workers. This implies that increase in management strategy reduces common health hazard problems.

Table 6: Relationship between common health challenges and control strategies used

Variables	r-value	p-value	Decision
Managing strategies vs Common health challenges	-0.481	0.000	Significant

Level of significance at 5%; **Source: Data analysis, 2016**

4. Conclusion

Results from the empirical findings showed high occurrence of common health hazard experienced by poultry workers in Egbeda Local Government area of Oyo State, Nigeria. The common health hazards experienced by the poultry workers were pains from various parts ranging from neck (53.8%), back (45%) and leg (41.3%). The findings however depicted that methods used in management strategies for common health hazards has significant effect on common health hazard available in the study area.

5. Recommendation

Community health workers in the study area should enforce the practice of quality health management strategies among poultry owners in the industry. Organization such as Poultry Association of Nigeria (PAN) should organize trainings on means of combating risk and hazard which emanates from poultry work/ production. First aid facilities should be available within the poultry farms to provide primary treatments for the workers whenever they are affected.

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Physical properties, Chemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of Oil and Extracts from *Tetracarpidium conophorum (*African Walnut)

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Abstract. The oil of the powdered nut of African walnut (*Tetracarpidium conophorum)* was extracted sequentially using the expeller press (mechanical) method and solvent extraction (chemical) method by soxhlet extractor. The physical appearance of the oil reveals that African walnut oil was pale yellow in colour, clear, light without impurities. The colour of the oil extract reveals that the petroleum ether extract was golden yellow, n-hexane extract was golden brown and chloroform extract was golden/dark brown. 200g of African walnut extracted by expeller press yielded 12.53 % of oil, 30 g of the sample extracted by hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform yielded 18.06 %, 12.5 % and 11.97 %. The chemical properties of the expeller pressed oil showed the saponification values, unsaponifiable matter content, acid value, peroxide values, free fatty acids (FFA), iodine, refractive index (RI) and specific gravity (SG) of the oil was 170.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 4.1 g/kg^{-1}, 0.92 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.02 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.56 %, 91.3 Wij's, 1.445 and 0.94. The n-hexane extract had 174.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 3.9 g/kg^{-1}, 0.72 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.01 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.46 %, 90.1 Wij's, 1.442 and 0.88. Petroleum ether extract had 165.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 2.5 g/kg^{-1}, 0.82 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.00 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.65 %, 87.6 Wij's, 1.440 and 0.94. Chloroform extract had 160.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 3.2 g/kg^{-1}, 0.62 mg KOH g^{-1}, 0.94 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.82 %, 89.9 Wij's, 1.440 and 0.94. The oil could be exploited for use in vegetable oil and cosmetic industries. In this study, the *in vitro* antimicrobial activities of African walnut oil and extracts were evaluated using agar-well diffusion method against clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Cutibacterium acne*, *Malassezia furfur* and *Candida albicans* which were isolated from human skin infections. The results of the investigation revealed that African walnut oil had inhibitory effect on the growth of all the test microorganisms. On the bacterial species, *S. aureus* was highly inhibited by African walnut oil as confirmed by the zones of inhibition measured. *C. acnes* was moderately inhibited, while the growth of *E. coli* was observed to be mildly inhibited. With the fungal species, 100 % of African walnut oil proved really effective inhibiting the growth of *M. furfur* and *C. albicans.* Petroleum ether concentration (80 %) inhibited the growth of *E. coli* while *C. acnes* and *M. furfur* were inhibited at 20 % petroleum ether concentration; *C. albicans* was inhibited at 10 % concentration. The minimum inhibitory concentration of African walnut oil and petroleum ether extract revealed that 500 and 250 mg/mL were the least concentrations that prevented the growth of bacteria after 24 h incubation.

Keyword: African walnut oil, *Tetracarpidium conophorum*, physical properties, chemical composition, antimicrobial activity, skin infections, agar well diffusion method, extracts, MIC

1. Introduction

The use of plant and its products have a long history of use in folk medicine and through the years have been incorporated into modern or western medicine and in certain systems of traditional medicine (Sen and Batra, 2012). Since ancient times, many plants species have been reported to have pharmacological properties as they posses various secondary metabolites like terpenoids, saponins,

flavonoids, steroids, tannins and alkaloids which is utilized to combat pathogenic microorganisms (Chijioke *et al*., 2015; Igara *et al*., 2017).

With the development of technology along with the advancement in science, remarkable progress has been made in the field of medicine with the discoveries of many natural and synthetic drugs (Sen and Batra, 2012). Antibiotic is one of the most significant therapeutic discoveries of the 20th century that had effectiveness against serious microbial infections. However, only very few of the well-known human diseases have been treated from these synthetic drugs (Sen and Batra, 2012). This is because of the emergence of drug resistant pathogens that is the effect of indiscriminate use, incessant and misuse of antibiotics (Bello *et al*., 2013; Igara *et al*., 2017). Antibiotic resistance has increased recently and is posing a serious therapeutic problem. Plants produce a variety of compounds to protect themselves against a variety of pathogens. It is anticipated that plant extracts having different target sites other than the antibiotics sites will be active against drug resistant pathogens (Sen and Batra, 2012). Over many decades, medicinal plants have been used as traditional treatments for numerous human diseases world-wide. Hence, numerous researchers have paid great attention to plant based traditional medicine practices and biologically active compounds or phytochemicals isolated from plant species used in herbal medicines with satisfactory therapeutic index for the development of novel natural antimicrobials (Sen and Batra, 2012; Nwaoguikpe *et al*., 2012; Chijioke *et al*., 2015).

The African walnut (*T. conophorum*) belongs to the family Euphorbiaceae (Edem *et al*., 2009). However, Ayodeji and Aliyu (2018) stated that some walnut species are found in the family Olacaceae. African walnut is similar to *Juglans regia* (L.), known as the English walnut and belonging to the family Juglandaceae (Raja *et al*., 2012; Lamichhane *et al.,* 2016). African Walnut is a perennial creeping shrub that grows in temperate areas in Africa such as Cameroon, Gabon and Liberia including Nigeria (Ayoola *et al*., 2011). The immature fruits are usually green in colour but turn dark brown to black as they reach maturity (Ayodeji and Aliyu 2018). Walnuts are dry nuts which are encased in green pods. As walnut matures, the outer covering dries and falls off leaving the segment tough black shell and the white seed. The white seed nut is the edible nut (Ekwe and Ihemeje, 2013). Its range in Nigeria includes Uyo, Akamkpa, Akpabuyo, Lagos, Akure, Kogi, Ajaawa, Ogbomosho, Ibadan (Obianime and Uche, 2010; Ayodeji and Aliyu, 2018), Ife, Ekiti and Ijeshaland. it is abundant in all cocoa-producing states in Nigeria and in the southern part of Nigeria (Udedi *et al*., 2014; Nwaichi *et al*., 2017; Ayodeji and Aliyu 2018). It is commonly called African walnut because of its West African origin. *T. conophorum* is often called by different names such as awusa (Yoruba), Ukpa in Igbo, kaso or ngak in Cameroon. Walnut tree is about 40m in length and are usually harvested between July to December (Ayoola *et al*., 2011).

Currently, many of the plant species that are now cultivated world-wide for food purposes were those initially neglected and underutilized (Magbagbeola *et al.,* 2010). Some of these are potential industrial raw materials and can serve as precursor of new products. Oils derived from plant sources are obtained from plant seeds referred to as oilseeds. Oilseeds are a class of plants in which huge amount of lipids are stored in the seed tissue (Akanni *et al.,* 2005). The amount of oil present in oilseeds such as soybean and corn ranged from 10-20% and 50% in sunflower and rapeseed (Obasi *et al*., 2012). Oilseeds are among the most ancient crops domesticated by mankind. For example, there is evidence that the cultivation of linseed oil bearing varieties in the eastern part of Nigeria has been on from many decades ago. However, for many years now, globally, there has been great increase in the demand for vegetable oils with up-trend in prices (Akanni *et al.,* 2005). From the olden days, oilseed products were utilized for a variety of edible and non-edible applications. Seed oils have been extensively used for human consumption. Mostly, oils are used in food, both in cooking and as supplements. The nutritive and calorific values of oilseeds make them good sources of edible oils and fats in diets (Obasi *et al*., 2012). Besides been a vital component of human diet, oils also find importance in various industrial applications.

African walnut like many plants in Africa and other parts of the world has been proven to have numerous values including decorative, nutritive, medicinal, agricultural and industrial over the years. African walnut plant is cultivated principally for the nuts which are consumed as snacks. Many research studies have showed that walnut contain high amount of oil and is a major sources of protein, carbohydrate, fat and oils, vitamins and minerals (Ajaiyeoba and Fadare, 2006; Grace *et al*., 2016). African walnut contain uncommon fatty acids which are industrially important as they are used in the manufacture of protective coatings, dispersants, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics and a wide variety of synthetic intermediates as stabilizers in plastic formulations (Ogunwusi and Ibrahim, 2016). In addition, walnuts

have been reported as a high density food because it contains valuable bio-active phytochemical compounds such as oxalates, phytates, and tannins (Ajaiyeoba and Fadare, 2006). The ability of the nuts to reduce cholesterol levels in human seem to be the heart of their health benefits, though the nut contain many other antioxidants, which helps to supports the immune system and they also possess some anticancer properties. African walnut is used in Nigeria to increase sperm counts in men (Ajaiyeoba and Fadare, 2006; Ogunwusi and Ibrahim, 2016). Decoctions and infusions made from the green nuts and leaves of walnut have been used to treat various human infections such as candidiasis, vaginitis, conjuctivities, glomerulo nephritis, cellulitis, endocarditis and other related diseases (Grace *et al*., 2016). Furthermore, African walnuts are rich in dietary omega-3 fatty acids which play a role in the prevention of some disorders including depression dementia particularly Alzheimer's disease and the antimicrobial efficacy of the plant have been attributed to the presence of phytochemicals (Grace *et al*., 2016).

Treatment of bacterial and fungal diseases with oils and extracts from medicinal plants has been effectively carried out in Nigeria. Oil from parts of plants has been shown to exhibit antibacterial and antifungal activity against a wide range of pathogenic antibiotic resistant fungi and bacteria species (Okeke *et al*., 2001; Pawar and Thaker, 2006). Oil of plant origin has been used for various cosmetic purposes particularly in the formulation of skin and body care products. Apart from a few domestic uses of African walnut oil, local communities in Nigeria use the oil for the treatment of skin rashes and related skin infections caused by bacteria and fungi species. Although, there are no scientific justifications for this local practice, use of medicinal herbs and extracts from plant sources in the treatment of skin diseases is an age-long practice in many parts of the world (Irobi and Daramola, 1993). Treatment of skin rashes, boils, skin irritations, wounds, dermatitis and pyoderma with plant extracts is a common practice in Russia and Central Asia (Mamedov *et al*., 2005). With these claims in mind, firstly the physical screening of African walnut oil and its extracts were determined, secondly the chemical properties were determined and lastly the antibacterial and antifungal activity of the oil and extracts on some skin flora microorganisms that have been implicated in human skin infections was investigated.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Collection and identification of African walnut

Fresh walnuts were collected from walnut trees growing in Ogun State in September through October 2016 and a final sample of about 3 kg was randomly taken. The nuts were taken to Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State where they were authenticated by a taxonomist. Standard methods for sample processing and preparation and analytical procedures were used.

2.2 Sample preparation and processing

After harvest and identification, African walnuts were sorted, and damaged ones discarded. The nuts were washed in cold water to remove dirt adhering to the surface. After washing, manual separation of the black husk from the nuts was done. The nuts were then sundried in shade for 14 days (two weeks). Thereafter, the nuts were milled using MarlexExcella mixer/grinding machine (Amazon, UK), packed in air tight containers and kept in the refrigerator at 4°C for further processing.

2.3 Extraction of African walnut oil and extract

2.3.1 Oil extraction

The method of choice for the extraction of African walnut oil was expeller press (mechanical pressing) method. The step wise method described by Jokic *et al*., (2014) was used to extract oil from walnut. The extraction of oils from walnut was performed using a screw expeller (Model SPU 20, Senta, Serbia). Walnut oil was obtained by pressing 200 g of the nuts. The minimum and maximum nozzle size of the expeller used was 7 and 12 mm, respectively. The frequency had a minimum of 10 Hz and a maximum of 20 Hz. The temperature of oil presses was between 70 and 100 °C. After extraction, the physical property of the oil was recorded (Figure 1), and the amount of oil obtained was measured using an analytical balance and result obtained was used to calculate the percentage yield of oil sample.

$$\text{Percentage yield of oil} = \frac{\text{Weight of extracted oil (g)}}{\text{Weight of sample (g/nut)}} \times 100$$

2.3.2 Extracts extraction (solvent extraction)

The oil extracts were extracted by using different organic solvents such as n-hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform. Extraction was done separately with the three solvents using the solvent extraction process. Prior to extraction, the pulverized nut samples were kept in an oven at 105

^{o}C for 1 h to remove any moisture that may still be present. Thirty (30 g) of the dried nut sample was wrapped in a white muslin cloth and put into separate porous thimbles of the soxhlet extractors. Then, 200 ml of different solvents such n-hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform of HPLC grade with boiling range of 40-60 ^{o}C was separately added. The soxhlets coupled with a condenser and flask already filled with the set up were heated in a heating mantle at 65 °C to allow solvent boiling. In the process the solvent vapour travels up a distillation arm and flowed into the chamber housing the sample material. The extracts seep through the pores of the thimbles and fill the siphon tube where it flows back down into the round bottom flask. The process was allowed to continue for 8 h until clear solvents were obtained in the thimble chamber. At the end of the extraction, the resulting mixtures of the oil extracts from the three solvents were separately filtered with a 10mm Syringe-driven with a filter 0.45um to remove any impurities. The solvents were further removed completely with a rotary-evaporator (Model N-1, Eyela, Tokyo Rikakikal Co., Ltd., Japan). The oil extracts were stored in white bottles and tubes under nitrogen at 4 °C until analyzed (Figure 1). Extraction was repeated three times. The yield of extract was calculated using the formular below

Percentage yield of extracts = Weight of extracted extract (g) x 100
Weight of sample (g/nut)

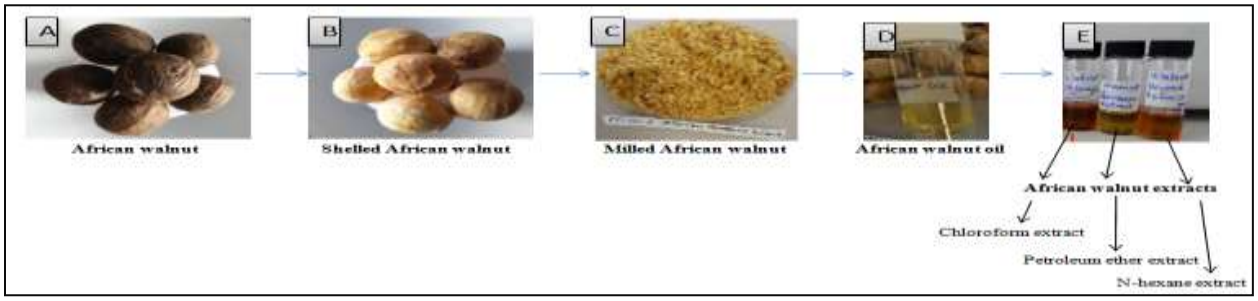

Figure 1 shows the flow chart for the extraction of oil and extracts from African walnut.

A= African walnut. B= Shelled African walnut. C= Milled African walnut. D= Expeller pressed African walnut oil E= solvent extracted extracts of African walnut.

2.4 Physical and Sensory properties

The colour, smell, taste, sedimentation and other related physical characteristics of African walnut oil and extracts were noted. A 10 man panel consisting of staff and students of Home Science and Hospitality Management, Yewa Campus, Olabisi Onabanjo University was constituted to evaluate the physical parameters of the oil. Colour measurement was done with a Lovibond colorimeter.

2.5 Chemical properties

Chemical analysis was carried out on African walnut oil to determine the Saponification values, Unsaponifiable matter content, acid value, peroxide values, free fatty acids (FFA), iodine, Refractive index (RI) and Specific gravity (SG). The procedures of Egan *et al*., (1981) and AOAC, (2000) were adopted for the estimation of Saponification values, Unsaponifiable matter content, acid value, peroxide value, free fatty acids (FFA) and iodine content, Refractive index (RI) and Specific gravity (SG) of the oil samples. The saponification value was determined by the estimation method. About 100 mg of the extracted oil was mixed with 0.5 M ethanolic potassium hydroxide solution and boiled under reflux on a water bath for 30 minutes. The solution was then titrated with 0.5 M HCl, using phenolphthalein solution as indicator. The saponification value was calculated using the titration values. For the determination of unsaponifiable matter, about 100 mg of the extracted oil was heated under reflux and saponified with 5 mL of ethanolic potassium hydroxide solution (20 % w/v) for 2 h. The unsaponifiable matter was extracted thrice with 15 mL of petroleum ether and the extracts were combined and evaporated at 40 °C under reduced pressure. The unsaponifiable residue was weighed. For peroxide determination, a known weight of African walnut oil was dissolved in a mixture of acetic acid/chloroform (3:2 v/v) and a saturated solution of KI (1 mL) was added. The liberated iodine was thereafter titrated with sodium thiosulphate solution (0.05 m) in the

presence of starch as indicator. For the free oil acidity (acid value), the titration method was used. For this determination, a known weight of African walnut oil was dissolved in a mixture of ethanol (95 %) and ether, previously neutralized with 0.1 M potassium hydroxide solution to phenolphthalein solution. The mixture was then titrated with 0.1 M potassium hydroxide solution as indicator until the solution remained faintly pink after shaking for 30 seconds. Free fatty acid (FFA) determination was by colorimetric method, while iodine value was determined using Wij's (iodine monochloride) method. In this method, a weighed amount of oil sample was dissolved in carbon tetrachloride and added to iodine monochloride. The resulting solution was kept in the dark for 30 minutes and then titrated with 0.1 M sodium thiosulphate, using starch solution as the indicator. Refractive index (RI) was measured with a Refractometer (RFM342, Bellingham + Stanley, England) while the specific gravity (SG) of the oil sample was determined gravimetrically. Both were determined using the methods of Egan *et al*., (1981). The chemical properties of African walnut oil were further compared with those of commercially available vegetable oils.

2.6 Test organisms

All the strains of bacteria and fungi species used in this study were clinical isolates. The bacteria species were obtained from the Department of Medical Microbiology and Parasitology, University Teaching Hospital, (UCH) Ibadan, while the fungi species were obtained from the Federal Medical Centre, (FMC) Abeokuta. The bacterial species used included *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Cutibacterium acnes.* While the fungi species are *Candida albicans* and *Malassezia furfur*. Five strains of each species of organisms were used. Each of the strains has designated laboratory codes assigned to them; all the isolates were confirmed from source to be implicated in some kind of skin infection (Table 1). No information is made available on the specific biochemical and characteristics that distinguish the strains.

Table 1: Source of test microorganisms

Test microorganisms	Strain codes	Source of test microorganisms	Body parts from which the test organisms were isolated
Bacterial strains			
S. aureus	2341	UCH	Isolated from skin rash
	3411	UCH	Isolated from boil on the armpit
	3621	UCH	Isolated from skin rash
	3001	UCH	Isolated from boil on the buttocks
	1190	UCH	Isolated from boil on the face
E. coli	2333	UCH	Isolated from boil on the face
	1411	UCH	Isolated from skin rash
	1093	UCH	Isolated from skin rash
	1114	UCH	Isolated from boil on the neck
	1039	UCH	Isolated from infected skin (razor) rash
C. acnes	3143	UCH	Isolated from skin acne
	2030	UCH	Isolated from skin rash
	1190	UCH	Isolated from skin lesions associated with dermatomycoses
	1390	UCH	Isolated from skin acnes
	1102	UCH	Isolated from skin infection site on nails
Fungal strains			
M. furfur	2556	FMC	Isolated from skin infection (Pityriasis)
	2035	FMC	Isolated from skin infected lesion
	2441	FMC	Isolated from skin razor rash
	2099	FMC	Isolated from skin infection lesion
	2016	FMC	Isolated from skin infection lesion
C. albicans	1001	FMC	Isolated from skin rash
	1425	FMC	Isolated from infected skin (razor rash)
	1346	FMC	Isolated from dried scaly skin rash
	1922	FMC	Isolated from skin rash associated with superficial granulation
	2140	FMC	Isolated from skin infected with Tinea

UCH = University of College Hospital FMC= Federal Medical Centre

2.7 Re-identification of the organisms

Identification of all the isolates in this study was done in accordance with the technique of Cheesbrough, (2010). The identities of the isolates were however reconfirmed using standard morphological, biochemical methods and mycological diagnostic methods. All the bacterial test organisms were aseptically grown on 5 ml nutrient broth overnight at 37^{o}C and then subcultured onto MacConkey agar (MAC), nutrient agar (NA) and cystein lactose electrolyte deficient (CLED) medium plates to get pure cultures of the isolates. These plates were incubated at 37^{o}C for 24 hours. *Candida albicans, and Malassezia furfur* were cultured on Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar (SDA) plate or Columbia sheep blood agar supplemented with olive oil. Cultured plates were incubated at 25°C for 48 hours. Pure cultures of these isolates were identified biochemically using standard microbiological identification techniques described by Cheesbrough, (2010).

2.8 Microbiological screening

2.8.1 Preparation of culture media and its sterilization

Microbial culture media including nutrient agar (NA) and nutrient broth (NB) were purchased from Oxoid, UK. Mueller Hinton Broth (MHB), and Mueller Hinton agar (MHA) was obtained from Sigma Aldrich, Dorset, UK. All these media were suitable for the growth of bacteria cultures. For fungi culture, Sabouraud's Dextrose broth (SDB) Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar (SDA) was obtained from ThermoScientific, Hampshire, UK. All media used were prepared according to manufacturer's instruction. The media for both bacterial and fungal cultures were made up in large volumes as follows: NA, (28 g), NB, (13 g), MHB (23 g), MHA (38 g), SDB (13 g) and SDA (65 g) were separately made up in 1 litre (1000 ml) of deionised water and sterilized at 121^{o}C for 15 minutes in an autoclave and subsequently allowed to cool after sterilization to about 45 ^{o}C (temperature at which the agars remains molten) before pouring into Petri dishes to solidify.

2.8.2 Preparation and standardization of inoculums for antimicrobial activity test

In order to effectively investigate the antibacterial activity of African walnut oil, inoculums for agar well diffusion tests were prepared in accordance with the guidelines of Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute, CLSI (formerly the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards) (CLSI 2013) and Sen and Batra, (2012). Using aseptic techniques, the bacteria strains were cultured separately in 10 ml of nutrient broth and Mueller Hinton Broth overnight or to stationary phase (OD600 = >2.5). From the overnight culture, using streak plate method, a loop full of the tested strains were streaked across the respective agar plates and incubated at 37 ºC for 24 hours. From the incubated plates, inoculums were prepared by making a direct broth suspension of four to five well isolated colonies of *Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Cutibacterium acnes with* the same morphological type in freshly prepared 10 ml broths in separate test tubes and incubated in a shaking incubator (Camlab, UK) at 37 ºC for 18 h with 200 rpm. The bacterial suspensions were thereafter adjusted 0.5 McFarland standards (equivalent to 1.5 x10^{8} CFU/ml). This was done by diluting the 18 h bacterial cultures 1:100 with respective sterile broths before growing them back in the shaking incubator for approximately 2-3 hours (mid-log phase) to obtain 0.08 to 0.10 OD625 corresponding to 1.5 x 10^{8} CFU/ml. The correct density of the turbidity standard was verified using a spectrophotometer with a 1-cm light path and matched cuvette (Star Labs, UK) to determine the absorbance at 625nm. Blank of MHB alone was used to calibrate the spectrophotometer before measuring the samples. To ensure conformity of the suspension's turbidity with McFarland standard, both the suspensions and the prepared McFarland standard were also compared visually. Furthermore, the inoculums suspension was used within 30 minutes of standardization, which is a very important factor to avoid any change of the size of inoculums or loss of their viability.

To investigate the antifungal activity of the African walnut oil and its extracts, the fungal suspensions used was prepared using three to four morphologically similar colonies of the fungal strains; *Candida albicans* and *Malassezia furfur* from a 48 h culture on Sabouraud dextrose agar. The turbidity of the fungal suspension was adjusted to 1.0 McFarland standard (equivalent to 1.5 × 10^{8} CFU/ml) with sterile normal saline (0.89% NaCl wt/vol). All experiments were performed in duplicate and repeated three times.

2.9 Determination of Antimicrobial Activity of African walnut oil and extracts

2.9.1 Agar well diffusion method

The antimicrobial activity of different concentrations of the oil was determined by modified agar well diffusion method described by Perez *et al*., (1990)

and Adeniyi *et al*., (1996). In this method, nutrient agar and Mueller Hinton agar (MHA) plates were seeded with 0.2 mL of 18 h broth cultures of each bacterial isolate. For the Fungal isolates Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar (SDA) was seeded with 0.2 mL of 24 h broth cultures of *Candida albicans, and Malassezia furfur*. The agar plates, nutrient agar, Mueller Hinton agar (MHA) and Sabouraud's Dextrose Agar (SDA) were separately seeded by spreading a small volume (0.2 mL) of the liquid inoculums (sub-cultured broth media of both bacteria and fungi isolate) by means of an L-shaped glass rod (or a "spreader") in such a way that the surface of the agar in the plates were covered with the microbes (test organisms). All test microorganisms were separately seeded into different plates. All the plates were left to dry for 1 hour. A sterile 6 mm cork-borer was used to cut two wells of equidistance in each of the plates and 0.2 mL (200 µl) of the African walnut oil was introduced into one of the two wells while the same amount of sterile oil was introduced into the second well as control (used as negative control) and all the plates were aerobically incubated at 37 ^{o}C for 24 hours for the bacteria and 48 hours for the fungi. The diameter of zones of inhibition was measured by means of linear instrument in millimeter (venier calliper) and recorded.

Antimicrobial activity of African walnut oil and solvents extracts such as petroleum ether, n-hexane and chloroform was also determined. This was determined by diluting the petroleum ether, n-hexane and chloroform extracts to get concentrations of (vol/vol) 80, 40, 20, 10 and 5 %. The different concentration of the African walnut solvent extracts were incorporated into wells on agar plates and agar plates were incubated as described above. After incubation the diameter of zones of inhibition of each concentration was measured.

2.10 Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration of African walnut oil and extracts

MIC was evaluated on African walnut oil and the extracts that showed antimicrobial activity in the agar well diffusion assay on tested isolates. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of walnut oil, n-hexane and petroleum ether extracts on the most inhibited bacterial strains of *S. aureus*, *E. coli* and *C. acnes* and fungal strains *M. furfur* and *Candida albicans* were determined. To effectively identify the concentration range for the experiments, initially the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of walnut oil and extracts were determined by the micro broth dilution assay using 96 well microtiter plates described by Mahboubi *et al*., (2011) and Salleh *et al*., (2016). The inoculums of *S. aureus*, (2341), *E. coli (2333)* and *C. acnes (3143)* strains were prepared from 18 h overnight cultures and suspensions were standardized to 0.5 McFarland standard turbidity. Similarly, the inoculums of *M. furfur* (2556) and *Candida albicans* (1001) were prepared from 24 h overnight cultures. The standardized oils and extracts were prepared in a concentration range of 0.98 – 500 mg/ml. In setting the 96 well microtiter plate, wells A-F were reserved in each plate for negative control. Dilution of the nut oil and extracts were prepared separately in TSB and SDB for bacterial strains and fungal strains respectively. 100 µl of sterile TSB was added to the wells from rows B to H. After this, 100 µl of the stock solution of African walnut oil sample (from 1000 mg/ml) were added to the wells at rows A and B. Then both the mixture of sample and sterile broth 100 µl at row B was transferred to each well to obtain a two-fold serial dilution of the stock oil sample. Eight concentrations (500, 250, 125, 62.5, 31.25, 15.6, 7.8 and 3.9 mg/ml) of the oil and extracts were determined. After serially diluting the nut oil sample, 100 µl of each standardized inoculum (10^8 CFU/ml) was added to each well. The final volume in each well was 200 µl. Streptomycin sulphate for bacteria 20 µg/ml was used as positive control to monitor the results. The plates were then incubated at 37 ^{o}C for 24 hours. The minimum inhibitory concentration was the lowest concentration that prevented the growth of bacterial after 24 h incubation. This same procedure was used to determine the MICs of petroleum ether and n-hexane extracts on tested fungal strains. MICs of fungal strain were determined using SDB and plates were incubated for 48 hours.

3. Results

3.1 Physical and sensory attributes of African walnut oil and extracts

The expeller press (mechanical) method was used to extract oil from African walnut while the solvent (chemical) method was used to obtain African walnut extracts. The methods used for the extraction of oil and extracts from African walnut seem good. The recovery rate using the expeller method involving the use of mechanical extractor was however less effective compared to the use of solvent extraction. A large amount of nuts will be required for the expeller press designed for extraction of oil from African walnut. Use of expeller press to squeeze oil out of the nut is easy to use as no special skill is required, the recovery rate is slow (12.53 %). For solvent extraction, small amount of nuts are required to

obtain extracts (Table 2). Percentage yield of extracts of African walnut with solvents such as n-hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform were 18.06 %, 12.5 % and 11.97 %. The yields were obtained after three successive extractions. The results of average yield and percentage yield of oil and extract obtained from African walnut using expeller press method and solvents such as hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform is shown in table 2.

Table 2: Average yield and percentage yield of African walnut oil and extracts

Mechanical method/Solvent method	Fresh weight of seeds (g)	Solvent volume (ml)	Average yield/recovery of oil/extracts after evaporation, dry weight (grams)	% yield of extracts
African walnut oil (expeller pressed oil)	200	_	25.06	12.53
N-hexane	30	200	5.42	18.06
Petroleum ether	30	200	3.75	12.5
Chloroform	30	200	3.59	11.97

Source: *Laboratory analysis, (2019).*

The physical appearance and sensory analysis of the colour, texture, taste, sedimentation properties of African walnut oil indicated that the expeller pressed oil was pale yellow in colour, clear, light, tasteless without impurities. The n-hexane extract was golden brown in colour, clear, light, without impurities, petroleum ether extract was golden yellow in colour, clear, light, without impurities and chloroform extract was golden/dark brown in colour, clear, light without impurities (Figure 1 and Table 3).

Table 3: Physical and sensory attributes of African walnut oil and extracts

	Characteristics / Properties of oil and extracts			
Attributes	**Oil/Extracts**			
	African walnut oil	**n-hexane**	**Petroleum ether**	**Chloroform**
Colour	Pale yellow, clear and transparent	golden brown, clear and transparent	golden yellow, clear and transparent	golden/dark brown, clear and transparent
Texture	Light	Light	Light	Light
Taste	Neutral, free of bitter taste, free of after tastes.	_	_	_
Smell	Neutral, free of smell coming from the plant material.	Neutral, free of smell coming from the plant material.	Neutral, free of smell coming from the plant material.	Neutral, free of smell coming from the plant material.
Sediments	Free of sediments. No impurities	Free of sediments. No impurities	Free of sediments. No impurities	Free of sediments. No impurities
State at room temperature (25°C- 30 °C)	Liquid.	Liquid.	Liquid.	Liquid.
Boiling point	-	63°C	62 °C	60 °C

Source: *Laboratory analysis, (2019).*

3.2 Chemical composition of African walnut oil and extracts

The chemical properties of oil extracted from African walnut using the expeller press method are shown in Table 4. Results for the extracts are also shown. The data (Table 4) showed the saponification values, unsaponifiable matter content, acid value, peroxide values, free fatty acids (FFA), iodine, Refractive index (RI) and Specific gravity (SG) of the oil was 170.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 4.1 g/kg^{-1}, 0.92 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.02 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.56 %, 91.3 Wij's, 1.445 and 0.94. The n-hexane extract had 174.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 3.9 g/kg^{-1}, 0.72 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.01 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.46 %, 90.1 Wij's, 1.442 and 0.88. Petroleum ether extract had 165.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 2.5 g/kg^{-1}, 0.82 mg KOH g^{-1}, 1.00 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.65 %, 87.6 Wij's, 1.440 and 0.94. Chloroform extract had 160.1 mg KOH g^{-1}, 3.2 g/kg^{-1}, 0.62 mg KOH g^{-1}, 0.94 meq O_2 kg^{-1}, 0.82 %, 89.9 Wij's, 1.440 and 0.94.

Table 4: Chemical properties of African walnut oil and extracts

Properties	Oil and extracts values			
	African walnut oil	n-hexane	Petroleum ether	Chloroform
Specific gravity	0.94±0.01	0.88±0.01	0.94±0.01	0.94±0.01
Refractive index	1.445±0.002	1.442±0.002	1.445±0.002	1.440±0.002
Acid value (mg KOH/g)	0.92±0.12	0.72±0.12	0.82±0.12	0.62±0.12
Free fatty acid (%)	0.56±0.10	0.46±0.10	0.65±0.10	0.82±0.10
Peroxide value (meq O_2/ kg^{-1})	1.02±0.19	1.01±0.19	1.00±0.19	0.94±0.19
Saponification number (mg KOH/g)	170.1±1.12	174.1±1.12	165.1±2.12	160.1±2.12
Unsaponifiable fraction (g/kg^{-1})	4.1±0.65	3.9±0.65	2.5±0.65	3.2±0.65
Iodine (mg of $1g^{-1}$ of oil) (Wiji's)	91.3±1.09	90.1±1.09	87.6±1.09	89.9 ±1.09

Each data is mean of three replicate readings ± Standard Deviation (SD)

Source: *Laboratory analysis, (2019).*

3.3 Microbiological screening

In the present study, oil and extracts of African walnut was evaluated for exploration of their antimicrobial activity against certain Gram negative and Gram positive bacteria and fungus which was regarded as human pathogenic microorganism. Susceptibility of the oil and extract was tested by minimum inhibitory concentration and agar well diffusion method. In this study, the results of petroleum ether and n-hexane extracts are presented because they exhibited more activity than chloroform extract.

3.4 Antimicrobial activity of African walnut oil and extracts

The result of the antibacterial and antifungal activity of African walnut oil and extracts are presented in Table 5. The result of this preliminary investigation showed that African walnut oil was active against the clinically isolated human skin pathogens like *Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Cutibacterium acnes, Malassezia furfur* and *Candida albicans.* Results obtained in this study showed that African walnut oil exhibited inhibitory effect on the growth of clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Cutibacterium acnes, Malassezia furfur* and *Candida albicans* tested. Significant differences ($p<0.05$) were observed in the degree of inhibition of the clinical isolates, but non-significant variations were observed inhibition among strains of the same species. On the bacterial species, *S. aureus* was highly inhibited by African walnut oil as confirmed by the zones of inhibition measured. *C. acnes* was moderately inhibited, while the growth of *E. coli* was observed to mildly inhibited. With the fungal species, 100 % of African walnut oil proved really effective inhibiting the growth of *M. furfur* and *C. albicans.* However, growth inhibition by African walnut oil was not significant between the two strains.

The result obtained also revealed that the inhibitory activity of the nut oil extracts decreases with a decrease in concentration of oil extracts in solvent, resulting in marked variation in the inhibitory concentration. While 5 % of African walnut oil was still able to inhibit the growth of *S. aureus*, inhibition of *E. coli* was only achieved at a much higher concentration of 80 % oil extract in solvent (petroleum ether). *C. acnes* and *M. furfur* were inhibited at 20 % petroleum ether concentration and *C. albicans* was inhibited at 10 % concentration.

The type of solvent used for the extraction of African walnut oil did not seem to have any significant ($p<0.05$) effect on growth inhibition of all the bacterial isolates tested, however for the fungi species inhibitory was at a lower concentration with n-hexane extract. As observed, a concentration of 10 % for *M. furfur* and 5 % for *C albicans* with petroleum ether compared with 20 % and 10 % respectively for *M. furfur* and *C albicans* with n-hexane as the extract with more inhibitory activity.

Table 5: Inhibitory effect of 100 % African walnut oil, petroleum ether and n-hexane extracts on growth effect microganisms

			Diameter of zones of inhibition (in mm)											
			Petroleum ether extract						n-hexane extract					
			Concentration (v/v)						Concentration (v/v)					
Microorganisms	**Strain**	**100% African walnut oil**	**80**	**40**	**20**	**10**	**5**	**Control**	**80**	**40**	**20**	**10**	**5**	**Control**
Staphylococcus aureus	2341	14.02	12.09	10.09	6.03	4.19	2.66	0.00	10.28	8.74	4.77	4.35	3.05	0.00
	3411	13.21	11.07	10.05	6.91	4.07	2.08	0.00	10.76	9.56	6.78	4.89	2.17	0.00
	3621	12.35	12.12	11.06	8.56	5.33	3.76	0.00	10.14	9.21	5.67	4.32	3.56	0.00
	3001	13.32	12.45	11.04	8.17	4.87	3.32	0.00	10.99	9.35	5.99	4.44	3.33	0.00
	1990	13.65	11.22	11.43	6.17	4.34	3.87	0.00	10.94	8.89	6.34	4.07	3.05	0.00
Escherichia coli	2333	2.89	1.87	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.87	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1411	1.87	1.09	0.88	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1093	1.56	1.08	0.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1114	1.48	1.43	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1039	1.85	1.49	0.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.54	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Citibacterium acnes	3143	5.54	4.88	4.09	2.23	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.09	2.33	1.98	0.00	0.00	0.00
	2030	4.87	4.88	3.56	2.45	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.98	1.09	0.56	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1190	3.76	3.76	3.23	1.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.45	0.56	0.46	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1390	5.78	4.56	3.12	1.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.06	0.75	0.58	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1102	4.21	3.34	3.25	1.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.09	0.67	0.55	0.00	0.00	0.00
Malassezia furfur	2556	9.65	6.78	3.62	1.99	1.08	0.00	0.00	7.06	4.32	2.33	0.00	0.00	0.00
	2035	9.43	6.43	4.23	1.45	1.21	0.00	0.00	7.25	4.44	2.14	0.00	0.00	0.00
	2441	8.77	6.88	5.55	1.22	1.06	0.00	0.00	7.21	3.11	1.89	0.00	0.00	0.00
	2099	8.43	5.39	4.56	1.33	1.11	0.00	0.00	6.52	3.08	1.22	0.00	0.00	0.00
	2016	7.88	5.09	3.21	1.01	1.23	0.00	0.00	6.23	2.13	1.48	0.00	0.00	0.00
Candida albicans	1001	9.98	8.04	8.01	6.21	4.09	1.02	0.00	8.21	6.32	5.09	4.44	1.26	0.00
	1425	9.36	8.21	8.34	5.34	3.23	1.04	0.00	8.31	6.23	5.21	4.25	1.35	0.00
	1346	9.41	8.33	7.34	5.25	3.06	0.00	0.00	7.09	6.09	5.01	4.31	1.37	0.00
	1922	9.22	7.45	6.9	4.33	3.01	0.00	0.00	6.03	7.33	5.11	4.22	1.05	0.00
	2140	8.01	7.22	6.45	4.21	3.21	0.00	0.00	6.02	7.21	5.21	4.09	1.11	0.00

3.5 Minimum inhibitory concentration of African walnut oil and extracts

The result showed concentrations of 500 and 250 mg/mL of African walnut oil and petroleum ether inhibited the growth the bacterial and fungal strains. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of African walnut oil, petroleum ether and n-hexane extracts against the tested pathogens extracts was determined using the micro dilution methods. The minimum inhibitory concentration of African walnut oil and the extracts revealed that 500 and 250 mg/mL were the least concentrations that prevented the growth of bacteria and fungi after 24 h and 48 h incubation. Result obtained confirms the inhibitory activities of the nut oil and extracts against *S. aureus*, *E. coli*, *M. furfur* and *C. albicans* (Table 6).

Table 6: Minimum inhibitory concentration of African walnut oil, petroleum ether and n-hexane against test microorganisms

		Minimum inhibitory concentration (mg/mL)							
Microorganisms	**Strains**	**500**	**250**	**125**	**62.5**	**31.3**	**15.63**	**7.8**	**3.9**
Bacteria									
Staphylococcus aureus	2341	–	–	–	+	+	+	+	+
		–	–	–	–	+	+	+	+
		–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
Escherichia coli	2333	–	–	–	+	+	+	+	+
		–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
		–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Citibacterium acnes	3143	–	–	–	–	–	+	+	+
		–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
		–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Control (without isolate)		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–
		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–
		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–
Fungi									
Malassezia furfur	2556	–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
		–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
		–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
Candida albicans	1001	–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+
		–	–	–	+	+	+	+	+
		–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Control (without isolate)		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–
		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–
		–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–

Key:
+ = indicating growth showed by turbidity of the broth.
– = no growth.

4. Discussion

The oil and extracts were all liquid at room temperature 30 °C. The method of extraction of oil usually reflects on the oil's quality, colour and taste. This informed the need to pay some attention to the various possible methods of extracting oil and extracts from African walnut. Although no major difference was observed in the quality of the extracted oil and extracts. Extraction of extracts with solvents seems more efficient and economical. This is in conformity with the observations of Akpuaka and Nwankwor, (2000). Use of expeller press a mechanical methods could be suitable for domestic purposes; it may be adopted for use by farmers who are familiar with a similar process which is commonly used for palm-oil extraction.

A high saponification value of 170.1 mg KOH g^{-1} indicates that the oil has low molecular weight fatty acids. This attribute is of importance in soap making as well as in shampoo making (Ajiwe, 1994; Akanni *et al*., 2005).The value obtained is the range of values (174.84 - 192.45 mg KOH g^{-1}) obtained for rapeseed oil and soyabean oil that have gained much market priority as reported by Obasi *et al*., (2012). The saponification values of 174.1, 165.1 and 160.1 mg KOH g^{-1} obtained for n-hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform extracts respectively in this study are similar to those of extracts obtained from seeds such as castor, peanut, soybean, and sunflower whose average saponification values range from 176 to 250 (Roger *et al*., 2010; Adamu *et al*., 2013).Unsaponification value was found as 4.1 g/kg^{-1}, and similar to the value of 4.7 g/kg^{-1}reported for terebinth fruit and English walnut (*Juglan regia*) by Ozcan, (2004). Obviously, this attribute of the oil can be linked with the cholesterol content it contained.

The unsaponification values 3.9, 2.5 and 3.2 g/kg^{-1}, for hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform extracts are lower than those of the oil and within range. Acid value of African walnut oil was 0.92 mg KOH g^{-1}, lower than those of soya bean (4.30 mg KOH g^{-1}) and turkey (5.61 mg KOH g^{-1}) reported by Obasi *et al*., (2012). The extracts had 0.72, 0.82 and 0.62 mg KOH g^{-1} acid values which were still much lower than that of the oil. The free fatty acid value 0.56 %, 0.46 %, 0.65 % and 0.82 % for the oil, hexane, petroleum ether and chloroform extract are low and support the value of edible oil reported by Obasi *et al*., (2012). Iodine value for the oil was 91.3 Wij's, in the range of cotton seed oil and sun flower oil iodine values (90-119 Wij's) reported by Popoola and Yangomodou, (2006). The iodine values of African walnut extracts are lower than those of sunflower (110-143), soybeans (120-143) and rubber seed (134.51) (Abayeh *et al*.,1999), but similar to those of castor oil (83.75) and Coula edulis (90-95) Adamu *et al*., (2013). This value which is in the middle range shows that the oil is semidrying and unsaturated. This further shows that the oil could be used in liquid soap formulation, just as the low acid value recorded for the oil could be of significance in paint and varnish manufacturing (Popoola and Yangomodou, 2006). Also, refractive index and specific gravity values of 1.445 and 0.94 compares favorably well with that of *Juglans regia* (1.446 and 0.97) as reported by Ozcan, (2009). Refractive index and specific gravity values obtained for the extracts correlates with those of the oil. Although, n-hexane have lower specific gravity (0.88).The specific gravity of 0.94 at 25 °C of African walnut oil and the observed melting point of 17.8 °C, which is really lower than the average tropical room temperature 25 °C, explains why the oil is liquid at room temperature. The peroxide value in the range of 0.94 - 1.02 meq O_2 kg^{-1} obtained for the extracts and oil are lower than generally recommended value for commercial edible crude vegetable oil. This is an indication that African walnut oil can resist lipolytic hydrolysis and oxidative deterioration (WHO, 2002).

The antimicrobial activity of African walnut oil and extracts especially petroleum ether as observed in this study appeared to be a broad spectrum activity as both gram positive, gram negative as well as fungal species were sensitive to the nut oil. The test microorganisms chosen for this study are known primarily as commensals or normal flora on the human skin but they can be opportunistic as they have the ability to change from a commensal or normal flora to pathogenic strains when the environment, that is the human skin supports their growth and especially when the immune system of the host is lowered or compromised. The implication of the effect of nut oil on growth inhibition is that the nut oil can help keep the pathogenic activities of these microrganisms in check. *Staphylococcus aureus* which is commonly found associated with boil and other secondary skin infections in the area of study was most inhibited by the nut oil and petroleum ether extract. The inhibition of *E.coli* by the oil was relatively low, while that of *C.acnes* was mild compared to *S. aureus.* Previous research studies on the antimicrobial activities of plant oil component indicated that lemon, cineole, citral geraniol, linalool and menthol were active against several yeast –like and filamentous fungus (Pattnaik *et al*., 1997). Previous reports have also shown that essential oils of plant sources could be used as therapeutic agent for the remedy of fungal diseases of man (Tampieri *et*

al., 2005) and plant (Soylu *et al*., 2006). Results obtained in this preliminary study gives some support to the traditional use of the nut oil for the treament of skin infections.

5. Conclusions

African walnut oil demonstrated a broad spectrum activity on bacterial and fungal clinical isolates tested. The antimicrobial activity of the nut oil and extracts shows that they can be exploited for use in traditional medicine, pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries.

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Part Four

Educational Technology

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Effect of Cooperative teaching Method on Students' Academic Achievement in Basic Technology in Federal Government Colleges in Lagos State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study was designed to investigate the effect of cooperative learning methods on students' academic achievement in basic technology in federal government colleges in Lagos state, Nigeria. Two purposes of the study were determined. Two research questions guided the study, while two null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significant. The study employed a Quasi-experimental research design where pre and post-tests and non-equivalent groups were used in intact classes in order not to disrupt the smooth running of the classes as planned by the school authority. The sample used for the study was 123 Junior Secondary III students. The study used two intact classes where one of the schools served as experimental group, and the other one was used as control group. forty (40) multiple choice test items were developed and validated by three experts in the Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Benin, Benin City. The two intact classes were taught 4 topics in basic technology for a period of six weeks. Cooperative learning was used for teaching the experimental group while conventional method was used for the control group. Data collected after the treatment was analyzed using means and standard deviations to answer the research questions while t-test was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. From the data collected, it was found that students who were exposed to cooperative teaching performed better and had more knowledge of the subject than those who were taught using conventional teaching method. However, the results of the hypotheses tests revealed that the differences in the mean achievement scores of the two groups were significant. Hence, the study recommends that teachers should be adequately trained in the process of employing cooperative learning strategies for the effective teaching of basic technology in federal government colleges in Lagos State.

Keywords: Cooperative learning method, Academic achievement, Basic technology

1. Introduction

Technology based subject are now part of the secondary school curriculum in Nigeria. Technology according to Waziri (2005) is the use of the product of creativity, inventions and scientific research in the service of man. Miller, Bakare and Ikatule (2010) described technology as the process by which humans modify nature to meet their needs and wants. Years back, the teaching of technology and related subjects was not made a major focus at the lower level of Nigerian educational system most especially at secondary school level. To address the lapses, the Federal Ministry of Education brought about the former 6-3-3-4 system that introduced the teaching of the subject called introductory technology also known as intro-tech in junior secondary schools in Nigeria.

Basic technology is a foundational subject on which future technological awareness of students are built for those interested in vocational technical courses or engineering courses at the tertiary institutions. According to the Report of Federal Ministry of Education (2007), basic technology is a core subject in the nine (9) years basic education programme. Its purpose according to the report is to contribute to the achievement of the national education goals by inculcating technology literacy, exposure of students to the world of work to match their talents and interests for wise vocational choice and inculcation of positive attitudes towards work as a source of human identity, livelihood and power. Basic technology therefore, is a subject taught in the junior secondary school with the incorporation of many skilled subjects such as woodwork, metal work,

electrical/electronics, mechanics, technical drawing and local crafts to enable students of that school age be abreast with basic technological skills and competencies for useful living in the society (Otamba, 2013). Basic technology before now known as introductory technology was structured to assist learners to develop interest in technology. The aim is that at the end of junior secondary school, technological appreciation would have been attained and solid foundation laid for students' entrance into a vocation of their choice. This is in consonance with the statement in the National Curriculum for Junior Secondary Schools (1998). Amongst others, it states that in order to reduce ignorance about technology, a solid foundation should be laid for national development and for increase in skill acquisition and academic achievement.

Academic achievement or performance is the outcome of appropriate teaching method in an education setting. It indicates the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. However, students' academic achievement in basic technology is a reflection of the extent to which the learners have acquired the intended knowledge and skills. Despite the importance of basic technology to the individuals and national development, over the years the academic achievement of junior secondary school students (JSS3) in basic technology is far from impressive. Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE), under the supervision of National Examinations Council (NECO), the students' mean scores in the subject have been less than or around fifty percent 50% for the years 2013-2017 as shown in Table 1

Table 1: Student's Academic Performance in Basic-Technology (2013-2017) in Lagos State.

School	Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
FGC, Ijanikin,	Enrolment	47	44	53	55	59
	%Pass	33%	36%	39%	42%	45%
FSTC, Yaba,	%Fail	67%	64%	61%	58%	55%
	Enrolment	58	55	59	60	63
KC,	%Pass	36%	39%	42%	45%	48%
Vic Island	%Fail	64%	61%	58%	55%	52%
	Enrolment	68	63	64	67	70
QC,	%Pass	38%	40%	39%	43%	46%
Yaba	%Fail	62%	60%	61%	57%	54%
	Enrolment	40	43	48	42	46
	%Pass	26%	29%	32%	35%	38%
	%Fail	74%	71%	68%	65%	62%

Source: *Office of the Principal of Various Colleges*

The poor performance could be attributed to the use of the conventional instructional approach that do not promote knowledge retention and acquisition of practical skills. It only focuses completely on the intellectual and neglects the experiential learning (Salako, Eze, & Adu, 2013). Previous studies argued that the quality of teachers' instructional approach is a key determinant of students' achievement (Adeyemi, 2002; Bilesanmi-Awoderu, 2006). Furthermore, the consistent failure recorded among junior secondary school students in national examinations could be due to the conventional instructional approach employed by the teachers (Afolabi & Akinbobola, 2009; Aremu & Sokan, 2003; Ezeagba, 2014) (Akanbi & Kolawole, 2014; Mohammed, 2011). The researcher is worry that if basic technology teachers continue to use conventional instructional approaches, students may not acquire the needed knowledge and skills that would enable them to improve on their academic performance and excel in their further studies in technology. Therefore, the researcher wish to employ the student centre approach such as co-operative learning if it will improve on students' performance in basic technology in line with this ministry of education has advised the Basic Technology teachers to make use of instructional approach that encourage understanding and retention of the content taught. According to Kibett (2002), good instructional approach should provide the learners with information to be used now or in the future as well as guide learners to tackle problems. Example of such approach is co-operation teaching.

Co-operative teaching Approach (CLA) is an instructional approach that is learner-centered. This approach has an interactive nature of learning which enables the learners to take a more active role in the learning process, take responsibility for their work, be highly effective and develop cognitive skills, and provide enjoyment to the learner (Dembo, 1994). A co-operative teaching approach (CLA) is an instructional approach in which learners work in small learning groups to address the problems and

other learning objectives while the teacher acts as a facilitator (Duplass, 2005). It is the approach that allows students to work together to attain their learning objectives (Abrami, Poulsen, & Chambers, 2004).

This study therefore set out to find the effect of cooperative learning Method on Students' Academic Achievement in Basic Technology in Federal Government Colleges in Lagos State, Nigeria

2. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study ascertained the effect cooperative teaching method on students' academic achievement in Basic Technology in Federal Government College, Lagos State. Specifically the study determined:

- The effective of co-operative teaching method and conventional teaching method on students' academic achievement in basic technology in lagos state
- The effective of cooperative teaching method on male and female students' academic achievement in basic technology in lag

3. Research Questions

Two research questions guided the study:

- What is the difference in the mean achievement scores of students taught basic technology with cooperative teaching methods and those taught with conventional teaching method?
- What is the difference in the mean achievement score of male and female students taught basic technology using cooperative teaching methods?

4. Hypotheses

Two null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

- There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students taught basic technology with cooperative teaching method and those taught using conventional method.
- There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of male and female students taught basic technology using cooperative teaching method.

5. Methodology

This study employed Quasi-experimental design of non-equivalent groups pre-test, post-test design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Subjects were not randomly assigned to groups rather, intact classes were used in order not to disrupt the smooth running of the classes as planned by the school authority. The total number of students in both groups was one hundred and twenty three (123). One school was assigned as the experimental group, Federal Government College, Ijanikin Lagos with the total of fifty seven (57) students which consisted thirty five (35) male and twenty two (22) female while the other school was assigned as the control group, Federal Science and Technical College, Yaba Lagos with the total of sixty six (66) students which also consisted forty one (41) male and twenty five (25) female.

Four topics from basic technology were selected and taught for a period of six weeks in the two schools. The experimental group was taught using cooperative teaching method while the control group was taught using the conventional method.

The instruments used for data collection in this study was the Basic Technology Achievement Test (BTAT) which contained forty (40) multiple choice test items. Before the treatment, a pre-test was administered to the two groups (experimental and control). After the treatment a post-test was then administered to the two groups to ascertain the effect of the methods on the groups. The instrument (BTAT) was developed by the researcher based on the topics that the students were taught. The instrument was validated by lecturers in the department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Benin, Benin. And it complied with the table of specifications.

The instrument BTAT was administered to 20 JSS3 basic technology students drawn from Federal Government College, Odoogbolu Ogun State who were not part of the sample. The reliability of the instrument was established using Kuder-Richardson Formular. Kuder-Richardson 20 is very appropriate for determining the degree of reliability of standard test which deals with dichotomous score where items are scored "1" (right) or "0" (wrong) (Uzoagulu 2011).The test yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.78. Mean $(\bar{X})$ was used to analyze data and provide answers to the research questions raised using mean differences while t-test was used to test the hypothesis formulated for this study at 0.05 level of significance.

6. Presentation of Results

Research Question 1: What is the difference in the mean achievement scores of students taught basic technology with cooperative teaching method and those taught with conventional teaching method?

Table 2: Mean ($\bar{X}$) and standard deviation of the experimental (Cooperative teaching method) and Control (Conventional method) groups Scores

Variable	N	Pre test		Post test		Mean diff.	Decision
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Experimental group	57	18.73	4.61	30.53	3.397	07.27	Effective
Control group	66	17.88	4.31	23.26	5.037		

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

Results in *Table 2* shows that the mean test scores of the 57 students in the cooperative learning group was 30.53 with standard deviation of 3.397while the mean test scores of the 66 students in the conventional group was 23.26 with standard deviation of 5.037. The mean difference was 07.27 in favour of the cooperative learning group. This implies that the scores of the students taught with the cooperative learning method was higher than those taught with the conventional method. This high mean difference therefore implies that the cooperative learning method was more effective in teaching basic science to students than the conventional method.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students taught basic technology with cooperative teaching method and those taught using conventional method.

Table 3: Independent samples t-test of cooperative learning method and conventional teaching method.

Teaching method	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-value	p-value	Remark
Cooperative learning	57	30.53	3.397	117	9.147	0.000	Significant
conventional method	62	23.26	5.037				

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

The result of the independent samples t-test in *Table 3* revalued, that the mean score of students in the cooperative teaching group was 30.53 with standard deviation of 3.397 while that of the conventional group was 23.26 with standard deviation of 5.037. The t-value is 9.147while the p-value is 0.000 at degree of freedom 117. Since the p-value is less than $\alpha = 0.05$, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means that there is a significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students taught basic technology with cooperative learning method and those taught using conventional method.

Research Question 2: What is the difference in the mean achievement score of male and female students taught basic technology using cooperative teaching methods?

Table 4: Means ($\bar{X}$) and standard deviation of the male and female students taught basic technology with Cooperative learning Group

Gender	N	Pre test		Post test		Difference	Decision
		Mean	SD	Mean			
Male	35	19.81	5.12	30.54	10.75		More Effective
Female diffrence	22	15.48	2.32	30.50	15.02	`	
					4.27		

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4: reveal that the difference in the pre- test and post- test mean scores of male students is 10.75 while that of the female students is 10.02. The difference between the mean scores of male and female students is 4.27 in favour of the female students it means that the use of cooperative teaching method in teaching basic technology is more effective on female students academic achievement.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of male and female students taught basic technology using cooperative teaching method.

Table 5: Independent samples t-test of male and female students taught with the cooperative learning method.

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-value	p-value	Remark
Male	35	30.54	3.184	55	0.046	0.964	Not Significant
Female	22	30.50	3.789				

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

The result of the independent samples t-test in *Table 5* shows that the mean and standard deviation of male students in the cooperative learning group was 30.54 and 3.184 respectively while that of the female students was 30.50 with standard deviation of 3.789. The t-value is 0.046 while the p-value is 0.964 at degree of freedom 55. Since the p-value is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means that there is no significant difference between the mean achievement score of male and female students taught basic technology using cooperative learning method.

7. Discussion of Findings

From the results of this study, the following major findings were made.

Students in the experimental group (cooperative teaching) performed better than students in the control (conventional method) group as they recorded significantly higher scores ($p > 0.05$) than the students in the control group.

Male and female students had an almost equivalent performance in the post-test after administering cooperative learning strategies and the difference in their scores was not significantly different.

In line with major findings one, it has further reinforced the idea that cooperative learning has significant effect on students' performance in basic technology in federal government colleges in Lagos State and their attitudes towards the subject. The experimental group showed significant improvement in their average scores in comparison to the control group. The results therefore suggest that the increase of the students achievement scores in basic technology was to a large extent due to the application of cooperative learning strategies. The findings of this study are therefore consistent with the results as reported by Hossain and Rohani (2013), Effiandi (2003), Whicker et al (1997) and Vaughan (2002). The findings of this study also corroborates the studies carried out by Johnson and Johnson (1994), Davidson (1990), Faizah (1999), Ozsoy and Yildiz (2004) and Zakaria et al. (2010). The core ingredient of cooperative learning is that students work in a group, trying to achieve shared targets, thus adding value to the success of the group. This component helps students in many other ways. For example, in improving their self -concept, self-confidence (Zakaria, Daud and Abidin, 2013), polishing social skills and increased classroom participation. However, the findings of cooperative learning leading to significant positive outcomes of students in subjects is in contrast to the reports made by Ismail (2000) who found no significant differences in attitudes towards mathematics between experimental and control groups. The short treatment period of three and half weeks might be the possible reason for no significant differences between the groups as recorded in that study.

In line with major findings two, the study went further to compare the achievement of boys and girls in the experimental group after the administration of cooperative learning strategies. It was found that the mean achievement between boys and girls in the experimental group were similar and thus had no significant difference. This shows that cooperative learning is both effective for boys and girls and has no gender bias in its effectiveness. Thus when cooperative learning strategies are employed in both boys and girls schools, it will lead to positive outcomes in improving their learning and retaining ability.

8. Conclusion

With the objective set out in this study and the research methodology that was employed in arriving at the findings, it is clear that cooperative learning helped to improve the learning outcomes of students irrespective of gender. It was discovered that students were motivated to learn when learning was more of knowledge sharing session than when it is competitive. They felt more comfortable working in groups with a common goal and being confident to ask questions and make their input without fear of ridicule or embarrassment. From this study, therefore, it can be wholly adjudged that cooperative learning is a veritable and effective learning tool which should be employed as a means of improving the performance of students in basic technology in unity schools in Lagos State.

9. Recommendations

The following recommendations based on the findings were made:

- Teachers should be adequately trained in the process of employing cooperative learning strategies in the classroom.
- Students should be encouraged and motivated to learn by taking into cognizance their unique learning abilities and these should be harnessed effectively for improved outcomes.
- Policy makers and teachers should identify appropriate measures that can promote cooperative learning in the classroom

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Enhancing Students' Academic Achievement in Biology using Projected Instructional Media

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Abstract. This study investigated how projected instructional media could enhanced students' academic achievement in biology. It also determined whether the performance of the students would vary with gender when exposed to projected instructional media. It employed pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design. The sample consisted of sixty five students offering biology. Two schools were purposively selected in Ijebu East Local Government Area based on certain criteria. Two schools were randomly selected to form experimental and control groups. Two null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. Two instruments were used for the study. Analysis of Covariance and t-test were used for data analysis. Findings indicated that students taught biology using projected instructional media performed better than those taught using conventional method of teaching. In addition, there was no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media. Based on the findings, it was recommended among other that secondary school biology teachers should effectively make use of projected instructional media in teaching the students the abstract and difficult concepts in biology irrespective of gender.

Keywords: Projected Instructional Media, Biology, Students' Academic Achievement, Gender.

1. Introduction

Science education occupies the central position in producing resources needed for socio-economic, scientific and technological development and growth of any nation. Recognizing the importance of science education, the Federal Government of Nigeria (FRN, 2014) included science programmes in her secondary school curriculum. The broad aim of secondary education in Nigeria is the preparation for useful living within the society and also for higher education. To achieve this aim, the FGN made biology as one of the science subjects taught at senior secondary schools. Science is the systematic body of knowledge obtained by methods or techniques based on observation and experimentation. It seeks to explain the natural phenomenon using enquiry processes or activities. Alebiosu (2017) noted that for any nation to attain the status of self-reliance, science must be an important component of that nation irrespective of sex or race. One of the branches of science is biology.

Biology is the science of life that studies living matter, structure, function and behaviours of organism. It is concerned with evolution, distribution and taxonomy of life (Bilesanmi-Awoderu, Afuwape & Jolaosho, 2017). The importance of biology in the industrialization and other sector of the economy cannot be overemphasized. As a matter of fact, it is a prerequisite for pursuing a number of careers in sciences which include medicine, pharmacy, biochemistry, botany, nursing, zoology among others.

Considering the paramount importance of biology to human life, it has been noted that the performance of students in internal and external examinations have not been impressive and the failure rate is much higher and alarming. This can be attested to from the results of students in biology between 2009 – 2018.

Table 1: Students' Achievement in the May/June Biology between 2009 and 2018 in Ogun State.

Year	Total Entry	No of Passes	% of Passes	No of Failure	% of Failure
2009	10,337	3,654	35.50	6,683	64.50
2010	10,059	2,268	22.50	7,791	77.50
2011	8,534	2,652	31.00	5,882	69.00
2016	8,934	1,518	17.00	4.416	83.00
2013	6,874	1,986	29.00	4,888	71.00
2014	9,026	3,581	39.65	5,445	60.35
2015	6,128	2,686	40.45	3,442	59.55
2016	6,894	2,270	32.90	4.624	67.10
2017	6,934	1,518	15.00	5,416	85.00
2018	6,274	1,986	31.00	3,885	69.00

Grades lower than $A_1 - C_6$ (i.e. distinction and credit) are regarded as failure
Source: *West African Examination Council, Research and Statistics Unit (2018).*

Table 1 shows the statistics of biology achievement in May/June Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE) from 2009 to 2018. Students' performance in biology has consistently been reportedly low over the years in Nigeria especially in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (WAEC Chief Examiners' Reports, 2009 - 2018). In light of the above, Adebanjo (2019); Adebanjo and Omoniyi (2018); Raji (2017) attributed the causes of these prevalent poor performance and negative attitude of students towards biology in Nigeria to many factors, prominent among are poor usage of instructional materials. This is because according to Awobodu (2016), the responsibility of the classroom teacher is to help students attain maximum achievement in their learning tasks and also the ability to use appropriate instructional materials and strategies in teaching is among the competencies of a teacher. Though, instructional media are not available in many schools, where they are available; they are grossly inadequate in supply. The scarcities of instructional media in many schools today have resulted in ineffective teaching of Biology leading to poor achievement of students both in internal and external examinations.

Instructional media encompass all the materials and physical means an instructor might use to implement instruction and facilitate students' achievement of instructional objectives (Omoniyi, 2005). Obielodan (2015) defined instructional media as the collection of materials that a teacher uses in the teaching and learning situation to concretise learning experiences so as to make learning more exciting, interesting and interactive to all categories of learners with the ultimate aim of achieving the learning objectives. When instructional media are rightly used by the teachers in any teaching and learning situations, it makes teacher's job easier and makes presentation of facts clearer to learners. It also ensures that all categories of learners are properly carried along in the teaching and learning situations for better performance. Therefore, the teaching and learning biology requires a lot of instructional media because media help to reduce the abstract nature of difficult concepts and also enhance students' achievement and retention of biology concepts.

Therefore, projected instructional media are those channels of communication which promote the effectiveness of instruction and help the teacher to communicate ideas effectively to the students via the screen with the projector (Onasanya, 2015). Also, projected instructional media helps in supporting the students with living examples and visual elaboration, which makes classroom learning environment enjoyable (Isola, 2010). Projected instructional media are those channels, ways or medium by which information, skills; knowledge among others is translated to learners during teaching-learning process. They assist in achieving the stated behavioural objectives when evaluation is carried out at the end of the lesson or programmes and help students to retain knowledge for longer periods. (Awolaju, 2015).

Several researches had shown that using projected instructional media in classroom have positive effect on students' academic achievement when compared to lecture method. For instance, Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2017) investigated the effect of projected instructional media on senior secondary school students' achievement in biology in Benue State, Nigeria. The results indicated that the students taught with projected instructional media achieved significantly better in post test achievement mean scores than their counterparts taught without using projected instructional media. This finding indicated biology could be taught and learnt meaningfully through the use of projected instructional media

because it is more learner-friendly and exiting. However, there was no significant difference reported in the posttest performance scores of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media.

In another study, Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2019) examined the effect of projected instructional media on senior secondary school students' retention in biology in Benue State, Nigeria. The result indicated that students that were taught biology using projected instructional media retained the biology concepts learnt better than those that were taught without projected instructional media. This showed that projected instructional media enabled students to retain better what was learnt over a period of time because projected instructional media were able to retain the concepts been taught as it removes boredom and abstraction in classroom learning thereby aiding assimilation and retention. Also, the projected instructional media improved the achievement of both male and female students taught.

Nsofor and Momoh (2013) examined the effects of developed electronic instructional medium on students' achievement in biology in Minna, Nigeria. The finding of this study showed the mean achievement score of students in the experimental group was higher than that of the control group and the developed electronic instructional medium favoured the experimental group. This is because the developed electronic instructional medium stimulated students' learning environment and also motivated them to take a greater interest in learning. Also, their finding indicated that the use of developed electronic instructional medium enhanced the performance of male students than the female students.

The influence of students' gender in their academic achievement had been a concern to researchers in education, yet no consistent result had emerged. Adebanjo (2019); Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2017) who reported that gender had no significant influence on academic achievement of students in biology while Awobodu (2016); Nsofor and Momoh (2013); Oludipe (2015) who reported that gender difference has influence on the academic achievement in biology and chemistry respectively. These contradictory results showed that the issue of gender in students' achievement in biology has not yet been resolved. Hence, the purpose of the study is to investigate whether projected instructional media could positively and significantly improve students' academic achievement in biology.

2. Statement of the problem

Studies have shown that the performance of biology students in both internal and external examinations was declined and the primary causes of the poor performance are the use of conventional method of teaching and also poor usage of projected instructional media. The increasing failure rate of students from year to year in biology, in school examinations are becoming alarming. Observations and investigations on students' performance in biology in the SSCE had revealed that only a few percentages of the students perform well in examination. The observed poor trend of students' performance in biology therefore calls for concern. Hence, this study investigated the effect of projected instructional media and gender influence on students' academic achievement in biology.

3. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Ho_1: There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught biology using projected instructional media and conventional method of teaching.

Ho_2: There is no significant difference in the performance of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media.

4. Methodology

The design adopted pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design. The population for the study consisted of all senior secondary year one (SS I) students offering biology in public secondary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria. Fifty nine (59) students (27 males and 32 females) offering biology participated in the study. A two-stage sampling technique was use in selecting the sample. Firstly, a purposive sampling technique was use in selecting two public senior secondary schools in Ijebu East Local Government Area, Ogun State using the four criteria: (i) equivalence (laboratories, facilities and manpower), (ii) school ownership (public schools), (iii) gender composition (mixed schools) and (iv) candidates' enrolment (Senior Secondary School Certificate in Education in biology for a minimum of six years). Secondly, a simple random sampling was used in assigning the students in two of the selected schools into either experimental or control group. The experimental group (n = 29) was taught using projected instructional media, and control group (n = 30) was taught using conventional method of teaching for four weeks.

The instrument for data collection is a Biology Achievement Test. A draft of 75 multiple choice objectives items was first developed the researchers

on photosynthesis and presented to two experts in Educational Evaluation with the table of specification for perusal and advice. Their suggestions and corrections were used to modify the items for adequacy, simplicity of language and relevant to content. Twenty five (25) items which survived the item analysis constituted the Biology Achievement Test (BAT). The BAT was meant to measure students' achievement in photosynthesis. The BAT is a multiple choice test-items with four options lettered A – D. The test items were constructed in such a way to reflect three categories of cognitive tasks of knowledge, comprehension and application. The face and content validity of the instrument was determined by the perusal of two experts in biology and it was confirmed that the instrument was relevant, unambiguous, detailed and capable of eliciting the needed responses from the target population. Then, the Twenty five (25) items BAT was administered on a sample of 20 SS I students different from the students used for the main study and its reliability coefficient determined as 0.62 using Pearson Product Moment Correlation.

The intervention used for the experimental group was projected instructional media (Appendix) on photosynthesis which was downloaded from the Internet while the slides were made by the researchers for classroom usage. Design elements of colour, animation and manipulation were introduced to influence learners' attention, interest, motivation and aspiration. The face and content validity of the instrument was determined by the perusal of two biology teachers and educational technologists' experts. Their comments and recommendations helped to improve the instrument.

4.1 Treatment Procedure

In collecting the data for this research, the objectives and the modalities of the study were specified and operational guide was produced before the commencement of the treatment. In all, two biology teachers from the selected schools served as research assistants. A biology teacher in the experimental group was trained in the use the projected instructional media while the teacher in the control group uses conventional method of teaching. The treatment period for all groups covered four weeks. At the beginning of the study, Biology Achievement Test (BAT) was administered to both experimental and control groups. Scores on BAT served as pre-test scores (O_1) and as covariates for ANCOVA analysis. At the end of teaching, both experimental and control groups, the teachers re-administered the BAT as post-test (O_2). The following are the specific procedure for each group.

Experimental Group: This group was taught using projected instructional media on photosynthesis. The teacher explained the objectives of the lesson to the learners. The teacher projects information on photosynthesis to the learners. Lesson demonstration was done by teacher and also learning tasks are projected in the classroom. At the end of each unit, students were evaluated based on the content taught. Lastly, the assignments were given to the students.

Control Group: The control group was exposed to conventional method of teaching. The research assistants taught students in control group the concept of photosynthesis without projected instructional media.

Immediately after four weeks of treatment, BAT was administered as post-test to measure the achievement of different groups. Scores from the post-tests (O_2) as well as those from already collated pre-test (O_1) were collated for analysis.

4.2 Data Analysis

The two hypotheses formulated were tested using the univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and t-test.

5. Results and Discussion

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught biology using projected instructional media and conventional method of teaching.

Table 1: ANCOVA of students' achievement in Biology according to Treatment

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. of F
Covariates (pre-test)	38.012	1	38.012	4.065	0.000
Main Effect (treatment)	71.201	1	71.201	10.124	0.000*
Model	1204.514	2	75.008	7.429	0.000
Residual	761.321	56	14.508		
Total	1632. 910	59			

*** Indicate significant F at 0.05 level**

Table 1 reveals that an $F_{(1, 56)} = 10.124$, $P < 0.05$ for the main effect (treatment) was significant at 0.05 level, this indicates that the method of instruction produced a significant effect on the performance scores of students when covariate effect was controlled. The results indicated that projected instructional media (PIM) and conventional method of teaching (CMT) accounted for the difference in the performance scores of the students. Based on these results, performances of students in the two groups were further compared using mean gain scores between the pre-test and post-test for each group and the results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Main Gain Scores of Students Taught Biology using PIM and CMT

Group	Pre-test	Post-test	Mean Gain Score
CSIP	28.95	72.35	43.40
CMT	26.88	58.08	31.20

From Table 2, it was observed that both groups had improved performance in post-test. For instance, PIM had highest mean gain scores of 43.40 while the CMT had least mean gain scores of 31.20. This indicates that the two groups benefitted from the treatment with PIM having best performance. Therefore, the results indicated that the projected instructional media was more effective in promoting performance than the conventional method of teaching. As a result, the null hypothesis one (H_{01}) is rejected.

This agrees with the findings of Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2017); Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2019) who found that projected instructional media improved students' achievement and retention in biology. Furthermore, this finding is supported by the findings of Nsofor and Momoh (2013) who reported that developed electronic instructional medium fostered higher achievement in biology than the conventional approach.The plausible reason for this outcome might be due to the fact that students exposed to projected instructional media retained better what was learnt over a period of time and also removes boredom and abstraction in classroom learning thereby aiding assimilation and retention.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the performance of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media.

Table 3: T-test Comparism of Mean Performance Scores of Male and Female Students in the Experimental Group (PIM)

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	Sig.	Remark
Male	13	26.904	5.601				
				27	3.062	0.770	Not Significant
Female	16	25.714	5.099				

Table 3 above reveals the t-test of male and female students of experimental group (CSIP). The mean scores and SD for male students were X = 26.904 & SD = 5.601 and for female students were X = 25.714 & SD = 5.099. The difference was not significant $t(27) = 0.770$, $P > 0.05$. Hence, the hypothesis which says that there is no significant difference in the performance of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media. was retained. This finding indicated that the projected instructional media has improving effect on the teaching and learning of biology and was gender friendly. The enhancing effects of the projected instructional media could be found that students were stimulated, motivated and also had interest in the teaching – learning process.

The finding is in support with the work of Adebanjo (2019); Okwara, Anyagh and Ikyaan (2017) who reported that gender had no significant influence on academic achievement of students in biology. Awobodu (2016); Nsofor and Momoh (2013); Oludipe (2015) reported that gender difference has influence on the academic achievement in biology and chemistry respectively. The result however contradicts the findings of Awobodu (2016); Nsofor and Momoh (2013); Oludipe (2015) who reported that gender difference has influence on the academic achievement in biology and chemistry respectively.

6. Conclusion

The study had revealed significant difference in the performance of students taught biology using projected instructional media and conventional method of teaching because projected instructional media was more effective in promoting performance than the conventional method of teaching. Also, there is no significant difference in the performance of male and female students taught biology using projected instructional media because the students find the package interesting and the performance was improved irrespective of their gender.

7. Recommendations

Based on the major findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- Secondary school biology teachers should effectively make use of projected instructional media in teaching the students the abstract and difficult concepts in biology irrespective of gender.
- Faculties of Education in the Universities and College of Education should introduce the production and utilization of instructional media into their teacher education curriculum for the pre-service teachers.
- Curriculum planners/developers in their efforts to improve the effectiveness of biology teachers should encourage the utilization of projected instructional media in Nigerian secondary schools for better performance.
- Biology teachers should be sponsor for in-service training, workshop and conferences so as to be acquainted with the production and utilization of instructional media.

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Promoting the Effective Teaching and Learning of Social Studies through the Use of Mastery Learning Strategies in the 21st Century

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Abstract. Social studies as a subject is of a fairly recent origin through the world. The subject deals with man's interaction with his environment and how the environment equally influences man. Social studies as a discipline involve the teaching of values, norms and good attitude for the survival of the individual in the society. While interacting with his physical and social environment man encounter problems and challenges in his quest to live comfortably, orderly and meaningfully. Incidentally the programme of social studies in schools has been implemented for many years without success in terms of inculcating the right values of good citizenship among the youths. It is assumed that this deficiency arises from the way the subject is been taught and learnt in the classrooms. The study attempts to look at how social studies can be effectively taught in schools through master learning strategies and effective evaluation. We believe that if this study is properly followed and implemented, we are bound to achieve maximum learning of social studies in our schools.

1. Introduction

The recent socio- political and economic changes in the world and within nations have brought about changes in educational goals and greater challenges for social studies. The schools are called not only to equip the learner with basic knowledge of social studies content but also with higher cognitive skills, such as problem solving and thinking skills that allow for self-development and continuous learning. To meet up with these challenges, there is a movement away from the behaviourist method of direct teaching such as in the lecture method, note copying and dictations, where the learner is given contents to memorize and regurgitate.

Social Studies as a discipline continues to enjoy changes in educational objectives. In the 20th century, History, Economics, Government and Geography were taught as separate subjects with a listed series of facts to be memorised. With changes in educational outcomes student's learning had to be reconsidered and taught as integrated discipline. Emphasis is now shifted from learning as an acquisition of facts to learning as utilization of facts; from learning as memorization (from geography and history texts), to learning as a process of discovering important relationships and principles inductively; from learning for learning sake to learning as a way of inquiry and thinking according to the processes of the Social Sciences. This can only be achieved through the process of mastery learning strategy Onibokun, 1999).

1.1 History of Social Studies in Nigeria

Social studies as a subject is of a fairly recent origin throughout the world. The concept of social studies was first developed in USA in 1916 by the committee on social studies of the commission on the reorganization of secondary education of the National Education Association (Jarolimek, 1977). Later in 1930s social studies was introduced hto Europe especially in Great Britain due to unprecedented enthusiasm to reform the conventional curriculum to meet up with the demands of the society. From 1950 to 1956, the subject had spread to many African Countries. The new independent nations of Africa were faced with how to re-order their national policies to enable them perform their expected roles as independent nations within the world community of nations. The development of social studies in secondary schools in Nigeria gained momentum from the year 1977 after the introduction of National

Policy on Education popularly known as the 6-3-3-4 system. This rapid progress was caused by two major factors. The first was that the Universal Primary Education (UPE) introduced in 1976 made social studies the only social science subject to be taught in the primary schools. The second factor was that social studies was made a core subject for the junior secondary school. This has brought a lot of awareness to the students and the teachers on the significant roles of social studies especially as it affects the implementation of 6-3-3-4 system of education.

In order to implement the new national policy on education, government at all levels became more interested in the schooling process in terms of educational outcome, learning activities, instructional resources, instructional strategies and evaluation procedures. In view of this, emphasis has been on the need to:

- Make educational activities center on the learner for maximum self-development and self-fulfillment.
- Structure the educational system to develop the practice of self -learning (FRN, 2004). The implication of these for classroom teachers is that, they should develop a teaching approach which encourages the learners to participate in the learning processes.

Despite the efforts of Government in restructuring the educational system to develop the practice of self-learning, it is to be noted that the dominant approach to instruction in schools has been the expository type especially since the inception of western education in Nigeria in 1843. Other methods of instruction were later introduced into the learning processes. For instance, since 1960, curriculum planners have emphasized the inquiry approach by claiming that carrying out investigations is the most promising method by which students will master inquiry skills and become literate in social studies (Schwab, 1963; Yager & Lutz, 1994). Even at that, it cannot be said that schools have done well in developing such skills in the learners

1.2 The Goal of Social Studies

Social Studies as a school subject introduced by the Federal Government was to help students acquire social basic knowledge, positive attitudes, values and social skills needed to make the students functional and responsible citizens and contributing members of the society. It provides knowledge, skills and attitude that enable learners understand their physical and social environment in order to act or behave as responsible citizens. It prepares students to live in a global and culturally diverse world, as well as keep pace with rapid development in electronically and technologically changing world, (Martorella, 1996). It involves person with group and group with group. It is a study of man's relationship with his environment, how environment affects man and how man in turn influences his environment.

The teaching of social studies is therefore an activity that involves both the teacher and the learner. The purpose of teaching is to ensure that learning takes place. While learning involves a behavioural change in the learner, social studies teaching involves the transmission of the relevant body of knowledge, attitudes, manner, dispositions, skills and values that enable the individual to survive in a growing and dynamic society.

Adeyemi (2007) defines teaching of social studies as a process of facilitating student learning through a proper management by the teacher of the inter-relationships among the students' interest, the content for learning and the methods and materials he or she intends to use in the teaching and learning of the content materials. It may involve giving instruction to somebody on knowledge, skills and attitudes with the intention that the person will be able to know the information or to do something or act in a particular way that is compatible with the instruction. We know that the person the instruction is given to may be a learner, a pupil, a student or a trainee. The means employed by the teacher to pass information to the learner would determine ultimately, if he or she is teaching.

It should be noted that the knowledge of social studies is imparted through good technique and one makes sure that the learner has gained something useful which can make his/her experience relatively permanent, that is only when one can say that learning has taken place, whether the method is adequate or not is another factor. Right from time past, the conventional method of imparting social studies knowledge has been in use. The relevance of this conventional method and its attendant criticism are what have been giving educators a major concern and making them to think of other better techniques of imparting knowledge. Many techniques have been propounded by educators put of which is mastery

2. Achieving the effective teaching and learning of social studies through mastery learning strategies

Mastery Learning is an instructional method that presumes that all children can learn if they are

provided with the appropriate learning conditions. Specifically, mastery learning is a method whereby students are not allowed to advance to a subsequent learning objective until they demonstrate proficiency in the current one.

Mastery Learning curricula generally consist of distinct separate topics which all students begin together. Students who do not satisfactorily complete a topic are given additional instruction until they succeed. Students who do not master the topic early engage in enrichment activities until the entire class can progress together. Mastery Learning includes many elements of successful tutoring. In a mastery learning environment, the teacher directs a variety of group-based instructional techniques, with frequent and specific feedback by using diagnostic, formative test, as well as regularly correcting mistakes students make along their learning path (Coikszentminalyi, 1997).

According to Lynn, Douglas and Gerald (2009), Mastery Learning is an instructional process that provides students with multiple opportunities to demonstrate content mastery. Initial instruction is presented at a fast pace to engage all learners. Students who do not demonstrate mastery are given additional instruction specifically designed to correct their misunderstandings. Re-teaching should involve strategies that are different from the original instructional methods. For example, if the original material was presented in a lecture format with visuals, the re-teaching process might involve hands-on activities and cooperative learning strategies. A retest is later given to these students to allow them to demonstrate mastery.

It was Carroll (1963) that first came out with the idea of mastery learning. Carroll studied individual differences in the learning of second languages and found that scores reflected differences in the amount of time needed for learning rather than difference in the amount that can be learnt. He concluded that virtually all students can achieve mastery of learning task if each is given enough time and if they all receive good instruction. His ideas were improved upon by Bloom (1968) when he came up with Learning for Mastery (LFM). In the same year, Keller (1968) also improved on the ideas of Bloom. Keller (1968) came up with Personalized System of Instruction (PSI).

Both Carroll's and Bloom's model are group based mastery learning techniques while Keller's model is personalized. Bloom's model, therefore has been viewed as the partial mastery learning technique while that of Keller is seen as the full mastery learning model because there is little difference from that of Bloom in that it is totally individual based and advocates 100% performance. The concepts of both partial mastery learning technique and full mastery learning technique, therefore, are the same. It is only in the aspect of execution of their techniques that differences come to play.

Mastery learning technique is a strategy of teaching and learning exercise expected to bring all or almost all students to a level of mastery in the learning of any particular subject of choice. Adepoju (2002) looks at mastery learning as "an innovation in which its various forms are designed towards making learners perform well on an academic task. In mastery learning, a pre-specified criterion level of performance is established which students must master in order to complete the instruction and move on. It typically includes frequent assessment of students' progress, provision of corrective instruction and emphasis on cues, participation, feedback and reinforcements.

In fact, one of the widely used means of adapting instruction to the needs of diverse students is called mastery learning (Block and Anderson, 1975; Block and Burns, 1976; Bloom, 1976). The basic idea behind mastery learning is to make sure that all or almost all students have learned a particular skill to a pre-established level of mastery before moving on to the next skill.

The process of Mastery Learning involves a good quality of instruction, the teacher employs the best form of instruction that is suitable for the group and needs to pay attention to each student to ensure he is coping, this process leads him to know the students that are slow and that need individual attention or extra assignments to help them attain mastery of the subject matter (Onuka, 1999). It also portends group study where the more knowledgeable is available to help the slow learner. However, a balance must be struck to ensure that the fast learner is not unnecessarily slowed down to his detriment. This group study portends cooperative learning; Tutorial group is another characteristic of learning for mastery. Here, the tutor must not necessarily be the class teacher; it is in fact better handled by someone else.

Also, assignment should be given to students ahead of introducing a subject matter by way of referring them to the relevant portion of the textbooks and other instructional materials. They can also be made to do some tasks in work-books where they are

available to help their understanding on the subject matter. Further, the teacher may also need to give frequent reinforcement to some of the student/audio-visual aids and academic games which ensure the learning of a particular idea through illustration and graphic explanation as they are very important instructional aids in the use of learning for mastery strategy. Other means of reinforcement of social studies instruction include the use of film-strips and short motion pictures which can be used by the individual students.

The teacher must be an effective communicator who thoroughly processes his information of social studies content and presents it in an orderly and comprehensive manner. There must be an established feedback mechanism so as to enable correction of lapses in instructional methods which can thus bring about improvement in the teaching and learning of Social Studies.

Summarily, to instruct for mastery the following guideline are to be followed:

- Clearly state the objectives representing the purpose of the subject
- The curriculum is divided into relatively small learning units, each with modelling, practice, formative evaluation; re-teaching, reinforcement, and summative evaluation included,
- Each unit is preceded by brief diagnostic tests, formative assessments.
- The results of formative tests are used to provide supplementary instruction, or corrective activities to help the learner overcome problems.

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3. **Evaluation**

The National Policy on Education (2004) emphasizes that evaluation -should be done through continuous assessment. Assessment is the process of organizing test data into interpretable forms on a number of factors. Data are< obtained using a wide variety of instruments, such as tests, questionnaires -and'-observations. In general, several tests of different types and testing different-aspects of the child's leaning (cognitive, psychomotor, and effective) are' needed in order to complete an assessment. Thus one can compare assessment with a series of medical tests. That is, assessment of learning focuses on important factors and a number of measurement methods or techniques in order to arrive at a mark, or judgment in respect of the pupil's ability, attitude and progress in a particular subject. Such mufti-dimensional approaches may include tests, interviews, projects or homework assignments [A] etc (NTI, 2007). According to Urevbu (2001), there are two major types of evaluation formative and summative evaluation.

3.1 Summative Evaluation

This is evaluation conducted at the completion of the curriculum development process and provides a terminal
judgement on the completed product. 'Summative evaluation, (hence) deals primarily with intents, observations and judgements on the (intended) outcomes'.

The perspectives portrayed in formative and summative evaluation are not necessarily wrong, but they are necessarily limited and incomplete. Both forms of evaluation as they are currently practised give only a partial perspective on the worth of educational events. In the main, both formative and summative evaluation has tended to be quite conservative with regard to existing institutional structures of education. What makes a theory conservative (or radical) is its posture toward the institutions of its surrounding society. A theory is conservative to the extent that it treats these institutions as given and unchangeable in essentials; proposes remedies for them so that they work better, rather than devising alternatives to them; foresees no future that can be essentially better than the present

conditions that already exist; and explicitly or implicitly, counsels acceptance or resignation to what exists, rather than struggling against it.

4. Conclusion

This paper examines the effective teaching and learning of social studies through the use of mastery learning strategies. Social studies as a subject introduced by the federal government of Nigeria was to help students acquire values and social skills needed to make the student functional and responsible citizens and contributory members of the society. It provides knowledge skills and attitude that enable leaners understand their physical environment in order to act or behave as responsible citizens. It prepares students to live in a global and culturally diverse world as well as keep pace with rapid development in a dynamic world.

Other methods of teaching social studies such as programmed instruction, individualized, computer assisted instruction, the use of information and communication technology etc are also applicable in social studies teaching. These have not been emphasized in this paper.

We must admits that effective teaching makes a huge demand on male and female teachers, time and effort except one resolutely decided to make teaching of social studies effective there are some major constraints that can act as stubbing blocks, such as the effort, time etc. however, these constraints must be resisted and redirected.

One of the ways we can contribute to the development of our nation is to impact social studies knowledge and valued on the younger generation who are the leaders of tomorrow through mastery learning strategies.

Mastery learning strategies will help to propagate social studies from generation to generation by helping to promote good values, attitudes, knowledge and skills for the survival of the individual and the nation. Social studies teachers are the major stakeholders and we must uphold this in all ramifications, especially in our teaching.

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Effects of Study Skills Training on Achievement in Mathematics of Low Achieving Upper Basic Students in Plateau State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The study investigated the effects of study skills training on achievement in Mathematics of the low achieving Upper Basic Students in Jos East, Nigeria. The purpose of the study was to find out whether study skills training improved the Upper Basic Students study habits and achievement in Mathematics. Two research questions as well as two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The study as well, adopted the Stimulus Response (SR) Theory of Edward Thorndike as its theoretical framework. The population of the study comprised of all the Upper Basic Students 2 in Jos East Local Government Area of Plateau State, while the sample were 70 respondents (35 boys and 35 girls), who were assigned to the experimental and control groups. The study adopted the pre-test post-test control group, experimental research design. To further investigate on this, the study used two research instruments namely: the Study Skills Questionnaire (SSQ) and the Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT) to collect data. The data collected were analysed using the mean, standard deviation and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Findings from the study revealed that prior to intervention, the Upper Basic Students had low study skills and achievement in Mathematics, but improved in both areas after exposure to study skills training. Based on this therefore, the research recommends among others that in order to enhance students' study skills and achievement in Mathematics, study skills training be introduced early in school years, so as to enable students develop effective study habits, and also, educational administrators of secondary schools should organize seminars and workshops for school teachers on training in study skills for maximum output in the subjects taught in schools.

Keywords: Study skills, study skills training, Mathematics achievement in Mathematics, low achieving students.

1. Introduction

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) system is meant to provide six years of primary education and three years of Upper Basic Education to attain the Universal Basic Education. While the six years of primary education is crucial to the achievements in the Upper Basic Education, the Upper Basic Education achievements are critical to the achievements in the senior secondary and post-secondary school achievements. Hence, academic achievement at the Upper Basic Education are of utmost importance to the learner's future attainment and academic achievement. Academic achievement refers to the outcome of one's learning in a formal school system. It is when one successfully accomplishes the goals set in the curriculum of a particular subject. Academic achievement as defined by Adell (2002) is the extent of demonstrated ability in school subjects as observable in the termly, semester or sessional results of evaluations in continuous assessments, tests or examinations of students. Therefore, the requirements which lead to academic achievement include excelling in one's studies and other school works by obtaining good and high grades in given tasks.

Low achieving students are those who are not able to achieve, attain or successfully accomplish the required objectives at the end of a lesson, term or semester. They are students who have limited ability to different reasons in the education process as pointed out by Issa (2016). To Reid (2020), they are

students who lack basic knowledge/skills thereby, have difficulty in comprehension, lack concentration and are confused easily in the classroom. This implies that students who are not able to perform well, get good grades or score below the baseline of proficiency on any subject (Mathematics) scale because of different limitations and are termed low achievers. Students who achieve low have difficulty identifying or remembering important information during or after lectures, focus on irrelevant information, do not take notes, forget to bring items to class, easily distracted and engage in off-task behaviour, do not have system for organizing information for different subject areas, have trouble estimating how long a task will take and so run out of time when working on a project, lack knowledge of an appropriate strategy to use when studying, thereby using the same ineffective strategy for all academic tasks (Morrison, 2013). This implies that, students with these characteristics may have low achievement especially in the subject of Mathematics.

One subject area which has been identified to be challenging to students in school, is the subject of Mathematics. Mathematics is a science of structure, order and relation that has evolved from counting, measuring and describing the shape of objects (Gouba, 2008). Through the knowledge of Mathematics, students develop knowledge to solve problems in their environments, acquire understanding for numbers and calculating strategies as well as associating them with daily life problems (Obiweluozo, 2014). The importance of Mathematics necessitated its endorsement as a core and compulsory subject in both primary and secondary schools' curricular as enshrined in the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004). The aim is to help students master the subject in order to apply the knowledge in everyday life activities so as to contribute positively to the growth and development of the nation. Mathematics also gives students the ability to think and reason logically in any field of endeavour. It is therefore an indispensable tool in human development and is essentially needed for sustaining science and technology and as well, key in realizing any national development and aspiration over the years (Ugodulunwa & Okolo, 2015).

Despite the relevance and usefulness of the subject, students' achievement in this particular subject has been challenging. This is because to many students, the subject is difficult, boring, demands plenty of efforts and involves the use of many difficult concepts and abstract principles which may not be easily learnt like many other subjects. Other identified reasons by some researchers such as Tella (2007), Nizoloman (2013), Obiweluozo (2014), Ebele and Olufu (2017) and Gouindhara (2019) are: nature of the subject, the learner, teacher, textbooks, school environment factors, lack of interest, supervision by government authorities, and poor study skills.

Study skills are learning strategies that help students organize process and use information effectively (Kerka, 2007). Crede and Kuncel (2008) see study skills as the students' knowledge of appropriate study strategies and methods and the ability to manage time and other resources in order to meet the demands of the academic tasks. In other words, study skills are the different approaches and techniques students employ to enable them study effectively and achieve academically. Study skills help students to learn to be organized and as well take full responsibility for the learning process (Simon, 2015). Therefore, achievement in school subjects depends on study skills acquired as stressed by Ghulam (2013) and Harackrewer, Baron, Taver, Carter, and Elliot (2000). The study skills focused on this work includes homework and assignment, time management, concentration and test and examination (adapted from Bakare, 1977).

Homeworks and assignments are learning tasks given to students by school teachers which is meant to be carried out during non-school hours (Cooper, 1989). Homeworks and assignments are given to help students recognize that learning can occur both at school and home, foster independent learning as they also explore topics of their interest, give parents opportunity to see what is going on at school, elaborate on information that has been addressed in class, give students better retention of factual knowledge, encourage critical thinking, help in information processing, better study habits, give greater self-direction and instil self-discipline (Eqstein, 1988; Cooper, 1989; Warton, 2001; Hayward, 2010 and Quade, 2013).

Time management has been described as the process of planning, organizing and exercising conscious control over the amount of time spent in particular activity in order to increase effectiveness, efficiency or productivity (Management Study Guide, 2013). Time management helps students learn to plan, be focused and disciplined in all areas, assign specific activities per their importance which enables them realize goals and objectives planned within a short time.

Concentration is the ability to pay attention whereby an individual develops interest and attitude towards a

stimulus from the multiplicity of stimuli available in an environment (Sharma, 1987). Kathleen (2008) also pointed out that concentration involves two major skills or abilities which are exclusion (which is doing away with all distractions) and focusing (paying attention to what one is doing). Concentration therefore emphasizes patience, persistence and avoidance of distraction while studying as observed by Bakare (1997). Concentration is therefore very useful in the teaching and learning process because it increases students' learning ability (Harboe and Mullen, 2009). It also helps students learn how to deal with distractions that come from within and outside the environment. When low achieving students are able to handle all kinds of distraction and focuses on a target, an inner strength is gained to continue on that task until success is attained.

Test and examination are skills employed by teachers to assess the extent to which learning has taken place. Test and examination can be carried out at the end of a lesson, term or a session. They can be oral or written in the teaching-learning process. Test and examination serve as a necessary incentive to study, a means of getting feedback and a yardstick for evaluating the effectiveness of instructional delivery selection, placement and for employment, a way of assessing how much has been grasped from a course that might have been a whole term or semester and a way through which qualifications are acquired (Iliya, 2010; Upepe and Ndifin, 2012). For low achieving students to adopt these skills of studying for better achievement especially in Mathematics, training in study skills becomes necessary.

Study skills training are teachings or tutorials given to students in different areas of learning in order to help them adopt appropriate ways of studying for academic excellence. Kerka (2007) sees study skills training as teachings given to students in order to help them utilize a process of thinking which includes the steps of recognizing, recalling, and executing particular steps in acquiring study skills. The essence of training students in study skills is to help them identify appropriate skills to use in every learning. Scholars such as Graham (2007) and Gettinger and Seibert (2013), asserts that study skills training helps students prepare, plan, select, comprehend points when reading, ask and answer questions, review, recite, and recall what has been learned, acquire greater confidence to prepare for tests and examinations. Therefore, when low achieving students are trained in study skills, they become exposed to different learning materials which will in turn help them adopt appropriate studying, become competent and confident learners, thereby making learning interesting and as well attaining academic excellence.

2. Statement of the Problem

The increasing rate of low achievement in Mathematics among students due to lack of training in study skills has been of immense concern to the teachers, parents, psychologists and educationists. This has led to truancy, examination malpractice and dropouts. Several efforts have been made by the government in order to enhance achievement in Mathematics among students. These efforts include: Mathematical curriculum reforms, addition of different mathematical textbooks to existing ones and organization of workshops and seminars for Mathematics teachers, which all aims at helping students excel in Mathematics. Despite the effort made by the government, students' achievement in Mathematics has been low. School records such as class exercises, tests, promotional examination results have been low. An investigation into these low achievements in Mathematics reveals that students lack good and proper study skills as well as training in study skills. Students who lack proper study skills lack the competencies of doing their homework and assignments, organization and effective time management, concentration in academic works, preparation and effective ways of writing test and examinations which consequently has led to low achievement in Mathematics. Training in study skills can help students prepare, process, retain, demonstrate and apply what has been learned all through Basic Education as they continue in their Senior Secondary Education. Therefore, training the Upper Basic students 2 in study skills and ascertaining the effects on achievement in Mathematics is the problem this study intends to focus on.

3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find out the effects of study skills training on achievement in Mathematics of the low achieving Upper Basic students 2 in Plateau State.

4. Research Question

- What are the types of study skills found among the Upper Basic Students 2 before and after treatment?
- What is the level of achievement in Mathematics of the Upper Basic students 2 before and after treatment?

5. Hypotheses

- There is no significance difference between the experimental and control groups study skills mean scores of the Upper Basic students 2 after treatment.
- There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups achievement in Mathematics mean scores of Upper Basic students 2 after exposure to treatment.

6. Methodology

The present study adopted the pre-test – post-test randomized control group experimental research design. The design consists of two groups, the experimental and control group, where only the experimental group was exposed to treatment (study skills training) while the control group was not exposed to such treatment, for the purpose of finding out the effects of such treatment on the dependent variables (achievement in Mathematics). The choice of the design is anchored on the fact that all threats to internal validity such as pre-test is controlled.

The Upper Basic Students 2 (UBS2) in Jos East Local Government Area of Plateau State identified with low achievement in Mathematics constituted the target population for the study. The participants for this study consisted seventy (70) Upper Basic Students 2 (UBS2) identified with low achievement in Mathematics and the simple random techniques was employed to select these students. Two research instruments were used to collect data for the study. The Study Skills Questionnaire (SSQ) and the Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT). The SSQ was adapted from the Study Habit Inventory (SHI) by Bakare (1977). The SSQ is a self-reporting inventory designed to measure the effective and defective study skills used by secondary school students. The 20-item instrument consists of four sub-sales, homework and assignments, time management, concentration, test and examination. The questionnaire comprises of two sections. Section A contains information on participants' personal data such as name of school and gender, while Section B contains information on the four study skills. Homework and assignments measured students' commitment in carrying out given tasks in Mathematics. It had five questions. An example of such item is, I do the Mathematics homework and assignments I am given as soon as it is given. Time management measured students' ability to manage, allocate and budget time. It contains five (5) questions. An example includes, I make a daily plan for the time I use each day for my Mathematics studies. Concentration study skills measured students' ability to pay attention and not be distracted by any external activity. It also contains five (5) questions. Example of such item is, I study Mathematics when I can be most alert and attentive eliminating noise and all distractions. Test and Examination measured students' preparedness before and while taking test and examination. It had 5 questions. An example is, I go in for my test and examination fully prepared and certain of what I have studied. Participants responded on a 4-point scale that ranges from Strongly Agree (4), Agree (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1). The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the instrument is 0.83.

The Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT) is a 30 item multiple choice and four essay questions in Mathematics adapted from past Junior National Examination Council (NECO) questions covering only UBS2 syllabus. MAT was used to measure the achievement level of UBS2. MAT had four answer options under each item ranging from a-d in which participants were expected to select and circle the correct answers. Each of the correct answers carried 2 marks, making a total of 60 marks. The easy part had four questions of "a" and "b" and participants were asked to answer any 2. Each correct answer carried 20 marks (a and b), making a total of 40 marks. The total mark of MAT is summed to 100. Data collected was analysed using the mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions raised while Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used for the hypotheses.

7. Results

Research Question One: What is the type of study skills found among Upper Basic Students 2 before treatment?

Table 1: Mean Scores on Level of Study Skills Among UBS 2 Before Exposure to Treatment

Study skills	Experimental			Control		
	$\bar{x}$	SD	Remark	$\bar{x}$	SD	Remark
Time Management	2.02	0.28	Low	2.00	0.30	Low
Concentration	2.03	0.21	Low	2.24	0.29	Low
Homework on assignment	1.97	0.10	Low	1.88	0.20	Low
Test and examination	2.22	0.25	Low	2.01	0.14	Low
Overall	2.06	0.21	Low	2.03	0.23	Low

Table one shows that students in both experimental and control groups had means scores on all the study skills less than the bench mark of 2.50 ($\bar{x}$ < 2.50). This implies that UBS 2 had low study skills before the study skills intervention.

Research Question 2: What is the level of achievement in mathematics of the Upper Basic Students 2 before and after treatment?

Table 2: Mean Scores On Level of Achievement in Mathematics of UBS 2 Before and After Treatment

Groups		Pre-test			Post-test		
	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Remark	$\bar{X}$	SD	Remark
Experiment	35	33.06	20.84	Low	71.57	12.30	High
Control	35	32.74	19.46	Low	35.97	18.22	Low

Table 2 results shows that students: pre-test achievement in mathematics mean scores of the experimental and control groups are very low (M – 33.06, SD = 20.84 and 32.74, SD = 19.46 respectively) on the mathematics achievement test. Interestingly, the post-test mean scores of the experimental group (M = 71.57, SD = 12.30) is high, whereas that of the control group (M = 35.97, SD = 18.22) is still low. This suggests that UBS 2 had very low achievement score in Mathematics before exposure to study skills training and had high achievement in Mathematics after the study skills training.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups study skills mean scores of the Upper Basic Students 2 after treatment.

Table 3: Summary Table showing ANCOVA on Post-test Study Skills Scores Between the Experimental and Control Groups

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	P
Corrected model	13756.35[a]	2	6878.17	301.93	0.000
Intercept	2478.63	1	2487.63	109.20	0.000
Pre-test	8.33	1	8.33	0.37	0.547
Group post test	13748.01	1	13748.01	603.50	0.000
Error	1526.30	67	22.78		
Total	218863.00	70			
Corrected total	15282.64	69			
Descriptive Statistics					
Group		$\bar{X}$	**SD**		
Experimental group	67.94		4.69		
Control group	39.91		4.81		

NB: R squared = 0.900 (Adjusted R squared = 0.897)

Table 3 analysis indicates that the post-test comparison between the experimental and control group had P value = 0.00 less than the significance level (P < 0.05). Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and concludes that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups on study skills after controlling the effects of pre-test, F (1.69) = 603.50, P < .05. The experimental group is higher in mean score (M = 67.94, SD = 4.69) as compared to the control group (M = 39.91, SD = 4.81) with mean difference of 28.3. This suggests that study skills training improve the study habits of secondary school students.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups achievement in Mathematics mean scores of the UBS2 after exposure to treatment. ANCOVA was used to test this HO.

Table 4: Summary Table Showing ANCOVA Test on Achievement in Mathematics Mean Scores Between the Experimental and Control Groups after Treatment

Source	Type III Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P
Corrected model	24470.41	2	12235.20	57.99	0.000
Intercept	36723.93	1	36723.93	174.06	0.000
Pretest	2291.61	1	2291.61	1.86	0.091
Group post test	22064.84	1	22064.82	104.58	0.000
Error	14135.93	67	210.98		
Total	241002.00	70			
Corrected total	38606.34	69			
Descriptive statistics					
Groups		$\bar{X}$	**SD**		
Experimental group	71.57		12.30		
Control group	35.97		18.22		

Table 4 computation showed that, due to P<0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected and concludes that there is significant difference between experimental and control groups on achievement in Mathematics, F (1, 67) = 104.58. Also, experimental group is higher in mean than the control group (M = 71.57, SD = 12.30 and M = 35.97, SD = 18.22 respectively) with mean difference of 35.6. This implies that study skills training has effects on UBS 2 achievement in Mathematics.

8. Discussion of Findings

The present study investigated the effects of study skills training on achievement in Mathematics of the low achieving upper basic students in Jos East Local Government, Nigeria. The first hypothesis sought to find out if there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups study skills mean scores of the Upper Basic Students 2, after treatment. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups on study skills of the Upper Basic Students 2. These findings corroborate the findings of Graham (2007) who found that, for students to prepare and plan for learning, select, use, monitor, orchestrate and evaluate various other strategies used in learning, special training is required on the part of the student. The findings are also consistent with Crede and Kuncel (2008), who found that the student's knowledge of appropriate study strategies, methods and ability to manage time and other resources in order to meet the demand of the academic tasks is not in built in students but require drilling process.

The second hypothesis sought to find out if there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups achievement in Mathematics mean scores of the Upper Basic Students 2 after exposure to treatment. The result showed that the null hypothesis is rejected and concludes that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups on achievement in Mathematics. This confirms Gbulam's (2013) observation that students' achievement in the subjects offered at school depends also on the study skills of those students and that the quality of school achievement is directly proportional to the quality of study skills in the students. This finding is also in line with that of Harackrewer, Barron, Taver, Carter and Elliot (2000) who concurred that ignorance of study skills is a dreaded factor of low academic achievement.

9. Conclusion

The finding of the study showed that study skills training helped improve the study skills of the upper basic students 2. Therefore, school administrators should ensure that appropriate study skills training programmes are designed to help students adopt effective study skills for academic excellence. Study skills training from findings of the study, also improve achievement in Mathematics of the Upper Basic Students 2. This suggests that study skills training/intervention programmes need to be in place in schools to improve students' achievement especially in the subject of Mathematics.

10. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- Study skills training should be introduced in early school years so as to enable students develop effective habits.
- Educational Administrators of secondary schools should organize seminars and workshops for school teachers on training in study skills for maximum output in the subjects taught in secondary schools. This could be carried out termly in consideration of the Nigerian secondary school calendar.
- To develop effective study skills, the Federal Ministry of Education should formulate a policy mandating secondary schools in Nigeria to integrate study skills as a course in the curricular. This will motivate students to develop effective study skills for excellent achievement in school subjects like Mathematics.

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Awareness and Availability of Instructional Media for Learning Mathematics by Public Secondary School Students in Benin Metropolis: Counselling Implication

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Abstract. This paper assessed the awareness and availability of instructional media for learning Mathematics by public secondary school students in Benin metropolis**.** Students in junior secondary schools from the three local government areas in the metropolis formed the population for the study. Three schools were randomly selected from each local government respectively, with fifty (50) students from each schools and this made up the sample for the study. A questionnaire titled Awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics which was subjected to Cronbach alpha statistics with a reliability coefficient of 0.78 and a checklist titled: Availability of instructional media for Mathematics students were the instruments for the collection of data. The data collected were analysed using frequency count, mean, standard deviation and t-test. That, Mathematics students in the metropolis be enlightened on the instructional media that can aid their learning of Mathematics and parents/guardians should be encouraged to provide some basic instructional media were some of the recommendations.

Keywords: Awareness, Availability, Instructional Media, Mathematics, Benin Metropolis and Counselling Implication.

1. Introduction

Experts had always decried the poor performance of children on standard tests of Mathematics and science knowledge, by comparison with their peers from other nations (Else-Quest, Hyde, & Linn, 2010; OECD, 2010). The acquisition of basic Mathematics abilities is one pertinent goal for secondary school Mathematics curriculum in line with the objectives of the Federal Government of Nigeria as stipulated in the National Policy on Education (FGN, 2013). However, a major noticeable problem facing the education sector in Nigeria is the low level of the performance of secondary school students in both local and standardized examinations, especially with Mathematics as a subject. Despite all the efforts put in developing an acceptable general Mathematics curriculum, students' performance in the subject appears to be declining over the years.

There is a general impression that Mathematics is difficult by its very nature and because of this impression, majority of students have phobia for it (Ampadu, 2012; Ojimba, 2012; Saad, Adamu & Sadiq, 2014). The way many Nigerians feels, think and act towards the subject Mathematics has blindfolded them from realizing the benefits accruable from the knowledge and application of the subject. Some people even believed that Mathematics has no practical application outside the classroom settings so they abhor, hate and dislike the subject (Obodo, 2004). This is due to the fact that some teachers especially in this part of the world have not been able to teach the subject in such a way that understanding it becomes much easier, and as such effective teaching may be unavoidable without functional instructional materials to enhance innovative production in modern fields such as science and technology, among others (Idris, 2008). Instructional media is a vital educational resource in the educational industry, which could come in the format of Audio, Visual, Audio-Visual, among others (Fakomogbon, 2003 & Offorma, 2005).

Olanrewaju (2012) posited that when students learn with instructional media, both their cognitive and affective domain of learning are tasked which helps them maintain interest and keep their attention on what they are learning, as students remember better what they are taught with instructional media and it also encourage interaction and collaboration among learners. When instructional media are used in

instruction, it would make discovered facts glued firmly to the memory of students (Aina, 2013); and as such the benefit of using instructional media for Mathematics instruction cannot be over emphasized as it ranges from been able to personalize learning which can make learners learn at their own pace, to been able to give flesh to abstract concepts, improving the attitude of learners to making learning fun among others (Serhan, 2009). Instructional media which is concerned with all materials in audio, visual, audio-visual, multimedia, among others for facilitating learning (Fakomogbon, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Olanrewaju, 2003; Offorma, 2005), and could be used in motivating, assisting, directing, sustaining attention and bringing about self-learning, self-discovery and self-actualization.

Awareness is seen not only in the ability to know and understand, but also to locate, identify, retrieve, departmentalize, among others, materials around one to be harnessed and used for progress in a given society (Donlevy, 2009 & Jackson, 2003). Fakomogbon, Olanrewaju and Soetan (2015) in their study on Lecturers' Awareness and Utilization of Instructional Media in the State-Owned Colleges of Education in South-West Nigeria discovered that there was no significant difference in the awareness of Instructional Media of the lecturers based on of their sex. Bukoye (2019) asserted that almost 55% of Nigerian of children learn little from teacher due to non-availability of instructional materials, while few schools (35%) with instructional materials are noticed to be out-dated and irrelevant; while only 52% of schools in most state have classrooms with not enough space for displaying instructional material even where they are over able (Joseph, 2001). Thus, there is the visible gross inadequacy and underutilization of instructional materials necessary to compensate for the inadequacies of sense organs and to reinforce the capacity of dominant organs, therefore school teachers should try their possible best in the provision of locally made materials in substitution for the standard ones to promote their lessons (Ogbondah, 2008), since in schools in Nigeria Mathematics is a subject of choice offered by students across board.

Abdu-Raheem (2011) asserted that non availability and inadequacy of instructional materials are the major causes of ineffectiveness of the school system and poor performance of students in schools. Olayanju and Olosunde (2011), from their study on the availability of instructional materials in the teaching of primary Mathematics in basic schools, found that materials in the ten (10) schools used showed an average of 23.1 in each school while a sum of non-available materials in the ten (10) schools showed and average of 36.9 per school, meaning that about 30% of the instructional materials were available in each school and only two private schools have 50% of the materials. Oluwagbohunmi and Abdu-Raheem (2014) acknowledged that instructional materials are such used by teachers to aid explanations and make learning of subject matter understandable to students during teaching learning process. Instructional materials are objects or devices that assist the teachers to present their lessons logically and sequentially to the learners (Isola, 2010).

Instructional media includes all the physical and materials ways a teacher might use to carryout instruction in other to make students learn better and achieve their instructional objectives (Scanlan, 2003) these physical and material ways may include older materials such as chalkboards, hand-outs, charts, slides, overheads, real objects, and videotape or film, as well newer materials and methods such as computers, low-tech pencil, DVDs, magnetic board CD-ROMs, hi-tech tablets the Internet, and interactive video conferencing. Instructional media are the various materials that appeal to the five senses- seeing, hearing, touching, feeling and tasting which enhance teaching and learning (Nyame-Kwarteng, 2006). Therefore, in as much as there is the need for teachers to be encouraged to use the proper instructional Media as often as possible so that Mathematics can be simplified to learners and the perceived fear of the subject reduced if not totally removed, the awareness of the learners on the instructional media that can aid their learning of Mathematics have to be considered since some of this media is what could be used in our everyday living either for fun, recreation, work, among others. The researchers are of the opinion that the failure rate experienced by public secondary school students in Mathematics might not be unconnected with the lack of awareness and availability of basic Mathematics instructional media in schools as contributing factors to the poor performance of students in Mathematics, so as to proffer possible solutions and the way forward. Hence, this study seeks to investigate the awareness and availability of instructional media for learning Mathematics by public secondary school students in Benin metropolis.

2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine awareness and availability of instructional media for learning Mathematics by public secondary school students in Benin metropolis and the need to counsel learners on the importance of the use of these media were available. This study was limited to students in junior secondary schools in Benin metropolis.

Research Questions

- Are students aware of instructional media for learning Mathematics?
- Is instructional media available for learning Mathematics in schools?
- Is there a difference in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics by sex?

3. Hypotheses

One research question was hypothesised:

H_{01}: There is no significant difference in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics by sex.

4. Methodology

The study adopted the survey research design in determining the Awareness and Availability of Instructional Media for Learning Mathematics in Benin Metropolis (Egor, Ikpoba Okha and Oredo local government areas).

Table 1: Sample of Secondary School Students from Benin Metropolis

	Name of school	Number of students sampled
1	Edo Boys Secondary School.	50
2	Iyoba Girls Secondary School.	50
3	Evbareke, Secondary School.	50
4	Western Boys High School.	50
5	St. Maria Goretti Secondary School	50
6	Niger college	50
7	Emotan Girls Secondary School	50
8	Ihogbe Secondary School.	50
9	Edokpolor Secondary School	50
Total		**450**

Table 1, shows the Sample of students randomly selected from three public secondary schools from the aforementioned local government areas that made up the metropolis (one all boys school, one all-girls school and one mixed school). From each sampled school, fifty (50) Junior Secondary School students were randomly selected making a total of one hundred and fifty (150) students per local government area and totalling four hundred and fifty (450) students from the three local government areas in the metropolis and these formed the sample of this study. The instruments used for the study was a check list and a questionnaire: The checklist titled "Availability of Instructional Media for Leaching Mathematics (AIMLM)" was developed by the researchers. It had nineteen (19) items which the researchers used to assess the availability of instructional media in the sampled schools by personally visiting the sampled schools and ticking the appropriate box to indicate which instructional media was available and which was not available. The second instrument a questionnaire titled "Questionnaire on Students Awareness of Instructional Media for Learning Mathematics" (QSAIMLM). The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A contains the personal data of respondents, and section B contains items that sought answers to questions on student's awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics, the questionnaire had twenty two (22) structured items.

The research instrument was then subjected to both face and content validation through series of amendments made by experts in the Fields of Instructional Technology and Counselling Psychology. As for the reliability of the instrument, the student questionnaire was administered to 30 students who were part of the main study and subjected to Crombach alpha statistics with a reliability coefficient of 0.78. The researchers gave assistance to the respondents where necessary (i.e. any area of they needed clarification). When the respondents were done responding to all the research items, the researcher retrieved the questionnaire immediately. Mean and standard deviation was used to answer the research questions: 2.5 was used as the midpoint any item with a mean below 2.5 was interpreted as disagreement while items with mean of 2.5 or above was interpreted as agreement. As for the availability of instructional media, since nine schools were visited, which school had a percentage of 11.1% where the following was used for interpretation; 0% - 20% Not available, 21% - 40% moderately available, 41% - 60% available, whereas, 61% and above was seen as highly available. while t-test was used to test the hypothesis following the rule that whenever the calculated value of t is greater than the critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected and an alternate hypothesis is accepted. However if the calculated value is less than the critical value, the null hypothesis is accepted.

5. Results

Table 1: Mean and standard deviation of scores from participants on awareness of Instructional Media for Learning Mathematics in Benin Metropolis

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS	N	Mean	Std. D	Decision
Are you aware of text books for learning of Mathematics?	450	3.3022	.60602	Agree
Are you aware of Graph books for learning Mathematics?	450	2.7689	.74613	Agree
Are you aware of Mathematical set for learning Mathematics?	450	3.2311	.57792	Agree
Are aware of Calculators for learning Mathematics?	450	3.2222	.57370	Agree
Are you aware of Computers for learning Mathematics?	450	2.22089	.74971	Disagree
Are you aware of Marker/Black board for learning Mathematics?	450	3.2356	.59138	Agree
Are you aware of Modular Mathematics charts for learning Mathematics?	450	2.2711	.72947	Disagree
Are you aware of packs of fair coin for learning Mathematics?	450	2.5978	.78146	Agree
Are you aware of packs of fair die for learning Mathematics?	450	2.5911	.77942	Agree
Are you aware of ludo for learning Mathematics?	450	2.6000	.77258	Agree
Are you aware of Park of playing cards for learning Mathematics?	450	2.1844	.61113	Disagree
Are you aware of Models of shapes for learning Mathematics?	450	2.4156	.66287	Disagree
Are you aware of Models of angels for learning Mathematics?	450	2.4289	.64401	Disagree
Are you aware of Scale balance for learning Mathematics?	450	2.4126	.64586	Disagree
Are you aware of Number line chart for learning Mathematics?	450	2.7200	.61662	Agree
Are you aware of Basket full of balls of different colours for learning Mathematics?	450	2.1733	.67813	Disagree
Are you aware of print logarithm table for learning Mathematics?	450	2.5311	.74329	Agree
Are you aware of Models of cylinders for learning Mathematics?	450	2.4044	.65798	Disagree
Are you aware of Models of cube and cone for learning Mathematics?	450	2.4044	.65798	Disagree
Are you aware of Angel of elevation and depressions charts for learning Mathematics?	450	2.3044	.73307	Disagree
I know of Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division rule chart for learning Mathematics?	450	2.8044	.71695	Agree
I am aware of Circle fraction disk for learning Mathematics?	450	2.1489	.72349	Disagree

Table 1 shows that items one, two, three, four, six, eight, nine, ten, fifteen, seventeen and twenty a mean ranging from 2.53-3.30. This is an indication that the respondents alluded to the fact that they are aware of those instructional media used for learning Mathematics as their mean is above 2.50 which is the midpoint. However, the mean for items five, seven, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, sixteen, eighteen, nineteen, twenty and twenty-two are lower than the midpoint of 2.50 which indicates that learners in Benin metropolis are not aware of those instructional media for learning mathematic as depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1:Disriptive of student's awareness of instructional media

Table 2: Availability of instructional media for Mathematics students in schools in Benin Metropolis

S/N	Instructional Materials	Available	Not Available	Decision
	Mathematics text books	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)	Highly Available
	Graph note books	4 (44.4%)	5 (55.6%)	Available
	Mathematical set	3 (33.3%)	6 (66.7%)	Moderately Available
	Calculator	8 (88.9%)	1 (11.1%)	Highly Available
	Computer	1 (11.1%)	8 (88.9%)	Not Available
	Marker/ Black board	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	Highly Available
	Modular Mathematics charts	0 (0%)	9 (100%)	Not Available
	A pack of fair coin, die, ludo	2 (22.2%)	7 (77.8%)	Moderately Available
	Park of playing cards	3 (33.3%)	6 (66.7)	Moderately Available
	Models of shapes	2 (22.2%)	7 (77.8%)	Moderately Available
	Models of angels	2 (22.2%)	7 (77.8%)	Moderately Available
	Scale balance	4 (44.4%)	5 (55.6%)	Available
	Number line chart	2 (22.2%)	7 (77.8%)	Moderately Available
	Basket full of balls of different colours	3 (33.3%)	6 (66.7)	Moderately Available
	Large print logarithm table	0 (0%)	9 (100%)	Not Available
	Models of cylinders, cube and cone	1 (11.1%)	8 (88.9%)	Not available
	Angel of elevation and depressions charts	2 (22.2%)	7 (77.8%)	Moderately Available
	Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division rule chart	7 (77.8%)	2 (22.2%)	Highly Available
	Circle fraction disk	1 (11.1%)	8 (88.9%)	Not Available

Table 2 shows that of all the instructional media for learning Mathematics on the checklist, four (4) items which are items seven, fifteen, sixteen and nineteen representing 21% were not available. While nine (9) items which are items three, five, eight, nine, ten, eleven, thirteen, fourteen and seventeen representing 47% were moderately available. Two items (2) which are items two and twelve representing 11% were available. Finally, four (4) items which are, items one, four, six and eighteen representing 21% were highly available as depicted in Figure 2.

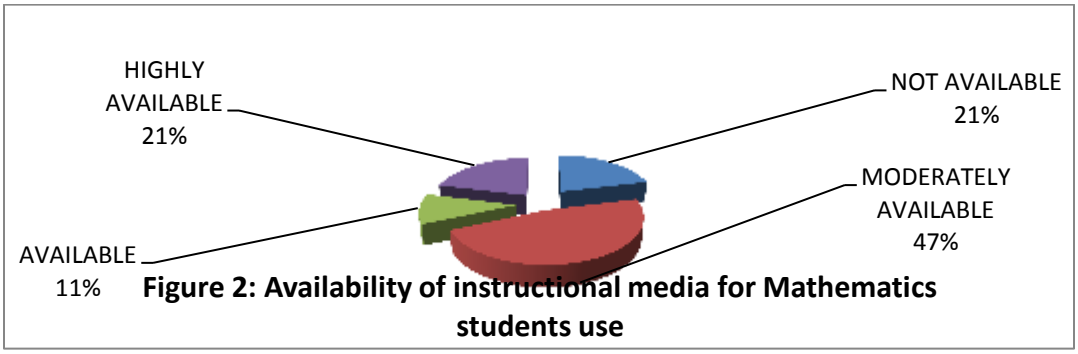

Figure 2: Availability of instructional media for Mathematics students use

Table 3: t-test on sex differences in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics

Variable	No Exp.	X	SD	df	t-Cal.	t-Critical	Sig (2-tailed)	Decision
Male	229	56.9	5.28	448	-.347	-1.960	.741	H_0 Accepted
Female	221	57.07	4.96					

Table 3: showed a calculated value of -0.347 while the critical value is -1.960 at 0.05 alpha level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted and this implies that there is no significant gender difference in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics by Mathematics students in Public Junior Secondary Schools in Benin metropolis?

6. Discussion

RQ_1: The findings of the study reveal that of the twenty two items, the learners were aware of eleven of them while they were not aware of the other eleven: they were aware of textbooks, graph books, mathematical set, calculators, marker/black boards, pack of fair coin, pack of fair die, ludo, number line chart, logarithm table and addition, subtraction, multiplication and division rule chart whereas, they were unaware of computers, modular Mathematics chart, pack of playing card, model od shapes, model of angles, scale of balance, basket full of balls of different colours as an instructional media to teach Mathematics, models of cylinders, model of cube and cone, angel of elevation and depression charts and circle fraction disk. The findings also lends credence to Bukoye (2019) and Abdu-Raheem (2011) who asserted that almost 55% of Nigerian of children learn little from teacher due to non-availability of instructional materials, while few schools (35%) with instructional materials are noticed to be out-dated and irrelevant and that the inadequacy of instructional materials are the major causes of ineffectiveness of the school system and poor performance of students in schools. The researchers are of the opinion that if the instructional media were available in schools as stipulated the awareness level of students would have been higher that observed in this study and as such the relevant body deemed with the responsibility of providing instructional media in schools should do all within their power to provide more instructional media.

RQ_2: The study also found that that of all the nineteen (19) items in the checklist, Mathematics textbooks, calculators, marker/black board, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division rule chart were highly available, graph books and scale balance were available, mathematical set, a park of fair coin, die, and ludo, park of playing cards, models of shapes, models of angles, basket full of balls of different colours, angles of elevation and depression charts and number line charts were moderately available while modular Mathematics charts, large print logarithm table, models of cylinders, cube and cone, computer and circle fraction disk were not available at all. The findings lend credence to assertions made by Olayanju and Olosunde (2011), Bukoye (2019), Joseph, (2001) and Abdu-Raheem (2011), which asserted that almost 55% of Nigerian of children learn little from teacher due to non-availability of instructional materials, while few schools (35%) with instructional materials are noticed to be out-dated and irrelevant; while only 52% of schools in most state have classrooms with not enough space for displaying instructional material even where they are over able and that inadequacy of instructional materials are the major causes of ineffectiveness of the school system and poor performance of students in schools.

H_{O1}: In the study, it was also found that there was no significant difference by sex in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics students in Public Junior Secondary Schools in Benin metropolis. The aforementioned assertion lends credence to Fakomogbon, Olanrewaju and Soetan (2015) who found no significant difference in the awareness of Instructional Media of the lecturers based on of their sex among State-Owned Colleges of Education in South-West Nigeria. This implies that the way awareness level of the recipient was the same irrespective of their sex status.

7. Conclusion

From the result of the study, it was concluded that secondary school students in Benin metropolis are not unaware of the instructional media that can be used to learn Mathematics. Across sex there is no difference in the awareness of instructional media for learning Mathematics, while some instructional media for learning Mathematics is present in Public Junior Secondary Schools in Benin metropolis, others needs to be provided by relevant bodies: the government, parents and guidance of students.

8. Counselling Implications

The counsellors could assist the teachers through programmes like; seminars, workshops and

sensitization talks on the importance of instructional materials in teaching-learning objectives. Such programmes could assist the teachers on how every teaching material could be effectively utilized in class room activities. The Counselling Association of Nigeria (CASSON) should encourage the government on the needs for the provision of relevant and quality materials for schools in the federation. This will go a long way to reduce the increased students' poor performance.

9. Recommendations

In the light of the findings of this research work, the following recommendations are proffered:

- The government through the federal and state ministry of education should set up monitoring unit to monitor and encourage the use of instructional materials by every teacher while teaching.
- The government should release enough money to all schools in the federation for the purchase of enough relevant and quality instructional materials for use.
- Teachers should be counselled on the need to seek for locally improvised instructional media that would assist learners during lessons.
- That further studies be carried out to ascertain the functionality of the instructional material present in schools during the studies.
- Although Students is Public Secondary schools in Benin metropolis are not totally unaware of the instructional media for teaching Mathematics, there is need the students to be enlightened on the instructional media that can best aid them in the learning of Mathematics. This can best be achieved when the teachers that teach Mathematics in these schools use these instructional media to teach every Mathematics class. This will not be possible if these instructional media are not provided in the schools in the metropolis.
- There are some basic instructional media for learning Mathematics that the parents/guardians of students who learn Mathematics at this level can provide such instructional media should be provided by the parents/guardians.
- Teachers can also the counselled or advised to improvise some of the instructional media that are not available so has to reduce if not remove the abstract nature of Mathematic.

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Adoption of Information Technology and its effect on Cooperative Performance in Egba Division, Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Cooperative is a common platform for addressing contemporary financial challenges in a fast growing economy. The manual accounting systems among cooperatives are very slow, leave high margin of errors and create opportunities for abuse with negative impact on cooperative performance. The study examined factors affecting information technology (IT) adoption and its effect on cooperative performance in Egba Division, Ogun State, Nigeria. Primary data were collected from 122 respondents by multi-stage sampling techniques through questionnaire. Data were analysed by descriptive statistics, Binary Logit and Cobb-Douglas function. The result shows that average respondent was 32.8 years old. Male (80.3%) dominated cooperative management, 64.8% were married, 31.2% had maximum of secondary education. Cooperative membership was 10 – 58 persons. The major IT facilities adopted were office phone (84.4%), computer system (63.9%) and television (45.9%). Some managers (23.3%) were computer illiterate. Regression estimates revealed that age ($p < 0.01$), education ($p < 0.01$), experience ($p < 0.01$) and computer literacy ($p < 0.01$) of cooperative managers affected IT adoption while cooperative performance was promoted by computer system ($p<0.01$), office phone ($p<0.01$), television ($p<0.01$) and managers' experience ($p<0.01$). The major constraints against IT adoption were high cost of IT (63.1%) and low membership/ finance (45.9). Therefore, government should ensure policy that will increase membership participation and finance in cooperatives. It is recommended that minimum cooperative membership for registration should be twenty (20) persons. Computer training should be compulsory for managers/ staff under the principle of cooperative education. IT adoption should become a policy in the bye-law.

Keywords: Cooperatives, adoption, information technology, performance, Logit model

1. Introduction

Cooperatives are veritable tools for economic development in many countries. Over the years, cooperative enterprises have successfully promoted small-scale businesses and serve as catalysts for social organization and cohesion. It has over one billion members worldwide and can be found in many sectors such as agriculture, finance, health and in the provision of utilities. The societies have been able to provide some infrastructure by establishing joint production facilities for members with full compliments of tools, electricity, and access road among others (Al-swidi and Al-hosam, 2012).

Cooperative business started as a defense mechanism against the adverse effects of agricultural and industrial revolutions of 18th and 19th centuries, during the period of low wages, rising cost of living, adulteration of foodstuffs and goods, unemployment and long working hours without relief. It evolved from peasantry level to a highly sophisticated business enterprise following the wide acceptance of cooperative lifestyle by all classes of people (Enebeli-Uzor, 2011). The society is regarded as one of the main institutional machineries for empowering the economically weak members. According to Omojola (2004), Strickland described cooperative as a group of individuals who aim at an agreed object of social or economic betterment, and live in such circumstances of proximity, common language and

harmony. Some authors defined cooperative as a social organization, some see it purely as an economic unit while others emphasize on the cultural and spiritual dimension and the educational value of cooperatives (Emeaso, 2011).

Pearse (2014) affirmed that the societies play meaningful roles in uplifting the socioeconomic conditions of their members and local communities, as well as running major businesses in their nations. They are part of informal sectors that provide credit which helps in the growth of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs). They are found making remarkable progress in almost all the major sectors of the economies in all countries of the world. They help to create, improve and mobilize savings. They generate employment opportunities and contribute to poverty reduction (Agbasi 2010 and Fatoki, 2012). Madhoushi *et al.* (2011) pointed out that cooperatives is associated with promoting entrepreneurship not only on their jointly owned businesses but also in individual business units of their members.

In Nigeria, cooperative in spirit and practice has been existing before the advent of modern-day cooperatives. They are used in several ways to solve economic problems among the people. They are called different names by various tribes and cultures e.g. "Adashi", "Esusu" and "Isusu" by Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo respectively, among other tribes (Ogungbemile 2010). The societies serve as avenues for farm input distribution, production, processing, financing and marketing of agricultural products (Nwankwo *et al.*, 2012). According to Oladejo and Oluwaseun (2014) and Iheanacho et al (2012), the cooperatives empower members by facilitating financial services, creating employment and giving educational support, social protection, marketing services, mutual aids and labour exchange. They are significant social and economic actors in making personal development a reality and contributing to the well-being of entire population in the Nigerian economy (Oladejo, 2011).

In spite of these roles, cooperative sector is facing several challenges including lack of adequate funds, illiteracy among its members, and lack of training opportunities. More so, most large cooperatives still operate with manual or semi-manual accounting systems which are labour intensive to maintain, leave high margin of errors and create opportunities for abuse (Aladejesu, 2012). Akorede (2011) reported that the manual operations and processes are notoriously slow and labour intensive to maintain leading to poor information management processes. These manual operations and processes range from members' registration details, accounts of savings, shareholdings, loan, repayments and balances, Bank remittances, purchases and sales, dividend declaration and computations, among others.

Oladejo and Adereti (2010) pointed out the direct negative impact of the manual operations and processes in cooperatives including inaccurate returns, late rendition of returns, inadequate services to members, reduced confidence in the society, low level of patronage, dwindling performance, diminishing share structure and capital base, poor investment analysis, reduced profitability, diminishing surpluses, poor management, inefficiencies and fraud. It must be noted that both profit and non-profit oriented enterprises are taking advantage of the speed, accuracy, reliability and sometimes cost-effectiveness offered by information technology (IT) to further their interests in the competitive operating environment.

Against this background, the objective of the study is to investigate adoption of information technology (IT) and its effect on the financial performance of cooperatives in the study area. The empirical findings would guide the decisions of the societies and policy makers on the type of information technology to be adopted for a particular operation. The results would also serve as basis for further research work.

2. Literature Review

Information technology (IT) refers to computer for processing, storing and transferring information; telephone, radio, television for coast-to-coast broadcasting, internet facilities and various communication gadgets (Wallace and Haugen, 2011; Murch, 2012 and Mika et al., 2013).

Information Technology has become indispensable in business operations across the world. It makes huge investments possible to meet the dynamic and growing customer needs. It is applicable to the cooperatives where the society needs to communicate with members, process members' accounting information e.g. savings, loans, subscription, trading activities, annual accounts and returns and determine the society surplus as well as sharing dividends which must be accurate and timely processed.

According to Oladejo and Oluwaseun (2014), the manual operations are partly responsible for several challenges being faced by cooperatives. Thus, information technology would engender improved services to members. Satisfaction would be enhanced when enquiries from members are promptly attended

to. The numerous challenges attributes to cooperative societies would not only be minimized but eradicated (Oladejo and Adereti, 2010).

Information Technology has a potential to contribute to achieving significant economic, social and environmental benefits of cooperatives. Mika et al. (2013) noted that investments in IT are often argued with the benefits it can bring in form of prompt delivery time, improved quality, employee motivation and indirect cost savings. Wallace and Haugen (2011) postulated that the use of IT in business could help attract and retain employees and ensure increased workers' productivity. According to Diso (2005), adoption of IT can give companies competitive advantage, gain in market share and ensure improved efficiency. The benefits of early adoption must be substantial since the cost of IT tends to decrease over time. Chieochan et al. (2000) suggested that Information Technology (IT) should be used by agricultural cooperatives to acquire timely information. Information technology reduces the communication gap between rural communities and the cities. Soriano (2007) stated that the benefits of IT extends to economic aspects including better production and earnings.

The positive impacts of information technology on the operations and performance of cooperatives have been reported by many researchers. McKillop and Quinn (2013) examined website adoption and its resultant effects on the performance of cooperative credit union in Ireland. They found that population from which the union drew its membership significantly influenced adoption of websites while the adoption translated into cost benefits for the cooperatives.

Morris (2014) investigated the effect of ICT adoption on the financial performance of Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOs) in Nairobi. The results indicated that adoption of ICT led to an increase in SACCOs financial performance. An increase in ICT adoption resulted to improvement in payments, processing and reduction in service time due to electronic delivery of financial services.

Murch (2012) also conducted a study on communication technology adoption behaviors to provide educational benchmarks for Texas cooperatives. The survey categorized 105 different cooperatives by technology use and management practices. The findings revealed that Texas cooperative managers were willing to expand on their current use of communication technology. Those cooperatives with defined policies for technology use were able to use many forms of the information technology. Years of cooperative existence and manager's working experience were found to significantly influence the willingness of Texas cooperatives to adopt new information technology and social media.

The study of Nwankwo et al. (2009) revealed that majority of the farmers in Kaduna and Borno States, Nigeria joined cooperative organizations mainly because of the need for information and social capital. They reported that the farmers became aware of recent innovations through the cooperatives. However, Wensheng (2001) warned that Information and Communication Technology can result in the marginalization of economically disadvantaged groups or rural poor within developing and even developed countries, if not well planned and implemented.

3. Methodology

3.1 The Study Area

The study area is Egba Division of Ogun State in Southwest Nigeria. Ogun State was created in February, 1976. It has a total population of 3,751,140 (NPC, 2007). The State is bounded in the West by Benin republic, in the South by Lagos State and Atlantic Ocean, in the East by Ondo State and in the North by Oyo State. Egba division is one of the four (4) divisions in Ogun State. Others are Ijebu, Remo and Yewa Division.

Yoruba is the predominant ethnic group in the area. The study area consists of six Local Government namely; Obafemi-Owode, Odeda, Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ewekoro and Ifo LGAs. The major city in Egba Division is Abeokuta which is the Capital of Ogun State where the State Ministry of Cooperative and Community Development is located as a result of numerous cooperative societies and activities within the State.

The study area comprise of urban and rural areas where different types of cooperatives exist among farmers, artisans, civil servants, transporters and many other groups of people.

3.2 Method of Data Collection and Sampling Technique

Primary data were used for this study while secondary data were obtained as literature from research publications. The primary data were collected from the cooperative through their managers who were the respondents. The data were collected using structured questionnaires which were administered during personal interview. The

investigation was based on the use of information technology including computer system in record keeping, office phone for communication and messaging, television (TV) for office entertainment, Point of sale (POS) for electronic payment, e-banking, internet and social media among others.

A multistage sampling technique was employed in selecting the sample for the study. In the first stage, four (4) of the six (6) Local Government Areas in the Egba division i.e. 66.7% were randomly selected namely; Abeokuta South, Obafemi-Owode, Ewekoro and Odeda LGAs. In the second stage, Thirty Five (35) registered cooperative societies were selected from each of the four Local Government Areas for interview. In all, a total of One Hundred and forty (140) questionnaires were administered out of which reliable information from One Hundred and Twenty Two (122) respondents were used for the data analysis after screening.

3.3 Method of Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage and mean was used to analyse the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents, cooperatives and enumerated IT facilities. Binary Logit model was used to determine the factors affecting adoption of IT facilities among the cooperatives while the Cobb-Douglas Linear function was fitted to capture the effects of IT adoption on cooperative performance.

The Binary Logit Model

The Logit regression analysis is an appropriate technique for estimating the probability that an event occur or not by predicting a binary dependent outcome from a set of independent variables (Hoetker, 2007). For example, a cooperative may decide to adopt or not to adopt a particular Information technology (IT). The probability to adopt, y_i^*, is linearly related to a vector of observable variables, X_i and other unobservable factors, the error term. The linear form of the Logit model is specified as;

$$y_i^* = \beta x_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

When y_i^* is greater than zero, the cooperative decides to adopt the IT. Hence, y_i^* assumes a value of one (1) when the cooperative adopts the IT and zero (0) when it does not. The probability that $y_i = 1$ is given by;

$$P(y_i = 1 \mid x_i) = \frac{\exp(x_t \beta)}{1 + \exp(x_t \beta)} \quad (2)$$

where β is the vector of coefficients to be estimated.

The dependent variable in this analysis is adoption status of computer system (i.e. adopted or non-adopted) being the major information technology used to gather, process, compute, store, protect, and transfer information.it is also used for internet connections and social media. Positive coefficients mean that the probability of adopting the IT increases with that variable and vice versa.

The application of the Logit model is in line with Bassey (2015) among other authors. The regression equation is specified explicitly as;

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \ldots + \beta_8 X_8 + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$

Where:

Y_i = Adoption of IT (i.e. Use of computer system = 1, otherwise = 0)
X_1 = Age of cooperative manager/ respondents (years)
X_2 = Education of manager (years)
X_3 = Previous Annual subscription (₦)
X_4 = Size of cooperative membership (number)
X_5 = Gender of cooperative manager (Male = 1, 0 = otherwise)
X_6 = Experience of cooperative manager (years)
X_7 = Existence of cooperative (years)
X_8 = Managers' computer literacy (literate= 1, otherwise = 0)
β_0 = Constant term
β_i = Parameters to be estimated (regression coefficient).
ε_i = error term

The Cobb-Douglas Linear Function

The effect of information technology adoption on the performance of cooperative was measured by Linear form of the Cobb-Douglas function. The dependent variable was defined as cooperative business surplus in monetary term while the explanatory variables include computer system, office phone and television being the major IT facilities with high rate of adoption. Following Oladejo and Oluwaseun (2014), the Linear functional form of the model is given as;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_i X_i + \mu i \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots\ldots, n \quad (4)$$

The regression equation is specified explicitly as;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \cdots + \beta_8 X_8 + \mu_i; \quad (5)$$

Where:

Y = Cooperative business surplus (₦)
X_1 = Size of cooperative membership (Number)
X_2 = Computer system (adopted = 1, otherwise = 0)
X_3 = Mobile phone (adopted = 1, otherwise = 0)

X_4 = Office television (adopted = 1, otherwise = 0)
X_5 = Sex of cooperative manager (male =1, otherwise = 0)
X_6 = Years of cooperative existence
X_7 = Education of cooperative manager (years)
X_8 = Experience of manager in cooperative (years)
β_0 = Constant
β_i = Parameters to be estimated.
μ = Error term

4. Results and Discussion

The Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

The socio-economic characteristics of the cooperative managers was investigated on the basis that they could influence their management style and the performance of the cooperative. The results of the descriptive statistics in Table 1 shows that majority (85.3%) of the cooperative managers was, at most, 40 years old while 14.7% was between 41 - 60 years of age. An average respondent was 32.8 years old. This implies that the managers were young and agile and could provide active leadership with tendency for on-the-job training. The results revealed that cooperatives were usually led by men (80.3%) in the area while 18.0% of the managers was female. The proportion of the managers that were single and married were 28.7% and 64.8% respectively while 4.9% was either divorced, separated or widowed. Thus, majority being married should take responsibility and be more productive in their management profession.

The finding shows that 68.8% of the cooperative managers possessed, at least, Ordinary National Diploma (OND) which is a higher educational qualification while 31.2% had a maximum of Secondary School Certificate. This revealed a high literacy level among the managers implying that education is greatly important in decision making and cooperative management. The result further shows that 82.8% of the societies had up to thirty (30) members while 17.2% had between 30 – 58 members. Average cooperative membership was 20 persons. This confirms that low membership is a possible problem among the cooperative societies in the study area.

Table 1: Characteristics of the Cooperative Managers and the Societies (n = 122)

Characteristics	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age (Mean = 32.8 years)	<30	43	35.2
	30 - < 40	59	48.4
	40 - < 50	17	13.9
	50 - < 60	1	0.8
Gender	Male	98	80.3
	Female	22	18.0
Marital status	Single	35	28.7
	Married	79	64.8
	Divorced	2	1.6
	Separated	3	2.5
	Widowed	1	0.8
Educational status (years)	No formal education	None	None
	Primary	2	1.6
	Secondary	34	27.9
	OND /NCE	47	38.5
	HND and above	37	30.3
Cooperative membership	10 - 20	81	66.4
(Mean = 20.26)	21 - 30	18	14.8
	31 - 40	5	4.1
	41 - 50	10	8.2
	More than 50	6	4.9
Managers' Computer literacy (years)	No computer literacy	28	23.3
	< 1.0	69	57.5
	1.0 - < 2.0	14	11.7
	2 and above	9	7.5

Source: *Field Survey, 2016*

Adoption of Information Technology by the Cooperatives

The results of assessment of Information Technology (IT) adoption among the cooperatives are presented in Table 2. The statistics show that the major IT facility adopted by the societies was office phone line (84.4%) followed by computer system (63.9%) and office television (45.9%).

The office phones were mobile handsets used mainly to communicate with members and leaders. A unit was procured at an average of ₦ 18,507. About 10.7% of the cooperatives used the phone to send bulk SMS messages to members while 89.3% did not probably due to high cost of subscription for bulk messages. Only 27.9% of the cooperatives used Database Management (DBMS) software and Spreadsheet for electronic computation. The estimated average cost of a computer system, DBMS and spreadsheet were ₦ 25,925, ₦ 33,333 and ₦ 1,741 respectively. The computer was cheap probably because it was a fairly used system. Similarly, 18.9% subscribed for Broadband internet to provide online information or social media /account page. The low level of adoption could also be attributed to low level of finance for subscription or lack of adoption policy. Meanwhile, internet connectivity may attract more members through the social media or promote the name of the society through a social media account page.

Office television was adopted purposely to entertain visiting members and access current information. Adoption of office television indicates that the society has a functional secretariat and this would enhance effective cooperative services and performance. A television was procured at an average of ₦28,743. Television is different from Cable TV in that the latter requires a cable which may be purchased at an average of ₦ 8,172 in addition to monthly subscription while the former does not.. The adoption of cable TV was low (18.0%) perhaps to avoid or reduce cost.

The result shows that Point of Sale or POS (4.9%), E-banking (5.7%) and Skype (4.9%) were rarely adopted as IT facilities by cooperatives in the area. Meanwhile, POS is an important electronic device for receiving payment/ subscription vial ATM card without physical withdrawal from members' bank accounts. E-banking is useful for online transactions i.e. payment or transfer of money. The ease of payment and security could enhance cooperative performance. Skype enables voice and video calling. It provides opportunity and evidence for sharing real-life information between a caller and a receiver. But, effectiveness of these IT facilities also depends on the ability of the members and managers to use the technologies. However, 23.3% of the managers had no knowledge of computer operation, 57.5% had less than 1 year computer training while 19.2% acquired about 1-2 years of computer education.

Table 2: Distribution of Cooperatives by Adopted Information Technology (n = 122)

IT Facilities	Adoption		Average
	Freq.	%	Unit cost
Computer system	78	63.9	25,925
DBMS for managing members' records	4	3.3	33,333
Spreadsheet software for computation	7	5.7	1,741
Point of Sale (POS)	6	4.9	5,965
Office telephone line	103	84.4	18,507
Bulk SMS messaging	13	10.7	10,208
E-banking	7	5.7	12,000
Skype	6	4.9	2,666
Office Television	56	45.9	28,743
Cable TV	22	18	8,172
Broadband internet	5	4.1	12,881
Social media account/page	18	14.8	3,992

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Financial Performance of the Cooperatives

Cooperative performance was statistically described in financial term. The estimated values of various cooperative transaction are presented in Table 3. The result shows that range of cooperative membership was between 10–58 persons while the average strength was 20 members. This indicates low level of cooperative participation in the area. The mean annual subscription and savings were ₦165, 975.24 and ₦3, 058,935 respectively. An average cooperative disbursed a loan of ₦1, 890,558.63 to member within the financial year.

The range of interest paid on loan was 10 - 12%. The estimated average salary was ₦ 160,691.57 per annum which is about 5.2% of cooperative savings. This indicates high cost of labour which could be reduced by effective use of

computer and other information technology facilities. The average value of IT assets owned by a cooperatives was ₦ 48,930. 44 showing low level of adoption. However, miscellaneous was estimated at an average of ₦7, 770.02. This probably shows the allowance of the Board members for transportation expenses to Board meetings. The surplus generated by an average cooperative in the area was ₦ 401,171. 05 which implies that cooperative enterprise is profitable. The result revealed that about 53.6% of the surplus was shared or refunded as dividend, souvenir and gifts to members. This confirms that the principle of patronage refund is observed by the cooperatives. Although, percentage of refund depends on amount of surplus generated.

Table 3: Estimates of the Cooperatives' Financial Performance

Performance parameters	Minimum (₦)	Maximum (₦)	Mean (₦)
Number of members	10	58	20.26
Annual subscription	26,175. 00	4,991,250. 00	165,975. 24
Savings	290,078. 13	12,954,692. 71	3,058,935. 31
Loan Disbursed	220,311. 00	10,077,381. 00	1,890,558. 63
Interest on loan	26,437. 32	1,007,738. 10	203, 234. 99
Fine	313. 85	42,733. 92	5,583. 30
Salary	36,800. 00	410,950. 00	160,691.57
Administrative expenses	1,775. 11	27,257. 36	7,477. 21
Dividends	5,342. 09	1,077,502. 17	205,772. 83
Souvenir/ Gift	1,685. 43	35,820. 69	9,271. 28
Surplus	31,966. 16	3,018,843. 80	401,171. 05
Value of IT Asset	1,800. 23	123, 461. 15	48,930. 44
Miscellaneous	1,752, 20	26,181. 41	7,770. 02

Source: *Field Survey, 2016*

Determinants of Information Technology Adoption among the Cooperatives

The factors determining the use of Information technology (IT) among cooperatives in the study area were examined by the Binary Logit model. The dependent variable in this analysis is adoption status of computer system (i.e. adopted or non-adopted) being the major information technology i.e. hardware that is used to operate the software, internet and social media. The estimates of the analysis are presented in Table 4. The model parameters i.e. chi-square and log likelihood values were significant at ($P<0.01$) probability level showing that the model has significant explanatory power of the data. The value of pseudo-R^2 (0.7497) shows a good fit of the model. The value means that 74.9% of the variation in information technology (IT) adoption among the cooperatives was caused by the explanatory variables in the analysis while remaining 25.1% could be attributed to unknown factors.

The estimated coefficient of age (-0.0337) of the cooperative manager had a significant negative relationship with IT adoption at $p < 0.01$. This implies that age of the managers does not support the use of IT facilities. This may be due to their unwillingness to go back to class for computer training. Thus, youthful managers are likely to be willing for new training which will favour IT adoption in cooperative. Educational level of the managers had a positive and significant coefficient (0.2956) at $p < 0.01$ indicating that higher level of education will promote adoption of IT facilities among the cooperatives.

The coefficient of membership (0.0358) significantly influenced adoption of IT facilities at $p< 0.01$. The positive sign indicates that an increase in membership will enhance the use of IT facilities by the cooperatives through additional funds. The coefficient of gender (0.4324) is positive and significant at $p < 0.05$. The coefficient value is significantly not different from zero implying that female managers contributed more to the use of IT facilities by the cooperatives. This finding supports the fact that female dominates secretariat job than male workers.

Experience has a positive and significant coefficient (0.0607) at $p < 0.01$, implying that appreciable years in cooperative management will encourage effective use of IT facilities. However, the coefficient of manger's computer literacy (0.9399) shows a positive and significant relationship with IT adoption. Thus, adequate knowledge in computer operation is a prerequisite for adoption and effective use of computer system and other related facilities.

Table 4: Estimates of the Logit Model

Variables	Symbol	Co-efficient	t-value	Standard error	Marginal effect
Constant		-6.1640	-9.094	0.6778	-
Age of respondents	X_1	-0.0337***	-3.310	0.0101	0.3721
Education of manager	X_2	0.2956***	8.101	0.0364	0.1388
Annual Subscription	X_3	-0.869E-07	-0.569	0.152E-06	0.8189
Membership Size	X_4	0.0358***	4.336	0.0082	0.4299
Gender of manager	X_5	0.4324**	2.295	0.1883	0.6842
Experience of manager	X_6	0.0607***	2.763	0.0219	0.5971
Existence of cooperative	X_7	0.0219	0.896	0.0245	0.7659
Manager's computer literacy	X_8	0.9399***	3.954	0.2377	0.2192
Chi-square		72.816***			
Log likelihood		-255.430			
Pseudo R^2		0.7497			

Source: *Field Survey, 2016. ** Significant at p < 0.05, *** Significant at p < 0.01.*

Effect of Information Technology (IT) Adoption on Cooperative Performance

The Linear functional form of the Cobb-Douglas model was fitted to determine the effect of IT adoption on cooperative performance. The estimates of the model are presented in Table 5. The result shows that F-value (17.466) is significant at p<0.01 meaning that the model has the power to explanatory the study data. The Adjusted R^2 value (0.525) indicates that 52.5% of variation in cooperative surplus i.e. performance is accounted by the variables included in the model. The coefficient of computer system (20.036) shows that the machine significantly promoted the financial performance of the cooperatives. Perhaps, it contributed to reduction in labour cost, timely and accurate processing of information, members' satisfaction and increased participation in cooperative business leading to higher profit/ surplus.

The positive and significant coefficient of office phone (0.063) at p<0.01 implies that its use enhanced increased cooperative surplus. This could be attributed to messages and calls to members as well as Board members for timely planning and decision making towards the success of the cooperative enterprise.
Office television also had positive and significant coefficient (99.754) at p<0.01. Perhaps, this indicates existence of cooperative secretariat office where visiting members were entertained using the television. The secretariat and television are cooperative properties that could promote the confidence of members and their levels of participation which have positive effects on cooperative performance.

The coefficient of gender (38.435) of the manager had a significant effect on adoption of IT at p<0.10. More so, there is a positive and significant relationship between manager's experience in cooperative (90.126) and cooperative performance at p<0.01. This means that financial performance increases with the experience of cooperative manager.

Table: 5: Estimates of the Cobb-Douglas Linear Function

Variable	Symbol	Coefficients	T-value	Standard Error
(Constant)		-45.672	-0.810	56.3852
Cooperative membership	X_1	9.584	0.102	93.9608
Computer system	X_2	20.036.***	7.434	2.6952
Mobile phone	X_3	0.063***	3.607	0.0175
Office television	X_4	99.754***	3.379	29.5218
Sex of cooperative manager	X_5	38.435*	1.801	21.3409
Years of cooperative existence	X_6	-27.852	-0.979	28.4494
Education of cooperative manager	X_7	0.391	-1.150	-0.3402
Experience of manager in cooperative	X_8	90.126***	3.461	26.0405
F-value		17.466***		
R Square		0.557		
Adjusted R^2		0.525		

Field survey 2016. *Significant at p<0.10, **Significant at p<0.05 ***Significant at p<0.01

Reasons for Non-adoption of Information Technology by Cooperatives

The basis for evaluating the reasons against adoption of information technology (IT) is to understand the problems so as to find possible solutions to them. The reasons/ problems are presented in Table 6. The result shows that the

major reasons for non-adoption are high cost of IT and maintenance (63.1%), low membership/ finance (45.9) and low level of computer literacy among cooperative managers (39.3%). The adoption expenses include connection cost, repairs and regular subscriptions for communication or internet data among others. However, low membership implies low level of operations and financial contributions. The cooperative managers may not be proficient in computer operations or its applications even though majority were computer literate. This could lead to low level of IT adoption among the cooperatives.

Table 6: Distribution of Cooperatives by Reasons for Non-adoption of IT (n = 122)

Problem	Frequency	Percentage
High cost of IT/ maintenance	77	63.1
Low level of computer literacy	48	39.3
Members' risk aversion to using IT	10	8.2
Lack of regulation/ policy on IT adoption	13	10.7
Low membership/ level of operation	56	45.9
Lack of awareness	43	35.2

Source: *Field Survey, 2016*

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings revealed that adoption of information technology (IT) by the cooperatives was low. Majority of the societies (63.9%) use computer system while only a few (27.9%) adopted electronic computation, processing and record keeping. There was little or no adoption of IT facilities like Skype, Point of sale (POS), E-banking and internet or social media among the cooperatives. Meanwhile, the adopted IT facilities had positive and significant effects on the performance of cooperatives in the area. Thus, it is imperative for cooperative management to adopt or increase their level of use of Information Technology (IT) so as to increase the financial performance of the cooperatives and their impacts on economic development. Meanwhile, high cost of procurement and maintenance, low level of computer literacy and low membership were the major constraints confronting adoption of information technology by the cooperatives. Therefore, increased cooperative membership should be ensured in order to increase cooperative finance and adoption of IT facilities.

Based on the above findings, it is recommended that cooperative membership should be increased to a minimum of twenty (20) persons as a condition for registration so that the societies will have increased membership participation and finance to solve their problems. Government and the cooperative unions should ensure implementation of cooperative education as a principle to include computer training of managers/ staff particularly in the use of DBMS, electronic spreadsheet and other software or connections. In addition, adoption of those IT facilities which should be listed by inspecting office should become a policy in the bye-law. The duration of adoption could be within 10 years which should also be clearly stated. The above recommendations, if implemented, will go a long way in reducing or eliminating many problems confronting cooperative development in the study area and in Nigeria as a whole.

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Evaluation of Security Technology for Proactive Safety Management in Public Schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State

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Abstract. This study was designed to evaluate security technology for proactive safety management in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State. It shows that there is statistically significant effect of school population size on the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools. About 35% of the variation in the security technology is explained by school population size ($R2 = 0.325$, $p<0.05$). The remaining 65% unexplained variation is largely due to variation in order variables outside the regression model. The regression model is statistically significant in terms of goodness of fit ($F = 461.917$, $p<0.05$). It shows that when the school is over populated that a poor security management will not be able to control the pupils without some technology devices being put in place. Also, the study found out that there is significant relationship between the school environment and security technology for proactive safety management. The position of the public schools within the communities becomes a problem since most of them are sited outside the town and hence faced with more security challenges. More so, the issue of the ownership of public schools is another important factor.

Keywords: Security, technology devices, public school, safety management.

1. Introduction

Safety and security in every institution of learning is very paramount to the effective management of schools. Schools generally are concerned with creating effective teaching and learning atmosphere for both teachers and learners. It is an area of interest that has invoked a great deal of attention and concern from learners, educators, teachers, parents, and the general public at large. Most importantly, school communities find themselves in situations where other non-academic concerns take up most of their energies with a result that the core school curriculum although important, often becomes a secondary priority. In particular, schools are faced with matters of safety and security. Numerous incidents of violence and injuries are often reported in the media both national and international.

Research has shown that when examining the causes of school security threats, it is important to take into account the school climate. Merrow (2004) posits that schools that have positive school climate have been associated with fewer behavioural and emotional problems for students. Additionally, specific research on school climate indicates that a positive supportive; culturally conscious school climate can significantly shape the degree of academic success in schools (Trump, 2010). Furthermore, Mac Envoy and Welker, (2014) posit that where the school climate is not positive, there will be many threats which will adversely affect the academic work of the school. Many researchers like Khoury, Astor and Zena (2005) have tried to identify some of these security threats which can disrupt the school programmes. They maintained that demographic factors such as school sizes, level of poverty, neighbourhood crimes and school locations can give birth to many threats in the school community. Mastisa (2011) stated that school crime is more apparent in large schools than in smaller schools. According to Xaba (2015) school location also impinges on school safety; schools located at the heart of the cities are more prone to violence than schools in isolated areas. They also stated that the endemic crimes and crises in the cities sometimes spill into the schools. Also, drug dealers see schools

as untapped market for their business by selling drugs to learners, thus making advantage of their curiosity and immaturity (Yell and Rozalski, 2005). There are different types of security threats which teachers, managers and parents are faced with in public secondary schools, some of which includes vandalism, terrorism, extortion, fighting, cybercrime, bombing and bomb threats and kidnapping.

Shannon (2006) conducted a study on school security practices; their consequences on students and climate. The main purpose of the study was to find out the security devices available in the secondary schools and the level of difference between students in the school that have security devices and the ones that do not have security devices. Five research questions were posed to guide the study and three hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was a descriptive survey. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select 276 public secondary schools. Teachers, students and principals were the respondents and the total numbers of the respondents were 1104. Questionnaire was the major instrument for data collection. The data was analysed with Pearson Correlations while Mean and Standard deviation were used to answer the research questions. The researcher observed that many public secondary schools do not have safety and security devices needed to keep school safe. Shannon found out that schools that have safety and security devices perform better in their academics than in the schools where few of the devices were found. Secondary, that student in the schools where few of the security devices were found were more security conscious than student in the schools where they were not found at all. The study is related to the present study as it tries to evaluate the security technology for proactive safety management in the public schools of Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

Another study was conducted by Eric (2009) on "incidence and accident" Implementing the safety regulations prescribed by the South African School of Acts. The purpose of the study was to find out the available security and safety devices available in Lesotho secondary schools and learners experience of school security threats in Lesotho. Six research questions were posed and three null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The study was a case study and purposive random sampling technique was used to select four target schools. The respondents were principals and teachers which gave rise to 112 respondents. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires; Mean and standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while t-test statistics was used for the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. The researcher found that many of the public secondary schools in Lesotho are not provided with safety and security devices. Eric also observed presence of dangers such as broken walls, sharp objects, broken sport facilities, playground equipment and classrooms with shattered roofs. The researcher found out that there was no emergency equipment visible in any outside area of the school. The study is related to the present study as it noted that there is poor management of school facilities and neglect of repair of faulty equipment.

Dewer, Peter, Anne and Xiao (2009) had a retrospect study on safety condition in high schools using Virginia Threats Assessment Guidelines. The purpose of the study was to examine the safety and security conditions in the schools studied. Four research questions were posed and three hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The researcher adopted descriptive survey design. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 960 respondents which were made up of students, teachers and principals. The design was a descriptive survey and the instruments for data collection were questionnaires and the method of data analyses was Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA). It was found that most of the schools have no planned security policies, have no planned way of resolving student's conflicts and have no safety plans on ground to check emergency occurrences. The study is related to the present study as it tries to find out the safety and security conditions in the high schools which he discovered was too poor. This is the gap the present study wants to fill.

Another study was conducted by Omebe (2010) on status of safety precautions in science laboratories in Enugu state, Nigeria. The purpose of the study was to investigate the status of safety in the science laboratories in Enugu state. Three research questions were posed and tow hypotheses were formulated. The design for study was descriptive survey and simple random sampling was used to select 200 science students which consisted of 120 females and 80 male students. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire and the method of data analysis was mean and standard deviation for the research questions while t-test was used for testing the hypotheses. The findings of the study show the sources of hazards in the science laboratories include improper techniques of using equipment, improper storage of the equipment, inactive supervision of students during practical, safety screening during experiments and fire extinguishers. The study is related to the present study because the findings are the same with the security loopholes in the public

secondary schools in North Central Zone but differs a little because it is talking of a section of the school.

Rugar (2010) conducted a research on fire emergency preparedness at schools: A case study of secondary schools in Moishi. The purpose of the study was to find out the level of emergency preparedness, prevention, mitigation and awareness in schools. The study was guided by six research questions and three hypotheses. The design of the study was case study. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select secondary schools and simple random sampling technique was used to select 680 respondents from among the students, principals and the teachers. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The findings, shown that there was no disaster management policy and emergency equipment in many public secondary schools. Again, there was no culture of maintenance of school facilities in the school. There was also lack of sound educational facilities found in most of the schools. This study is related to the present study as it reveals that there are gaps in the security management in most of the schools studied, no emergency plan and disaster management. There were no proper inspections to discover when school facilities were getting faulty.

Ducan and Enose (2010) conducted a study on assessment and implementation of safety policy in public secondary schools in Kisumu. The study investigated the availability and implementation of certain emergency response strategies in public secondary schools. Five research questions were posed to guide the study and three null hypotheses were formulated. Stratified random sampling was used to select 54 head teachers and 54 quality assurance and standard officers. The instruments used for data collection were questionnaires. Mean and standard deviation were used to answer research questions while t-test was used test the hypotheses. The findings of the study showed that the implementation of some safety policies was to a large extent satisfactory in the schools studied as evidenced by the following: fire extinguishers, emergency team members available in the schools, dormitories in many schools had emergency doors. Again, most of the dormitories in the schools were fitted with emergency doors. This study is contradictory to the present study because the findings proved that there is proper management of safety and security in the public schools while the present study is working on the improvement of safety and security in public schools.

Furthermore, a study was conducted in River State by Amanchukwu, (2012) on application of intelligence indicators on secondary school safety and security as a measure of learning enhancement. The purpose of the study was to examine the perception or relationship between staff and students in the application of security measures in secondary schools and the setbacks between teachers and students in the enforcement of educational policies in the schools. Two research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated for the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey and simple random sampling was used to select 280 students and 80 teachers. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The method of data analysis was mean and standard deviation for the research questions while t-test was used to test the hypotheses. The study found fear among students and staff, anxiety, uncertainty, low morale and absenteeism as factors against safety and security. The study also found out that if stringent measures are not put in place to ensure safety in schools, Nigeria risk not producing men and women it needs to guide the country in the coming years. This study is related to the present study because it emphasized that school safety and security determines the end product of the school and the society at large.

Mastisa (2011) conducted a research on the exploration of safety in township secondary schools in Free Town. The purpose of the study was to examine the safety and security of teachers and learners in township secondary schools. Four research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was exploratory, simple random technique sampling was used to select four out of five education districts all of which 44 secondary schools were selected. The respondents were 44 principals' and 352 teachers which amount to 396 respondents. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires and the data were analysed using mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions while t-test was used to calculate the hypotheses. The findings revealed that despite numerous laws made to protect the rights of the teachers and learners in South African schools, teachers and learners were still not protected. This is because the laws were written without proper implementation. The study is related to the present study as it was found that there are no safety plans made to protect the safety and security of the school, staff and the learners. It differs from the present study as it suggests that there is need to have code of conduct for the staff and the learners instead of equipping the schools with security system in order to make school environment peaceful for teaching and learning. The current study intends to fill this gap. Studies on arrangements to improving the safety

and security of learners in public secondary schools were carried out. A study was conducted on the safety and security of learners in South African public secondary schools by Prinsloo (2005). The purpose of the study was to determine what school management should put in place to ensure that the safety and security rights of learners is protected in the school environment. Four research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was descriptive survey and simple random sampling technique was used to select 64 public secondary schools. 968 persons were the respondents which are made up of principals and teachers. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires and the data were analysed with Mean and Standard deviation to answer the research questions and t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses. The researcher found out that there was unequal treatment of girls in South African schools and this has negative impact on the rights to education and human dignity. He also found out that school management have not shown much interest to protect the safety rights of the learners by providing some security devices and rebuilding of school fences. The study relates to the present study because the dwelt on the area of safety and security of learners and the need to provide secure environment for learning.

A similar study was conducted by Hasten (2006) on safe school for teaching and learning. The purpose of the study was to find out the perception of teachers on the school safety and security of the teachers and learners. Three research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to select the teachers and the head teachers of the schools sampled. The total number of respondents was 98. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires; Mean and Standard deviation were used to answer research questions while t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses. The findings indicated that public schools in Malawi were being neglected. There was no proper maintenance of the school buildings, grounds, fences and school facilities. Another discovery was that the general behaviour of the teachers and the students' exhibit contribute to school security threat in the school environment. Again, the researcher found that there was no trust among the members of the staff and students are unfriendly to each other. The study is related to the present study in the area of safe school for teaching and learning. However, it did not cover the improvement of safety security management.

Dewet (2007) conducted a research on school violence in Lesotho, experience and observation of the learners. The purpose of the study was to determine how school violence affects teaching, learning and the safety of the learners. The study was guided by six research questions and four hypotheses. The study was a case study. Simple random sampling technique was used to select the teachers, the learners and the principals who were the respondents and the total number of respondents was 520. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The data was analysed using Mean and Standard deviation for the research questions and ANOVA for the hypotheses. It was discovered that constant school violence in the schools which put the lives of the students in danger. It was also revealed that the rules and regulations of the schools were mere paper works. They were not effectively implemented and there was no disciplinary management in the schools. This makes the behaviour of some of the students become threats to the lives of others. The study is related to the present study in the area of safety of teachers and learners. However, the study was carried out in Lesotho while the present study is in Nigeria.

A similar study was conducted by Solomon (2007) on the rights of the learners in Mashakhane public secondary schools. The purpose of the study was to determine what rights the learners should enjoy in their learning institutions and what the management should put in place to safeguard the learner's rights. Two research questions were posed and two null hypotheses were formulated. The study was a case study and simple random sampling technique was used to select the respondents. A total number of 1240 of respondents which was made up of the learners, teachers and their principals were used for the study. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. Mean and Standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. The researcher discovered that learners in the public schools are aware of their rights but do not want to accept their responsibilities. The researcher observed that this has allowed an atmosphere that could not support effective learning. The researcher also observed that those rights of the learners were not effectively implemented and so the learners were easily exposed to security threats. This study is related to the present study because it revealed the weakness of the management in keeping the school environment free of safety and security threats for the learners.

Another study was conducted by Cosmas and Kuttickatta (2011) on "How chaotic and unimaginable classrooms have become insight into

prevalent forms of learner's indiscipline. The purpose of the study was to establish the most prevalent form of indiscipline among the learners and how it affects their safety and security. Three research questions were posed and two null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 125 teachers as the respondents. The instruments were questionnaires and interviews. The data was analysed using Mean and Standard deviation to answer research questions while t-test was used for testing the hypotheses. The findings revealed that, the following forms of disciplinary acts constitute threats to learners and educators in the schools. These are truancy, fighting theft, bullying, vandalism, gunshot and other threatening behaviours. The researcher also found out that the management was doing nothing to improve this situation. Thus, the classrooms and the dormitories are disorderly and threatening grounds. The study is related to the present study because it identified the human security threat which affects the teachers and their teachings, learners and their learning. This is an area which forms part of the present study.

Another, a study was carried out by Mamolibeli, Nithi and Jubulani (2012) on experiencing violence in school: the voice of learners in Lesotho context. The purpose of the study was to enhance the safety and security of learners in public schools. Six research questions were posed to guide the study and three hypotheses were formulated. Simple technique random sampling was used to select the teachers and learners who were the respondents. Their total number was 740. The instruments for data were interviews and questionnaires. Mean and Standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses. The study found out that learners were exposed to complex patterns of security threats and this was experienced in multiple forms. The researcher also found that few schools were having security gadgets but were in bad condition and in some schools parked in the office. The study is related to the present study as it identifies that security threats are the causes of violence among the students. This creates a gap for the present study which has to find out the ways of improving safety and security of public schools.

Again, a study was conducted by Oadunjoye and Omenu (2013) on the effects of Boko Haram on school attendance in Northern Nigeria. The purpose of the study was to find out if the activities of Boko Haram have direct effects on the attendance of pupils and students to schools. The study was guided by three research questions and two hypotheses. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling was used to select two tertiary institutions each from Yobe, Bauchi and Borno States as well as thirty rural primary and secondary schools. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The data was analysed using mean and standard deviation for the research questions and the t-test was used for the hypotheses. The findings of the study revealed that school attendance is affected in the areas prone to Boko Haram attacks in Northern Nigeria. In addition, schools are often protected during insurgency by government security forces. The researchers also discovered that schools record very low school attendance as parents disallowed their children from attending schools. This study is related to the present study because it discovered Boko Haram and insurgency as major security threats in the Northern States.

The study was conducted to investigate safety and security measures at public schools by Leandri (2011). The purpose of the study was to examine and evaluate the existing security measures in place at difference secondary schools. Three research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated to guide study. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 1685 scholars and 106 educators that form the sample of the study. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires and interviews. The method of data analysis was Mean and Standard deviation answering the research questions and t -test was used for testing the hypotheses. The findings of the study indicated that majority of the schools selected were not having emergency response plans which is one of the security strategies needed for school safety. In addition, most of the schools do not conduct dormitory and locker searches to seize the weapons with which some students use to threaten the lives of others. The researcher also discovered that most of the schools were not having perimeter fencing and there was nothing like security drills for the learners and educators. This study is related to the present study in the area of security measures.

Another study was conducted by Isaac and Musibau (2010) on school plant planning and students learning outcome in public secondary schools. It was to investigate the relative contribution of school plant planning to students' safety and learning outcomes. Two research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. A descriptive survey research design was used for the study. Multistage stratified and simple random

sampling technique was used to select 1650 respondents comprising of 150 principals and 1500 teachers. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires and the data were analysed using Mean and Standard deviation while Pearson product moment correlation was used to test the hypotheses. The study revealed that the level of students learning outcome is high when the school plant is safe and secure. It also revealed that poor classroom, laboratories planning and poor school plant maintenance services have negative impacts on students learning outcomes. The study is related to the present study because it dwelt on school plant planning which is part of the study.

A similar study was conducted by Odufowokan (2011) on school plant planning as correlate of students' academic performance. The purpose was to find the relationship between school plant planning, school safety and student academic performance in the schools. Four research questions were posed and three hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The design of the study was a descriptive survey. Multistage stratified and simple random sampling technique was used to select 1650 and 150 principals which form the sample of the study. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. The data was analysed using Mean and Standard deviation and Pearson product moment correlation was used for the hypotheses. The study revealed that most of the schools were not properly planned in terms of sitting and security devices. Again, the study also revealed that there was no special safety plan for the safety and security of teachers and students. It also revealed that due to the security challenges prevalent in most of the schools their academic performance was low. The study is related to the present study in the area of school plant planning and the influence on students general.

Xaba (2006) conducted a study on the basic safety and security of school physical environment. The purpose of the study was to find out how the basic safety of the school environment affects the learners and the educators in the schools. Three research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 69 teachers from secondary schools and 69 teachers from primary schools. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. Mean and Standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. The findings of the study revealed that most of the schools were collapsed and have cracked walls which form death traps to students and educators. Another finding was that most of the schools have not safety planned policy and no internal services of the school facilities. The study is related to the present study as it emphasis on equipping and maintaining school facilities for the safety and security of every school member.

Bert (2011) conducted a study on the impact of school facilities on learning environment. The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of quality and functioning facilities on the school environment. Five research questions were posed and four hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey study. Simple random sampling was used to select 480 respondents made up of teachers and the head teachers. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires and interviews. The data was analysed with Mean and Standard deviation for answering the research questions and ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. The findings of the study indicated that there was a relationship between school facilities and the safety of learners in the learning environment. In addition, the study revealed that there was no proper management of school facilities and maintenance services. The study is related to the present study because it dealt with school facilities and leaning environment which is one of the major variables in the present study. Another study was carried out by Maryland State Department of Education on safety measures for managing school safety. The purpose of the study was to examine the safety practices across the state and methods to provide a safe learning environment. The study was guided by four research questions and two hypotheses. The design of the study was casual comparative study. Simple random sampling technique was used to select the respondents. The respondents were school teachers and public safety personnel. The total of the respondents was 108. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. The research questions were answered with Mean and Standard deviation while t-test was used to test the hypotheses. It was found that the use of emergency management agency and law enforcement personnel to train and provide technical assistance to the school personnel were not employed. Again, safety practices like use of metal detectors, surveillance cameras and some other security measures were not practicable in many of the schools. The study is related to the present study in the area of safety measures which is one of the concerns of the present study.

Ibrahim (2010) conducted a study on the manager's view about school safety and security from

invitational theory perspective. The purpose of the study was to determine the views of school managers on the preventive measures of keeping schools safe and secure. Two research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated for the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling was used to select 35 managers out of 107 in the centre of Elazy city. The instrument for data collection was questionnaire. Mean and Standard deviation were used for answering the research questions and ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. It was found that most of the schools are not well equipped in the area of human resources. And also failed in the maintenance and repairs of damage facilities. The study is related to the present study in the area of school safety and security but differs in the area of study. A study was also carried out by Klru, Mbagua and Sang (2011) on the challenges facing head teachers in security management in public secondary schools. The purpose of the study was to find out the problems of implementing security measures by the head teachers in the public secondary schools. Three research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to obtain the needed sample of 27 head teachers, 35 prefects and 34 security guards which yielded a total number of 96 respondents. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. Data was analysed using Mean and Standard deviation and Pearson product moment correlation was used to test the hypotheses. The findings of the study revealed that schools in Kishii were beseeched with security threats such as strikes, thefts and students fighting with dangerous weapons. The study also revealed that the head teachers and the security guards are not vast with strategies used in keeping the school environment safe and secure. The study is related to the present study as it dealt with the security measures with which to keep the school environment safe. The study also discovered the challenges the 80 head teachers are faced with in managing safety and security of the public schools which is the gap the current study intended fill. Studies on the Threats Prevention Strategies needed in Public Secondary Schools.

Nompumelelo (2010) conducted a study on exploration and promotion of safety in schools. The purpose of the study was to discover security prevention strategies for handling safety and security threats in the public secondary schools. To guide this study, four research questions were posed and two hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was Ex-post-facto research design. Stratified random sampling was used to select 78 respondents which comprise of teacher, students and principals. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires. The method of data analysis was Mean and Standard deviation while ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. The researcher revealed that the school stakeholders were not involved in the threat's prevention strategies made for the schools. Thus, the strategies set were ineffective. The researcher also found out that most of the schools lack admission policies, copies of code of conduct for the teachers and learners which enhances security threats free environment. The study is related to the present study because it recommended that every school should have a school safety plan and that every member of the school community should be involved in safety and security keeping.

Another work was done by Smith (2010) on the role of school discipline in combating violence in public secondary schools. The purpose of the study was to examine the role of school discipline as a security threat prevention strategy. Five research questions were posed and three hypotheses were formulated. The design of the study was descriptive survey. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 708 respondents which comprise of principals and teachers as the respondents. The 81 instruments for data collection were questionnaires. The research questions were answered with Mean and Standard deviation while t-test was used to test the hypotheses. The result revealed that most schools have neatly typed code of conducts which are given to students but there was no implementation of the rules, searches of rooms, lockers were not done with seriousness and so most of the students' harbour weapons with which they threaten the lives of other students. The study is related to the present because it dealt in school discipline in combating violence in public secondary schools which is part of security threat which is one of the concerns of the present study.

Furthermore, a study was conducted by Monkwe (2010) on strategies and policies that secondary schools can employ to protect educators and learners in the school environment. The purpose of the study was to investigate ways of preventing security threats which affects educators and learners in the school environment. Five research questions were posed two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The study was a descriptive survey. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select 760 respondents which were made up of teachers and principals. The methods of data collection were questionnaires. Research questions were analysed

using Mean and Standard deviation while t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses. In the findings, Monkwe, observed that teachers and students do not feel protected in the school environment which is full of security threats. The result also proved that there were no trained security personnel in the schools studied. Another discovery was that many of the secondary schools do not have code of conducts that could assist to check the behaviour of the teachers and the learners, thus there were many security threatening behaviours. The study is related to the present in the area of strategies and policies that can be employed to protect educators and learners which is also one of the major concerns of the present study.

2. Statement of the Problem

Promoting and providing a supportive learning environment in which all learners and every member of school community are expected to feel safe is an essential function of all schools. There appear to be security threats across public secondary schools in several places including Edo State with attendant emergencies. There is also evidence that adequate measures have not been put in place to check the threats. These create the need to explore ways of improving on security technology and safety management in public secondary schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State with a view of making the environment more conducive for teaching and learning.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is on the evaluation of the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools of Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State. Specifically, the study will:

- Ascertain the security technology devices and safety mechanism available for effective security management in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- Determine available emergency response plans for combating security and safety threats in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- Determine the relationship between school population and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- Determine the relationship between school environment and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- Determine the relationship between school ownership and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.

4. Research Questions

The following research questions have been formulated to guide the study:

- What are the basic security technology and safety mechanisms for proactive safety management in over populated public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State?
- What are the available emergency response plans for combating security challenges and safety threats in the school environment of public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State?
- What is the relationship between school population and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- What is the relationship between school environment and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- What is the relationship between school ownership and security technology in public schools in Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.

5. Hypotheses

The following hypothesis were tested in this study at 0.05 alpha level.

- There is no significance relationship between school population and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools of Edo north senatorial district of Edo State.
- There is no significance relationship between school environment and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools of Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.
- There is no significance relationship between school ownership and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools.

6. Research Methodology

In this study a descriptive survey design will be adopted. According to Nworgu (2006), this design

aims at collecting data on, and describing in a systematic manner, the characteristics, features or facts about a given population. This study described certain variables in relation to a given population. The design will therefore be considered as appropriate because the study is the evaluation of security technology for proactive safety management in public schools Edo Senatorial District of Edo state involving principals and teachers. Questionnaires will be used to collect the information on the evaluation of security technology for proactive safety management in public schools Edo Senatorial District of Edo state. The choice of this approach is because it is seemed to be the appropriate method to collect data for the study.

6.1 Population of the Study

The Edo North Senatorial District has Six (6) Local Government Areas and constitutes roughly about 25 per cent of the entire population of Edo State. It is made up of the Afemai and Akoko-Edo people. The Afemai include the Etsako with 12.19 per cent and Owan with 7.43 per cent while the Ako-Edo speaking people constitute 5.70 per cent of the entire state population with an estimated population of 5 million in the Edo State. The sample population for this study is all the principals and teachers from all the public secondary schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

6.2 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample of this study consists of 155 respondents, made up of 15 primary school headmasters/headmistress, 20 school principals and 120 teachers, which was drawn from both public primary and secondary schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State through multi-stage sampling technique as the followings: simple random sampling technique will be used to drawn 3 LGAs education offices out of the 6 LGAs education offices in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State Nigeria. Also, the choice of using schools that have existed for more than ten years is to ensure that schools selected must have experienced series of security traits. Lastly, stratified sampling technique was used to draw the schools and the respondents for the study giving a total of 15 primary school headmasters/headmistress, 20 school principals and 120 teachers from both primary and secondary schools.

6.3 Instrument for Data Collection

Two instruments were used for data collection in the study namely; check list and questionnaire on the security technology for proactive safety management in public secondary schools. The structured questionnaire as the research instrument was administered to 155 respondents located in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

6.4 Validation of the Instrument

The instruments for this study were validated by three experts. A lecturer from the Faculty of Education University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria; a Chief Statistician from Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria, Iyanomo, Benin City and a senior lecturer from Delta State University, Abraka. Terms of validation of the instruments includes clarity, usability and suitability.

6.5 Method of Data Analysis

Research questions were subjected to descriptive statistics and Univariate ANOVA for the analyses.

7. Result and Discussions

Here we present results of data analysis based on three research questions and three hypotheses that guided the study. Results are presented individually in tables according to the order of the research questions and hypotheses. The sample size for this study is 155 but the number used for the study was 150. This was as a result of few questionnaires that was not collected from the field.

Table 1: Frequencies (F) and Percentages (%) of the respondents on available devices for the management of security in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State

Garget Items	Frequency	Percentage	Decision
Video surveillance	5	3.33	NA
Access control	23	15.33	NA
Central communication centre	43	28.67	NA
Staff and students ID cards	48	32.00	A
Visitors guidelines	50	33.33	NA
Burglar bars on the windows	80	53.33	A
Iron doors	79	52.67	A
A lightening system on sensitive areas	55	36.67	A
Security lightening, illuminating paths	36	24.00	A
Secured car parking	8	5.33	A
Manned control room with 24 hours operators	0	-	NA
Metal dictators	0	-	NA
Armed response service	0	-	NA
Sprinkler system to control fire outbreak	3	2.00	A
Perimeter fencing of the school	27	18.00	A

KEY: NA = Not available, A = Available

Table 1 shows that items such as Burglar Bars on the windows and Iron doors respectively had percentage of 53.33 and 52.67. This implies that less than the average of total respondents shows that there are Burglary proof and door protectors in their school building. The results show that the major gargets which suppose to be the main instrument for security is not really available in most of the public schools as shown in Table 1 above. Also, from Table 1, instruments such as manned control room with 24 hours operators, metal dictators, armed response service and sprinkler system/extinguishers to control to control fire outbreak are not available of the public schools. This study shows further, that 18 per cent of the public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State and perimeter fencing to protect pupils from being attacked during school hours. However, with respect to the benchmark of 50% for the whole items, it shows that the security devices for improving security in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

From the analysis however, it can be deduced that such security devices and facilities as manned control room with 24 hours operations, metal dictators and armed response services were not found available in some of the public schools, while a good number of them such as lightening system on sensitive areas, security lightening illuminating paths, secured car parking, video surveillance, access control, central communication centre, use of staff and students Identity cards, Visitors guidelines were found available but not in a functionable state due to non-availability of power supply in most of the areas where the public schools are located.

Table 2: Frequencies (F) and Percentages (%) of the respondents on available emergency responses plans for managing security threats in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State

Garget Items	Frequency	Percentage	Decision
Emergency response team	102	68.00	A
Fire extinguisher	46	30.67	NA
School ambulance	2	1.33	NA
Fire blanket	10	6.67	NA
Sand bucket	25	16.67	NA
Communication/recorder	95	63.33	A
Emergency medical bags	30	20.00	NA
Students counselling services	27	18.00	NA
Students Roll call	33	22.00	A
Bell signals	35	23.33	NA
Emergency PTA meetings	29	19.33	NA

KEY: NA = Not available, A = Available

Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages of items on the availability of response plans for combating security and safety threats in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State. With the benchmark of 50%, all items below 50 per cent are not generally available while others above the 50 per cent benchmark are found to be available in the school locations.

From the analysis, it can be seen that only few emergency responses plan such as emergency response team, students roll call and communication/recorder can be found in some of the public school in Edo North Senatorial

District. Other emergency response plans such as fire blanket, sand bucket, emergency medical bags, students counselling services and Bell signals are not found available in the public schools.

Table 3: Mean (X) and Standard Deviation (SD) ratings by the respondents on ways of improving security of staff in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District.

Items	SDp	XT	SDT	Xg	SDg	Decision
Having crisis response team development for emergencies	0.76	3.23	0.76	3.25	0.76	A
Having constant school site surveys	0.53	3.38	0.59	3.38	0.58	A
Building school safety expectations into school programmes	0.47	3.29	0.56	3.3	0.55	A
Building a network of parents and community volunteers in school compound for easy communication	0.57	3.27	0.69	3.28	0.68	A
Having a model school safety plan	0.72	3.24	0.75	3.24	0.73	A
Establishing security audits for checking damaged equipment and facilities that need repair	0.5	3.47	0.53	3.17	0.67	A
Training programmes for educators and principals on school safety and crisis response	0.99	2.89	0.92	3.23	0.93	A
Improving emergency equipment in schools	0.79	3.23	0.68	2.98	0.85	A
Providing ID card scanner for checking fake ID cards	0.87	3.2	0.7	3.34	0.72	A
Cluster Mean				3.24		A

KEY: NA = Not available, A = Available

Table 3 shows that all the items in the cluster from 26-34 have the grand means of teachers and principals' responses as 3.25, 3.38, 3.29, 3.28, 3.24, 3.17, 3.23, 3.98, 3.34 respectively and the cluster means as 3.24. This indicates that all the respondents agree in all the suggested ways of improving the security of staff in public schools.
From the analysis, it can be concluded that improving security of staff in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District can be done by introducing compulsory staff identity cards, code of conducts, staff development programmes, weekly/monthly staff briefings, fencing of staff quarter and school environment, conducting security surveys in schools and creating community mediation services with various schools management to help support school activities.

Hypotheses 1: There is no significance difference in the school size population and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools of Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

Table 4: Regression Analysis showing the effect of school population size and the security technology for proactive safety management.

Model	**B**	**Std error**	**T**	**Sig T**	**R**	**R2**	**F**
Constant	12.154	0.862	14.119	0.000	0.570	0.325	451.917
School population size	0.685	0.032	21.493	0.000			

p< 0.05

Table 4 shows that there is statistically significant effect of school population size on the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools. About 35% of the variation in the security technology is explained by school population size (R^2 = 0.325, p<0.05). The remaining 65% unexplained variation is largely due to variation in order variables outside the regression model. The regression model is statistically significant in terms of goodness of fit (F = 461.917, p<0.05). Therefore, we do not accept the null hypothesis.

Hypotheses 2: There is no significance difference in the school environment and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools of Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State.

Table 5: Regression Analysis of school environment and security technology for proactive safety management**.**

Model	**B**	**Std error**	**T**	**Sig T**	**R**	**R2**	**F**
Constant	17.606	0.819	21.501	0.000	0.455	0.207	250.695
School population size	0.500	0.032	15.833	0.000			

p< 0.05

The result in Table 5 reveals that school environment has significant effect on security technology for proactive safety management in public schools in Edo North Senatorial district of Edo state (t = 15.833, p<0.05). School environment accounted for about 23%. (R^2 = 0.207) of the total variation on the security technology of overall regression model is significant (F = 250.695, p < 0.05), hence we not accept the null hypothesis.

Hypotheses 3: There is no significance difference in the ownership of public/ private schools and the security technology for proactive safety management in public schools.

Table 6: Regression Analysis of the school ownership and security technology**.**

Model	B	Std error	T	Sig T	R	R2	F
Constant	16.233	0.835	19.429	0.000	0.485	0.236	512.426
School population size	0.542	0.032	17.188	0.000			

p< 0.05

Table 6 shows that school Ownership has significant effect on security technology (t = 17.188, p<0.05). About 23.6% (R2 = 0.236) of the total variation in security technology is explained by school ownership while the remaining 76.4% is largely due to variation in other variables outside the regression model. The regression model is statistically significant at 0.05 level. (F = 295.240, p<0.05). The null hypothesis is thereby not accepted.

8. Conclusion

This study found out that there is significant relationship between the school population size and the security technology for proactive management in public schools in Edo North Senatorial District of Edo State, Nigeria. It shows that when the school is over populated that a poor security management will not be able to control the pupils without some technology devices being put in place. Also, the study found out that there is significant relationship between the school environment and security technology for proactive safety management. The position of the public schools within the communities becomes a problem since most of them are sited outside the town and hence faced with more security challenges. In any business setting, the security is the core mandate that management holds with high esteem and enforced by the themselves. Therefore, this study has shown that owners of public schools (government or private) must ensure good security technology within their school premises to secure their pupils and staff from being attacked by hoodlums.

9. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study the following recommendations are made:

- In view of the fact that the security devices were not generally available in the public secondary schools, the school management should take the issue of security as a matter of priority and so allocate money for the purchasing of such safety and security building equipment as video surveillance (CCTV), sprinkler system to control fire damage, metal dictators, iron doors, employ armed response services and secured car parking.
- Since emergency response plans/devices for managing security threats are virtually unavailable in the schools, school management should introduce such emergency response plans as holding emergency PTA meetings, making students occasional roll calls, establishing student counselling services, having response team and training the student by bell signals. Management should also put in place such emergency response devices as, fire extinguishers, fire blanket, sand buckets, providing off site evacuation, emergency medical bags and school ambulance.
- The school management should adopt ways of improving security of staff by introducing staff identity cards with seals to avoid fake, introducing staff code of conduct, school counselling services and providing conflict resolution services to keep a positive school climate. More to this, the school management can fence staff quarters, conduct security surveys in the schools and staff quarters in order to control the movement of weapons and can always organize staff development programmes.
- School management should make arrangements on improving students' security, establishing such measures as having constant student briefing and drills especially on security matters. Also measures such as having constant searches of student's lockers to seize weapons and dangerous objects having badges attached to student's uniform and implementing discipline management by the school authority to control threatening behaviours. Furthermore, the school management should provide the list of contraband materials which should not be found with students, have constant audit, supervision of both in the hostels and classrooms and also have

security officers in the school entrances to control influx of hoodlums.

- Management should provide clear measures be appropriate measures for managing security of school plants such as having crisis response team for emergencies, having constant school site surveys, building school safety expectations into the school programmes, having a model school safety plan. The school management should also establish security audits for checking damage equipment and facilities, training programmes for educators and principals on school safety and crises response and improving emergency equipment in schools.
- Since security is paramount for effective teaching and learning in the school the management need to adopt threat prevention strategies to keep the environment safe. This can be done by adopting crime prevention through environmental design. The reason for this is to increase the ability to monitor and prevent delinquent behaviours. Other strategies are, having a perimeter fencing of the entire school, having adequate lightening in the school compound and purchase of current communication device to pass information quick. There should be constant maintenance of school facilities in order to forestall breakdown, establishing school patroller programme, having a written down safety policy, strong discipline management and developing school-community-government partnership to help the school security agents.

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Effect of Computer Aided Instruction on Students' Academic Achievement in Technical Drawing in Secondary Schools in Edo State

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Abstract. This study was at aimed investigating Effect of Computer Aided Instruction on Students' Academic Achievement in Technical Drawing in Secondary Schools in Edo State. A quasi-experimental design was adopted for the study. The population of the study consisted of one hundred and thirty-five (135) SS, 2 Technical Drawing Students in Four Selected Secondary Schools in Oredo metropolis. The sample comprised one hundred and five (105) students of two intact classes purposively sampled from two (2) of the four schools. Technical Drawing Achievement Test (TDAT) was used for data collection. A reliability coefficient of 0.77 was obtained using test-retest reliability technique. Three research questions guided the study and two hypotheses were tested; Data collected was analyzed using mean and standard deviation for the research questions and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)was used for the hypotheses at .05 level of significance. Findings revealed that students taught with CAI method have higher mean scores in TDAT than those taught with traditional teaching method. It was also revealed that there was a significant difference in the post-test mean scores between male and female students taught with the traditional method. However, there was no significant difference between male and female taught with CAI method. It was recommended, that technical drawing teachers should be encouraged to adopted the use of computer aided instruction and more females students should be encouraged to offer Technical Drawing at Secondary School level.

Keywords: Computer Aided Instruction, Academic Achievement, Technical Drawing, Traditional Method, Edo State of Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Education is a major tool used to develop the society through various training offered at different level of institutions. Such training is expected to equip is recipients to become better citizens who are able to contribute meaningfully to the society. According to Federal Republic of Nigeria, (FRN) (2013), the goals of education are the development of appropriate skills, mental physical, and social abilities and competencies to empower the individual to live in and contribute positively to the society. The extent to which these goals are achieved is determined by students' achievement in examinations conducted by various examination bodies. In recent years, reports of secondary schools and technical colleges students' performances in external examination conducted by these bodies have not been encouraging. According to Aworanti (2013) the goals of technical education might not be achieved with the rate of decline of secondary school students' achievement in science and technical related subjects most especially in technical drawings in external examinations.

Technical drawing is one of the technical education subject; it is practiced as a subject/module at various levels of Nigerian educational system such as post-primary schools and tertiary institutions. Technical drawing stands as a subject from the senior secondary school (SSS1-SSS3) and it is a subject designed with curriculum objectives for senior secondary school students which foster pre-vocational orientation in technology, medium of communication among technologist, engineers, architectures among others and is widely used in many fields and professions. The subject teaches how human beings can be useful in planning and development of our society's infrastructure. However, within the context of

technical education Technical drawing has been identified as a very important science subject and its importance in science and technological development of any nation has been widely reported.

Okorie (2010) asserted that technical drawing is essentially the universal language which technicians, engineers, craftsmen and industrialist used to communicate. The author further stated that technical drawing can be understand correctly by technicians, engineers, designers craftsmen, manufacturers and those who have interest in making and reading it. The usuability of technical drawing transcends cultures and languages and for any country to progress technologically, therefore, it is essential that a country develops the training of its citizen in the language of the technology which is technical drawing.

Technical drawing is a subject that is being offered in most science and technical oriented courses in the senior secondary schools and this call for the need in teaching technical drawing effectively in our schools. A systematic integration of variety of instructional method have been used in teaching and learning of technical drawing and various methods are adopted so as to improve the learning and in increase the level of high performance of the students' academic achievement and productivity as well as the methodology employed in teaching technical drawing in schools.

In teaching students, various methods are used, some of which are, lecture method, questioning method discussion, play-way method, problem posing method, demonstration method, field trip/excursion method dramatization method among others. Ezeji (2008) posited, that effective teaching may include high level of creativity in analyzing, synthesizing and presenting knowledge in new and effective ways. Various subjects have methods of imparting to the learners and these are the criteria to be considered in teaching and learning process.

Technical Drawing is a subject that students find difficulty to pass because it requires psychomotor skills (FRN, 2009). Psychomotor skills in technical drawing involve activities that need coordination of finger and hand movement as a result of cognitive planning. The activities might include several task such as handling the pencils, manipulation of drawing instruments; sliding the T-square, set-squares, ruler, and proper use of eraser. The issue of poor academic achievement of students in technical drawing has been blamed on teachers' method adopted in teaching the subject.

According to Osinen and Nwoji (2016) teachers are posed with problems on how to use new technology and keep up with teaching methods of various vocational training. However, the effective implementation of any technical education curriculum depends on the quality of teachers and their ability to effectively manipulate, operate and use tools and equipment that are available for the training of the students, (Olaitan, Igbo, Nwanchukwu, Onyenachi and Ekong 1999). Consequently, to eradicate the challenges of traditional teaching method that have not been able to improve students' achievement in technical drawing, Ahmet (2008) suggested brining in new technologies which play an important role in the development of the education process to safeguard students against the negative effect of rote memory based learning. Example of such new technology is Computer Aided Instruction (CAI). The use of computer is now the order of the day. Adedokun (2004) posited that, it is so firmly established throughout all sectors of education and training that it can be claimed they constitute not only technology education but technology of education and training. Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) referred to as a self-learning technique usually offline/online, which involves the interaction of students with programmed instructional materials. (CAI) is an interactive instructional technique whereby a computer is used to present the instructional materials and monitor the learning that takes place.

According to Traylor (2013), computers are used in preparing "electronic" presentations using computer presentation programmes and LCD projectors. He further stressed that many schools have incorporated interactive computer-aided instruction into teaching and learning programme to provide students opportunities to master specific educational objectives or standards. The potential benefits of Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) cannot be underestimated in the contemporary world. There are abundance of established findings on the instructional value of computer. According to Orisebiyi (2007) CAI is an effective instructional strategy in science and related subjects. Also, Yusuf and Afolabi (2010) asserted that the use of computer assisted instruction CAI as a supplement to discussion method, produced higher achievements by the learners than using discussion method only.

There are now several CAI packages available for graphics design and learning which include CorelDraw, Auto TED, Archi CAD, Auto CAD among others. The most suitable software for a drawing and construction in technical drawing is

Auto CAD. Auto CAD is an interactive drafting software package developed for construction of objects on a graphics display screen. The use of this software for construction is important in terms of neatness, fastness and accuracy unlike the traditional teaching method. (Pencil and paper work) It uses primitive entities such as lines, polylines, circles, arcs and text as the foundation for more complex object. Auto CAD is one of the most powerful computer aided design CAD software which can perform nearly any graphics task. However, Heidi (2016) noted that graphics display screen leads to improvement in cognitive, perceptual and motor skills, which will assist in anchoring the students into the reality for the use of visual construction in which students ability can be improved. Software packages can be used to encourage discovery and experimentation in classroom and their visualization feature can be effectively employed in teaching to generate conjectures (Lavicza, 2006). Most technical drawing concepts are difficult to impart to the student in traditional teaching method but only need certain feature of teaching of technology to bring the lesson closely to the learners; the features to propel these are present in Auto CAD packages.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Advancement in technology has influenced all sphere of human lives and all sectors of the economy positively. Technology has made work easier and faster. In the educational sector for example, technology are employed in the areas of teaching and learning, for generating, keeping and retrieving of information. However many workers including teachers seems not to have the knowledge and skills for using the new technology and method for their daily work routine. It was observed that Technical Drawing teachers are still using one or a combination of two or more conventional teaching methods to deliver their lessons. This teaching method seems not to encourage students participation in the teaching-learning process. Consequently, students are not likely to have mastery of the subject matter. This could have resulted to poor academic achievement in technical drawing over the years. However, one of the objectives of educational programme is to enhance students' academic excellent. A number of studies been conducted, it was discovered that students find it difficult to understand technical drawing due to factors among which teaching method is a major concern. Drawing isometric from orthographic and converting orthographic to isometric components is one of the areas students find difficult to understand (National Examination Council 2010, 2012). Technical Drawing is a subject that students find difficult to pass because it requires psychomotor skills (FRN, 2009). Psychomotor skills in technical drawing involve activities that need coordination of finger and hand movement as a result of cognitive planning. The issue of poor academic achievement of students in technical drawing has been blamed on teachers' method adopted in teaching-learning process.

Computer Aided Instruction CAI are relevant in teaching and learning process of technical drawing because students can gain knowledge and skills by watching procedures and demonstration on the screen of the computer. A lots of computer software have been developed and incorporated with some drawing instruments in such a way that each tool can be picked where there is need for it by experts to teach technical drawing. Inspite of all the advantages of using CAI, most teachers of Technical Drawing use discussion methods to teach the subject. It is therefore, imperative to determine the effects of Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) on students' academic achievement in technical drawing in secondary schools in Edo State.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to determine the effect of Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) on students' academic achievement in technical drawing in Edo State. Specifically, the study is to determine the following:

- The difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of students taught technical drawing with Computer Aided Instruction and those taught with the traditional method.
- The difference between the post-test mean scores of male and female students taught technical drawing with traditional method.
- The difference between the post-test mean scores of male and female students taught technical drawing using Computer Aided Instruction method.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- What is the difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of students taught Technical Drawing using computer aided instruction and those taught using the traditional method?
- What is the difference between the post-test mean scores of male and female students

taught Technical Drawing using traditional method?
- What is the difference between the post-test mean scores of male and female students taught technical drawing using Computer Aided Instruction method?

1.4 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at .05 level of significance.
- There is no significant difference between the post-test mean scores of students taught technical drawing using Computer Aided Instruction and those taught using traditional method.
- There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students taught technical drawing with CAI and those taught with traditional method.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are of immense benefits to all students, technical drawing teachers, government, curriculum planners, parents and the general public.

It enable students acquire technical graphic skills in interpreting and drawing of building plans. The acquisition of these skills enhances students' achievement and thus reduces persistent failure in public examination and teacher made test.

Students' improvement in academic achievement in technical drawing as a result of the use of computer aided instruction which helps the teacher to improve on their instructional delivery system in the teaching-learning process.

It is obvious that students' academic improvement in technical drawing is an evidence that the resources committed to teaching technology education by government were judiciously utilized this will encourage the government to be more committed in funding education.

Male and female students' academic achievement in technical drawing is as a result of the use of CAI in helping the curriculum planers to incorporate computer aided instruction teaching strategy into teachers programme for effective delivery of instruction in the classroom.

Finally, continuous students' academic improvement could bring about improved national economy in the sense that, such improvement will produce graduates who are knowledgeable, skilled and committed to their jobs. Curriculum planners would therefore include CAI so that there would be improved delivery of instruction.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study focused on the effect to Computer Aided Instruction on students' academic achievement in Technical Drawing in Secondary Schools in Edo State, specifically Senior Secondary in Benin metropolis. The study was delimited to all (SS2) students offering technical drawing in the selected schools. The study focuses on traditional teaching method, computer aided instruction, students' academic achievement, students gender and problem associated with the use of CAI in Technical Drawing.

2. Methodology

The research was carried out using quasi-experimental design. It involved two intact groups: Computer aided instruction and traditional teaching method with pre-test and post-test for both groups, According to Nworgu (2015), Quasi-experimental study does not allow for randomization of subjects to experimental and control groups. This design was considered suitable for the study because there was no room for randomization, intact classes were used to avoid disruption of normal classes lessons.

The population of the study was 135 students currently in (SS2) in Edo State. However, the sample size for the study was 105 (SS2) technical drawing student for 2018/2019 academic session. Edo College Model Secondary School and Uniben Demonstration School were purposively selected out of the schools offering technical drawing in Benin metropolis. Edo College Model Secondary has a total 77 SS2 technical drawing students while Uniben Demonstration has a total 28 SS2 technical students which consist of Nineteen (19) males and Nine (9) females.

The instrument used for data collection was Technical Drawing Achievement Test (TDAT). The test is a multiple test items with options A-D. A pilot test was conducted in neighbouring Ondo State, using Adeyemi College of Education Demonstration Secondary School Akure. The score obtained from the first and second administration were correlated using pearson product moment correlation coefficient formular. A correlation coefficient of 0.77 was obtained.

3. Method of Data Analysis

Research Question 1: What is the difference between the mean scores of students taught Technical Drawing using Computer Aided Instruction and those taught using traditional method?

Summary of mean achievement of Experimental group and control group

Table 1: Table of pre-test and post-test mean scores of experimental and control group.

N Group	Pre-test		Pro-test Mean		Mean SD	Mean		SD	Gain	difference
Experimental		77	50.82		4.58	68.73		5.06	17.91	13.34
Control	28	50.82		4.60	53.39		4.58	4.57		

Source: *Field study, 2019.*

Table 1 shows that the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the experimental group are 50.82 and 68.73 respectively, while those of control group are 50.82 and 53.39 respectively. The table shows that the mean gain for experimental and control group are 17.91 and 4.57 respectively. The post-test mean difference of 13.34 shows that those taught technical drawing using CAI method performed better than those taught with traditional method.

Research Question 2: What is the difference between the post-test mean achievement scores of male and female students taught Technical Drawing using traditional method?

Table 2: Table of post-test mean score of male and female student.

Gender	N	Mean		SD	Mean	Difference
Male		19	57.84	2.65	7.62	
Female		9	50.22	3.27		

Source: Field study, 2019.

Table 2 shows that post-test mean score of male and female students in the control group are 57.84 and 50.22 respectively. The result show that the post-test mean difference between male and female students taught Technical Drawing using traditional teaching method is 7.62 and the male students performed better than the female students.

Research Question 3: What is the difference between the post-test mean achievement of male and female students taught Technical Drawing using Computer Aided Instruction?

Summary of mean achievement of post-test between male and female in the Experimental group.

Table 3: Table of mean difference between the post-test score of male and female students

Gender	N	Mean		SD	Mean	Difference
Male		62	68.77	5.11	0.24	
Female		15	68.53	5.00		

Source: *Field study, 2019.*

Table 3 shows that the post-test scores of male and female students in the experimental group are 68.77 and 68.53 respectively. The result shows that the post-test mean difference between male and female students taught technical drawing using CAI technique is 0.24 and their achievement were relatively the same.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1: There is no significant difference between the post-test mean score of students taught Technical Drawing using Computer Aided instruction and those taught using traditional method.

Table 4: Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) achievement between the Experimental and control group.

Source	Type III Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Corrected model	6030.8469	2	3015.423	2294.156	.000	
Intercept	63.639	1	63.639	48.417	.000	
Pretest	2379.883	1	2379.883	1810.632	.000	
Group	3652.828	1	3652.828	2779.097	.000	Rejected
Error	134.068	102	1.314			
Total	452133.000	105				
Corrected Total	6164.914	105				Rejected

Significant at F< .05
Source: *Field study 2019.*

Table 4 show that the F-value of the group is 2770.097, while the P-value is .000. Testing at alpha value of .05, the null hypothesis is rejected since the P-value is less than the alpha value. Thus, there is significant difference between the mean achievement of students taught Technical Drawing using Computer Aided Instruction method and those taught with traditional method.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the post-test mean achievement of male and female students taught Technical Drawing using Computer Aided Instruction method.

Table 5: Table of ANCOVA of male and female students with CAI and those taught with traditional method

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	T-value	P-value	Decision
Male	62	68.77	5.11				
				75	.164	.87	Retained
Female	15	68.53	5.00				

Table 5 shows that the mean score of male and female students are 68.77 and 68.53 respectively. The table reveals that the t-value is .164 while the P-value is .870. Since, the P-value is greater than the alpha value of .05, the null hypothesis is therefore retained. Thus, there is no significant difference between the post-test mean achievement of male and female students taught technical drawing using Computer Aided Instruction method.

4. Discussion of Results

The analysis of the result of the achievement test shown on table 1 indicates that experimental group performed better than the control group in post-test. Also, the analysis of covariance of the post-test mean performance presented on table 4 confirmed, that the difference between the mean performance of students in both group in the post-test is significant. This significant difference is attributed to the treatment. These findings showed that CAI method has proved to be more effective in enhancing student academic achievement in technical drawing than traditional teaching method. This findings is in line with the work of Lemut, Pedemonte & Robboti (2010) and Asiloku (2016) who in their separate studies found that constructing object with CAI provides students with deeper understanding of geometric construction than the traditional teaching method. Furthermore, UNESCO (2012) in ascertaining the effectiveness of requisite facilities especially ICT-based packages explained that computer technology provide power tools to support the shift to student-centered learning, and is capable of creating more interactive and engaging learning environment for teachers and learners, and as well improves students' performance.

Secondly, the analysis of the result of the achievement test of students in control group on table 2 indicated that male students perform better than the female students in post-test. This findings is in consonance with the findings of Hayrie (2003) that gender Schema tends to relate most of the technology trades or subjects to masculine gender and there is a differential performance of sexes in technology education.

Finally, the analysis of the result of the achievement test of students in experimental group shown on table 3 indicated that performance of both sexes were relatively the same due to the effect of CAI. Also the t-test analysis of the post-test mean performance presented on table 5 confirmed that there is no significant difference between the mean performance of male and female students taught Technical drawing using CAI method. This implies that CAI approach is not gender bias. The finding agree with the work of Ogbuanya and Usoro (2013) whose

research indicated that there is no significant difference between boys and girls who learnt technical drawing with Auto CAD.

5. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that Computer Aided Instruction CAI method is a better and more viable teaching method compared to the traditional teaching method and irrespective of the gender, it can be concluded that, Computer Aid Instruction would be highly effective if employed by technical drawing teachers in enhancing teaching activities, students' performance, mastery of basic knowledge and skills.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- The use of CAI for instructional facilitation should be employed by teachers and administrators to enhance meaningful learning in technical drawing.
- Computer assisted materials should be developed on topics that may need some extra support to teach.
- Technical drawing teachers should be trained in instructional development and implementation with use of CAI and related technologies for effective teaching.
- Incorporation of technology based teaching techniques should be made compulsory most especially in science and technology based subjects.

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Part Five
Gender Studies

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Assessment of Survival Sex Health Implications among Female Students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions

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Abstract. Socio-sexuality of students in tertiary institutions tends to pose major threats to life and the future of the country as students involved in reckless sexual activities. Therefore, this study assessed the health implications of survival sex among female students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions. A descriptive survey research design was used with 400 female respondents selected through a multi-stage sampling procedure. A self-structured questionnaire titled "Survival Sex Health Implications questionnaire" SSHIQ with reliability index of 0.87 was used to collect for this study. Two (2) research questions formulated were analyzed using descriptive statistics of frequency count (f), percentage (%), mean, standard deviation and inferential statistics of chi-square (x^2). From the research findings it was discovered that survival sex health implications were significant in all tertiary institutions, amongst the health implications were unwanted pregnancy and illegal abortion; the health implications were significant in both public and private tertiary institutions. It was therefore recommended that campaign against survival sex should be floated by government and nongovernmental organizations through media.

Keywords: Survival Sex, Sexuality, Health implications, Survival sex health implications

1. Introduction

Public opinion polls have consistently shown that premarital sex is wrong and dangerous to health, resulting in abortions, teenage mothers and sexually transmitted. Sexual activities among students have been reported to be increasing worldwide. Several studies in sub-Saharan Africa have also documented high and increasing premarital sexual activities among university students (Ashimolowo & Otufale, 2012; Bassuk, 2011). Pre-marital sex is sexual activity practiced by persons who are unmarried and it has been considered taboo in some cultures and sin in numerous religions (Bellis, Hughes, Perkins & Bennett, 2013).

Survival sex is referred to as the trading sex for food and other basic needs. The term is used by sex trade, poverty researchers, and aid workers. It is common throughout the world, among internally displaced people (Dowse, Soldatic, Spangaro & van Toorn, 2016; Flowers, 2010). This has been extensively studied in countries like United States, Canada, and South Africa. Experts observed that people are motivated themselves to engaged in **Survival sex**, some see it as a normal job, and while majority want to get out of the hook owning to the potential for disease and dangerous clients. They further observed that people do not always see survival sex as exploitative; rather, they sometimes characterize it as the beginning of a potential relationship. One of the strongest predictors of engagement in survival sex is a prior experience of sexual abuse. Though, people engage in survival sex when they have no other means of survival (Hope Ditmore, 2010; Howard & Linda, 2015).

Females have viable alternative means of paying for the basic needs of themselves and their loved ones, even when they have job option. It is immoral because it hurt psychologically. The experience for women looking to survive is traumatizing; very few females make the survival sex as a choice freely because it is typically filled with pimps, sadists, psychopaths, drug addicts, violent criminals and disease (Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014; United Nations, 2010). Female involvement in survival sex

is sometimes linked to the socio economic status of the family, education and incomes of the parents, personal interest, and peer pressure leading to out-of-wedlock birth. The out-of wedlock birth potentially reduce young women education, career and job opportunity, and damage their prospects in marriage (Ashimolowo & Otufale, 2012; Bassuk, 2011).

Survival sex is, quite simply, exchanging one's body for basic subsistence needs, including clothing, food, and shelter. While estimates vary, most figures put the homeless youth population in the U.S. around 1.5 million. These are kids under the age of 18 who were often either kicked out of their homes because of dwindling financial resources or ran away to escape an abusive, volatile environment. Once on the streets, these teens rapidly find that clothing, food, and shelter are far from guaranteed. Without any money or the ability to get a job, many are forced to rely on their bodies as the only commodity they possess (Bellis, Hughes, Perkins & Bennett, 2013; Dowse, Soldatic, Spangaro & Van Toorn, 2016). Survival sex, then, is just one sociological expression of the complete lack of agency among adolescent runaways. It's not a way of life in and of itself, but rather a single permutation of lives almost entirely determined by social and economic powerlessness. Survival sex and teenage prostitution are not autonomous phenomena; they're seamlessly woven into the fabric of a near-invisible world where the human body is the main form of currency. The neglectful parents, rapists, criminals, and rapist-criminal-parents make survival sex possible and unavoidable (Flowers, 2010; Hope Ditmore, 2010).

Female students who engage in survival sex are more likely to suffer negatively from long-term physical, emotional, social and moral effects, than students who shun it. Howard & Linda (2015) and Phillips & Vandenbroek, (2014) explained that in contemporary time, Nigeria youths have gained in the sex revolution in Europe and America. The impact of alien ideas and cultures, mass communication and conditions of urban life on the behaviour and attitude of Nigeria adolescents cannot be over emphasized (Howard & Linda, 2015; Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014 and United Nations (2010). There were extensive interest, inquiry and curiosity in premarital sexual activities. The youths are exposed to sexual stimuli in magazines, television and the movies to a greater extent than before, thereby creating a general trend towards liberated attitude and values that encourage open discussion on sexuality (Dowse, Soldatic, Spangaro & Van Toorn, 2016; Flowers, 2010; and United Nations, 2010).

It is obvious that many females students who are not married are using wedding ring, some are with babes that are not known at home. Many of them live a dual life, their life at school different to the one at home, unknown to some parents some female students cohabit at school. Despite the government effort to reduce the spread of STIs, the disease still remains a scourge even among young adults, (Ashimolowo & Otufale, 2012; Bassuk, 2011, and Bellis, Hughes, Perkins & Bennett, 2013). In fact, some female students use some things in the school which they cannot used at how. It is on this context that the study assessed the health implications of survival sex among female students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions. From the foregoing, it is clear that survival sex is a complex social problem that is further complicated by the host of preconceived ideas, prejudices and attitudes that are deeply ingrained in the public mind. This study was undertaken in Ogun State in order to throw more light on the nature of survival sex and its health implications in Nigeria.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The purpose of the study is to identify health implications of survival sex among female students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions.

1.3 Research Questions

- What are the health implications of Survival Sex among female students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions?
- Is Survival Sex health implications significant among female students in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions?

2. Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was used for this study. The population of this study comprised all females in Ogun State Tertiary Institutions, 20 institutions were identified based on 2017 JAMB. The simple random sample techniques was used to select eight (8) institutions out of twenty (20) institutions, while accidental sampling techniques was used to select 50 students from each tertiary institution. 400 sample size was used was selected through a multi stage sampling procedure. In order to have a standardized instrument for this study, a self-structured questionnaire was designed in line with the identified variables. The instrument with title *"Survival Sex Health Implications questionnaire"*

were that female students involved in survival sex and their involvement in survival sex post health problems like unwanted pregnancy, Illegal Abortion, STIs, Harmful Use of Alcohol and substance, Depression, Multiple sexual Partner, Victim of Ritual, Victim of kidnapping, and Self harm, which are social, mental and physical problems that could inflict an eternal dent their life.

6. Recommendations

Based on the outcome of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Governments, NGOs, and religious communities should focus on sexual education to reduce the rate at which female students supply sex to aid their survival.
- The institution authority should enforce the expulsion order on female students that involved in survival sex.
- Rehabilitation and reformation of the survival sex victims should be a critical step to be examined first by the government and relevant agencies when proposing of strategies to combat survival sex among female students.
- Government should abolish the legitimization of survival sex and its promotion as an employment alternative among female students by putting age and institution barrier on it.
- The institution authority should not tolerate survival sex within and outside school settings any convicted students that buy or sell sex either skillfully or not should be sanction.

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An Appraisal of Rights – Based Approach to Achieving Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women and Girls in Nigeria.

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Abstract. Nigeria is a member of the United Nations community, she had a global index score of 46 in the Sustainable Development Goals and ranked 36 in gender equality despite the fact that she was a signatory to policy document on gender equality of which convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is one. Her human development index is low with high level of poverty most especially among women. 50% of Nigerians between the ages of 15-64 are of working age and 45.5% of women are employed but their employment does not deliver them from poverty as almost twice as many women as men live below the poverty line. In line with her ratification of CEDAW, and the Beijing platform for action (BPFA) she signed the National Policy on Women in year 2000 and further review of the document produced the National Gender Policy in 2006. All of which are yet to deliver desired results in the achievement of gender equality and significant human development. It is recommended among others that the domestication of gender related documents, good funding and the involvement of all will bring about a big difference from the present level to a desired level of development

Keywords: Right-base, gender equality, empowerment, appraisal

1. Introduction

Nigeria is a signatory to Gender Equality and the empowerment of women and girls which is number five of the seventeen Sustainable Development Goals targeted from 2015 – 2030, and, resulting from a review of the Millennium Development Goals. Globally, females form half of the Population while in Nigeria they are about 49.4% of the population (National Bureau of Statistics, 2019 in Ebuka Onyiji April 20, 2019). The coming together of one hundred and ninety-three countries to deliberate on the Sustainable Development Goals in which gender equality embraces the other sixteen goals is enough evidence that achieving gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls is not to be toyed with.

Women's right to equality in economic, social, legal and political life was highlighted in the National Policy on Women in year 2000 supporting a thirty per cent representation of women in all spheres of life including, legislative and executive arm of government but inequalities remain pervasive. This was replaced by the National Gender Policy, which was drafted in year 2006 with protocols, conventions and amendments of the constitution also supporting the provision of a quota system for women's empowerment in all spheres, yet the scenario has been very pathetic. Below is the scenario:

1.1 The Socio-Economic and Political Scenario in Nigeria

- Nigeria ranks 103 out of 113 countries in Education Development Index (EDI, 2015) that is, in primary enrolment, adult literacy, and gender inequality and survival to grade 5.
- Poor governance and underfunding of the education sector negatively affect education outcomes (World Bank SCD, 2018:71).
- Out- of -school rate is higher among girls (32%) than boys (28%).
- Completion rates of primary education for boys is about 80% while, it is 66% for girls.
- Access to schooling increased among more affluent quintiles but declined among the bottom quintile. This reduces the human

capital of vulnerable groups. (World Bank SCD, 2018:31).
- 40% of adult Nigerians are illiterates and females are more prominent (Ayimoro, 2017).
- Of the female adult illiterates, only 13% are in the south (World Bank SCD, 2018: ix).
- Over two thirds of girls aged 15-19 cannot read while it is less than 10% in the south.
- Inequality also exist among states and tribes in human development indices which is aggravated by insecurity and insurgency
- Only 3% of girls complete secondary school in the north.
- 76% of girls are married by age 18 in the North West (World Bank SCD, 2018:20).
- Till date, the majority of Chibok girls and Liya Sharibu are still in Boko Haram captivity.
- Women with disability are marginalised from schools and skills acquisition programmes.
- The net primary school enrolment rates for boys and girls are 70% and 58% respectively. (World Bank SCD,2018;ix)
- The UN estimates 13.2m Nigerian children as out- of- school.
- Nigerian Ministry of Education puts it as 16m.
- Street children (Almajeris) abound
- Instruction and teaching are done under trees and dilapidated buildings.
- Nearly half of all children under five are malnourished in the north- east, compared to 22% in the south- east.
- There is serious infrastructural deficit in Gombe, Bauchi, Adamawa and Kebbi.
- Teachers with basic teaching skills are lacking.
- Internally displaced camps (IDPs) through insurgency causes fear and trauma.
- Retention level is very low.
  (Channel Television 10/12/19 10 p.m. Network news)
- One third of Nigerians live in poverty (World Bank, 2015 vii & ix)
- Almost twice as many women as men live below the poverty line.
- 50% of Nigerians, 15- 64 years are of working age (World Bank, 2015)
- Only 8% of the adult population are employed in the formal sector. Men are more employed in some form 56.4% than women 47.3% (ILOSTAT, 2018)
- Women are characterized by low skills thus, trapped in low productivity and subsistence activities (World Bank, 2015: viii).
- 45.5% of the Nigerian labour force are females(World Bank,2019)
- Males dominate engineering, banking, veterinary, medicine and university lecturing
- While majority of females are school teachers, nurses and secretaries
- 73.15% of women are involved in farm activities while, 26.85% are engaged in manufacturing, sales and services.
- Women with disability find it difficult to be employed as majority lack education and good skills.
- Women provide an estimated 60-80% labour in agriculture but have less access to resources and a limited decision- making power over their plots (Ekerebi & Adeola, 2017:2).
- They have limited access to land, inputs, labour, and extension services thereby, producing less than men.
- There is a gendered harvest value gap (World Bank SCD,2018:20)
- Women in Nigeria operate more in the informal sector economy without adopting advanced business practices because they are often constrained by household, related factors (World Bank Group, 2019:9).
- Although, more than thirty-two million people have online access since 2012 in Nigeria, there is a large gender gap affecting women negatively, as many women are unconnected digitally and could not afford mobile phones(World Bank, 2018:42)
- Only 33.3% of females use formal banking system.
- 25.8% are users of other formal or informal Services.
- 40.9% do not bank their resources(K4D, 2019)
- Nigeria ranked 187 out 190 countries in global health ranking (WHO, 2017).
- The reproductive health situation in Nigeria is poor.
- A high percentage of girls engage in early sexual behaviour, early and forced marriage and pregnancy (Cortez et al, 2015)
- Total fertility rate is 5.7
- Till date, majority of married women do not have rights or voice on their sexual reproductive health rather, it is determined by the husband.
- Maternal mortality rate is 545 deaths per 100,000 live births stemming from

hemorrhage, infection, unsafe abortion, hypertensive disease of pregnancy and obstructed labour (Ayimoro, 2017)
- Contraceptive prevalence is 13%
- HIV prevalence is 4.4%
- Female Genital Mutilation and cutting persist especially, in rural Nigeria
- There are three tiers of health care delivery in Nigeria- the Primary Health Care (PHC) which is close to the grassroots, the State hospitals and Federal Hospitals.
- Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH) is expected to be provided at all tiers of hospitals in Nigeria, the PHC which is closer to the rural areas and majority of people in Nigeria is lacking in the provision of major SRH. These include:
- Cervical cancer screening.
- Human papillomavirus vaccine.
- Imaging for breast cancer screening (mammography)
- Management of abortion complications
- Emergency cesarean section
- Permanent method of family planning like vasectomy and bilateral tubal
- Gender roles and patriarchal tendencies inhibit access to SRH services (Adamu, 2019 p.5&6)
- Also, in State and Federal hospitals, SRH are not readily available because of lack of manpower and infrastructural facilities
- Politically, the representation of women have continue to dwindle. For instance, the 2019 elections had only 4.17% women representatives at the National Assembly as against 5.65% in 2015 elections. Nigerian women have never attained 10% representation in elective positions.
- 11% of women are raped in twelve months in Nigeria (Channels Television 10 o'clock p.m. News, December 8, 2019)
- Perpetrators of rape and sexual violence are seldom brought to book because of shame on victims who hardly report, tradition and patriarchal stereotypes
- Inadequate data of prosecuted cases of rape and sexual violence is evident.
- The law on the punishment of rape is too ambiguous
- Wife battery persist

The above scenario clearly implies that Nigeria is far away from achieving gender equality which entails:

(i) Ending all forms of discrimination against all women and girls

(ii) Eliminating all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

(iii) Eliminating all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female gender mutilation.

(iv) Recognising and valuing unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

(v) Ensuring women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.

(vi) Ensuring universal access to sexual & reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing platform for Action and the outcome of their reviewed Conferences.

- Undertaking reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws
- Enhancing the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.
- Adopting and strengthening sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all woman and girls at all levels.

Metadata-Goal5pdf updated on 3rd of March, 2016.
http://wbl.worldbank.org/abonties
http://www.genderindex.org/www.pwc.com/global

2. Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls as a right

Gender equality is a basic right. This is implicit in the right to education, health, economy, culture, religion,

justice and decision- making. Globally, gender based discrimination is a huge problem but more pronounced in African countries including Nigeria, where patriarchy pervades the society even among the educated and so called elites.

It is in recognition of the fact that the female has been oppressed significantly and the recognition of the violation of her fundamental human rights that brought about feminists movement with the attendant instrument for protecting and promoting women's rights which will in turn empower them.

Nigeria is a member of the United Nations. She is a signatory to the relevant international instruments, treaties and conventions in which she ratified development instruments to eliminate gender discrimination. Some of the instruments include Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and the Beijing platform from which the National Policy on Women emanated in 2000 and the present National Gender Policy which was drafted in 2006.

CEDAW is a wide range bill of rights to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women and enhance human rights of all. The international stance is that all member nations should:

- Embody the principle of equality of men and women in their national constitutions.
- Adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women.
- Establish legal protection of the rights of women on equal basis with men, and to ensure through competent national tribunal and other public institutions, the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination.
- Refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure the public authorities shall act in conformity with this obligation.
- Take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organisation or enterprise.
- Repeal all national provisions which constitute discrimination against women (Emakhu, 2013 p776)

As signatory to the above policy document, it is expected that its recognition must be implicit on its compliance and the enactment of laws to the achievement of gender equality as a right with its attendant punishment for violators as a basic human right. But, this is still a white elephant project in Nigeria.

3. Rights-Based Approach and Nigeria's Gender Equality

The official document on human rights issues as it relates to Nigerian women, otherwise known as National Policy on Women was signed by former President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2000 to stem gender inequalities, stereotypes, patriarchy, originating from cultural norms and colonialism in order to move Nigerian people towards socio-economic development, equity, justice and improvement in their quality of life. Chapter II section 17 subsection 2 of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria states that:
Every citizen shall have equality of rights, obligation and opportunity before the law.
The National Policy on Women thus, documents strategies to be utilized in enforcing this right through the objective of:

- Ensuring that the principles and provision as contained in the Nigerian constitution are effectively enforced.
- Mainstreaming gender perspective in all policies and programmes based on a systematic gender analysis at all levels of government.

Government thus, reiterate her commitment to the full integration of women into development process to enhance their capacities for improved economic, social and political status for developing the nation's human resources for national and economic growth. (National Policy on Women, 2000 & Sokefun, 2010)
The mechanism to achieve these, aimed at planning intervention of re-awakening women's self-consciousness and re-evaluation of their self-concept to empower and encourage women to speak for their rights on the equitable distribution of resources and social justice while there will be a re-orientation of the society to accept equity of roles and respect for family values (National Policy on Women, 2000)

Again, the policy affirms that women's education status correlates with the level of development of a nation while tapping the abundant natural resources through science and technology, improved health concerns by reducing high maternal mortality rates associated with pregnancy and child birth, unsafe tract abortion, reproductive tract infections, sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/AIDS, cervical and breast cancer, teenage pregnancy, vesico-vaginal fistula. (National Policy on Women, 2000)

The policy notes that enhancing women's participation in labour, both in the formal and informal sector, creating conducive employment environment that will cater for women's special roles in reproduction and community management will assist the nation in attaining good development. Because of this, women's participation in agriculture and industry will receive a boost by enhancing women's access to land, water institutionalized credit, extension service training, appropriate technologies and tools, information networking, different investment opportunities and exposure of women's product to international channels.

There will be women's participation in the protection and management of the environment that will be accompanied with good rural road network, transportation system, housing and other utilities. Also, there will be no discrimination on the basis of sex or tribe in formal executive employment.

An implementation of thirty per cent representation of women in the three tiers of government to ensure women's advancement for a trial period to year 2010 including the sensitization of traditional and religious leaders to encourage women to participate in politics. (National Policy on Women, 2000). Government shall ensure that concerned institutions in national planning, institute data collection to desecrate all data on gender basis.

In line with the call in CEDAW, and taking into cognizance the complexity arising from a-tripartite system of law in Nigeria which are sometimes contradictory (Statutory, Customary and Sharia) government shall ensure harmonization and legislative protection for vulnerable women (National Policy on Women, 2000). Government shall fix a minimum of eighteen years at first marriage, so that the girl-child can enjoy her fundamental rights to education and proper mental development (National Policy on Women, 2000).

All of the above looks good but, of what use is the document on paper without full commitment. Till date, quota system exist in federal schools and employment in Nigeria. Health institutions are ill-equipped, insecurity has exacerbated the rate of girls and boys drop out of school especially, in the northern areas like Adamawa, Gombe, Bauchi and Kebbi. Resources are limited for enhancing women's productive capacities in agriculture and industry. A big lag still exist in male and female employment, decision-making, legislative and executive arms of governance.

The National Gender Policy of the Federal Republic of Nigeria of year 2006 is a step further from the year 2000's National Policy on Women. In the forward message of the document, the Honorable Minister of Women Affairs, reiterated that:

We all know that in Nigeria, traditions, customs, sexual stereotype of social roles and cultural prejudice continue to militate against enjoyment of rights and full participation of women in national development. The Gender Policy would help to eliminate all such barriers.

It went further to say that, its overall goal is to promote the welfare and rights of Nigerian women and children in all aspects of life, political, social and economic while concretely it will:

- Contribute towards women's empowerment and the eradication of unequal gender power relations in the workplace and economy in trade unions and in broader society.
- Encourage the participation, support and cooperation of men in taking shared responsibility for the elimination of sexism and redefining of oppressive gender roles.
- Increase the participation of women in leadership and decision-making.
- Increase awareness and gender sensitivity in all sectors.
- Defend and advance women's rights.
- Ensure that through labour legislation and collective bargaining, the particular circumstances of women are considered and that measures are promoted to eliminate discrimination on the basis of gender
- Fight against stereotyping on the basis of gender in the workplace.
- Ensure that there is a gender perspective in all sectors of development (FGN, 2006 p.x)

Also, major achievements in the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women were highlighted to include:

- Institutional arrangements on gender entrenched in Public Administration systems and processes
- Increased participation of women in public and private political life
- Integration of gender and social inclusion targets in economic policies, budgets and development frameworks
- Initiatives to partner with men and boys in promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women

  (FGN National Beijing +20 Review, 2014 p.8)

All of the above looked apt, but the situation is far from what is written here. Nigeria has continued to grow worse in challenging gender inequality among her people. For instance, through the National Gender Policy Framework, the Federal Executive Council approved the establishment of Gender Units in all MDAs for a Directorate Cadre to head the units. The modalities are still being processed and fraught with lack of funding.

Although in 2011, the country exceeded the global threshold of thirty per cent in women's ministerial appointment to about thirty-one per cent, the present situation has become worse. Although, there is a gradual integration of gender and social inclusion targets in economic policies, development frameworks and government budgets FGN National Beijing+20 Review, (2014) the capacity of men and boys are also being built for gender equality and advancement of women AU Solemn Declaration Country Report (2013) in FGN National Beijing +20 Review (2014) however, this is also being affected by funding. One expects all tiers of government to give the issue of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls the seriousness it deserves as a development agenda for a developing nation. It is pertinent to review some international efforts since the Beijing Platform for Action at this juncture.

4. Literature on Recent International Efforts

It is amazing to see the efforts of men in developed countries, promoting gender equality, even at the level of significant achievements these male feminists still believe that gender equality is yet to be achieved and there is more to gender equality and parity than numbers whereas, Nigeria is at the low ebb of promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls.

The opening speech of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, His Excellency Antonio Guterres at the 63 United Nations opening session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW63) is captivating, moving one to the bone marrows. He renamed the session as Commission on the Status of Power which he believed is the crux of the issue as gender equality is fundermentally a question of power. Stressing that, women have been systematically marginalised, ignored and silenced in a male dominated world with a male dominated culture (UNCSW 63RD Edition 2019). According to Guterres, 2019 while quoting Professor Boyd, affirmed that ``If women are not perceived to be fully within the structures of power, surely it is power we need to redefine rather than women''. As a nation, we must ask ourselves how far we have been able to lead the fight and raise our voices for the achievement of gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls. Why is it difficult for Nigeria to lend credence from this?

With the theme "social protection system, access to public services and sustainable infrastructure for gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls" the UNCSW63 agreed on these conclusions:

- Invest in social protection, public services and sustainable infrastructure to support the productivity of women's work, including in the informal economy.
- Ensure that progress in women's access to social protection, public services and sustainable infrastructure is not undermined by budget cuts and austerity measures, and levels of protection previously achieved are not reversed.
- Build on multilateral commitments to gender equality, including the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No.202), to strengthen access to social protection, public services and infrastructure for all women and girls;
- Recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care and domestic work by ensuring access to social protection for unpaid caregivers of all ages, including coverage for health care and pensions;
- Scale up investment in quality public care services that are affordable and gender-responsive;
- Identify and remove barriers to women's and girls' access to public services, such as physical distance, lack of information and decision-making power, stigma and discrimination;
- Guarantee the availability of safe and affordable drinking water and sanitation, including for menstrual hygiene, in homes, schools, refugee camps and other public places;
- Ensure that transport policies and planning are sustainable, accessible, affordable, safe and gender-responsive, taking into account the different needs of women and men, and adapted to be used by persons with disabilities and older persons;
- Promote the full and equal participation and leadership of women and women's organizations in policy dialogues and

decision-making relating to social protection systems, public services and sustainable infrastructure;
- Strongly condemn the impunity and lack of accountability rooted in historical and structural inequality that accompanies pervasive violence against women.
(UNCSW63 document in Anyanwu-Akeredolu, 2019 p5)

5. The Indian Story

Everyone and nations have a critical role to play in achieving gender equality. India is not an exception as a developing country. She has been improving on her status of gender equality through her "National Policy for the Empowerment of Women". There had been reduction in child marriages, number of deaths for girl children and increase in health standard through an home grown project called " Beti Bachao Beti Padhao" and mission "Indradhanush". Development rates increased in the 2015-2016 report as care visits to hospitals and clinics by women increased from thirty-seven per cent to fifty-one per cent from 2005. Women who marry before age eighteen dropped. Eighty-three per cent of women have a bank account. Women's literacy rates rose to sixty-eight per cent plus (Saxena, 2019).

6. The Canadian Experience

Canada is a developed country with its sustainable development goals well spelt out. The Canadian Government priotized Gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls by showing commitment to advance its feminist agenda both at home and abroad in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms.

Although, Canada has made significant progress in education and workplace participation, women in Canada equally face challenges for full equality. For instance, like the developing nations, women are under-represented in polities and leadership roles, they earn less-on-average than men and continue to experience high rates of gender based violence (Government of Canada, 2018).

Indigenous women and girls, migrant and refugee women and girls, disabled women and girls and those who live in rural areas all face discrimination without their full rights. In addressing this, the Government of Canada priotized diversity, inclusion and gender equality by encouraging increased representation of women in all fields, at all levels of decision-making, women's economic security and prosperity while reducing poverty and eliminating gender-based violence. Also, pay equity is addressed, investment is made in women entrepreneurship and more women are encouraged to get involved in Science, Technology Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) (Canada Government, 2018).

Again, early learning and child care are being made more flexible, inclusive and affordable, more women can choose to participate in the work force while balancing work and family responsibilities (Canada Government, 2018). With the Canadian Gender-Based Analysis plus (GBA+), policies and programmes are to the benefit of all Canadians- It provides the foundation for gender-based budgeting, which was built upon to introduce Gender Results Framework in 2018, this advances gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls at home and nationally (Canada Government, 2018)

Canada also operates feminist foreign policy that determines international policies and programmes in trade, security and diplomacy which addresses system barriers to gender equality. Again, through the SDGs the Government of Canada launched a new Feminist International Assistance Policy in June 2017, this is strategically aligned with the agenda of sustainable development for 2030. It aims to effect progress across all 17SDGs through six action areas without undermining the role of men and boys. The action areas include- human dignity including health and nutrition, education and humanitarian action; growth that works for everyone, environment and climate action, inclusive governance; and peace and security (Canada Government, 2018).
Additionally, there is Canada's Progressive Trade Agenda which ensures that all segments of the society can take advantage and benefit from opportunities flowing from trade and investment (Canada Government, 2018). More gender considerations are being woven into Canada's Free Trade Agreements (FTAs). This also include progressive trade initiatives in international economic forum such as the WTO, G7/20, the OECD and APEC (Canada Government, 2018). Also, to achieve gender equality there was a five years action plan on women, peace and security with five objectives:
- increasing the rate of women in conflict prevention and resolution, and post-conflict state-and peace building;
- Promoting and protecting women and girls human rights, gender and equality and the empowerment of women and girls in fragile, conflict and post conflict settings;
- Preventing and responding to sexual and gender-based violence;

- Meeting the specific needs of women and girls in humanitarian settings; and
- Strengthening the capacity of peace of operations to advance the women, peace and security agenda (Canada Government, 2018 p-16)

Furthermore to advancing gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls, Canada participates in bilateral, multilateral and international forum. Prime Minister Trudeau established the Gender Equality Advisory Council which is co-chaired by Ambassador Isabelle Hudon and Melinda Gates in order to make them functional.

7. Senegal's Experience

Senegal, a sub-Saharan African country is a relatively stable African democratic nation. It has high unemployment and fertility rates with vast youth population, high levels of poverty and low levels of social protection with its attendant implications on gender equality. In year 2010, she advanced Parity Law, mandating parity between men and women in electoral lists for all elections (Equal Measures 2030 data hub). In 2012 legislative elections, the implementation of Parity Law brought significant changes in the representation of women from sixty-four of one hundred and fifty legislative seats and seventy of one hundred and sixty –five seats in 2017 (Equal Measures 2030 data hub).

Senegal adopted the National Strategy for Equity and Gender Equality 2016-2026 to ensure equal opportunities for all in participating and benefiting from development with gender budgeting at the national level. Senegal was scored 'medium'- fifty-two per cent in OECD's social institutions and Gender Index because of its discriminatory Family Laws regarding ownership assets. Inheritance and other legal rights (Equal Measures 2030 data hub). Also, child early and forced marriage are still wide spread despite its prohibition under article 108 of the Family Code.

8. The Distributive theory

The Nigerian constitution, Section 42 says no to discrimination on account of sex but, why is it that the Nigerian traditional laws, stereotypes and Sharia, a Muslim law in a country where there is right to choice of religion still discriminate against the female sex thereby, promoting inequality? According to Richardo in Asuru (2017) the distributive theory is the systematic attempt to account for the sharing of national income among the owners of factors of production – land, labour and capital. However, Ricardo in Asuru (2017) asserts that poverty, hunger and general misery in the land are caused by distributive pattern of the wealth of the nation. In essence, the land owners are favoured than the workers.

Since in most cultures in Nigeria, land and heritage rights favour the male than the female, it implies that the national wealth are distributed in the favour of males. The reason domestic chores are still unrecognized and unpaid for, this is glaring inequality. Of course there are feminists movements, Nigerian Non-Governmental Organizations working to nib inequality in the bud in Nigeria but the question is, does the bureaucratic bottlenecks in Law allow for a good stance in dealing with inequality in our society? As the UN Secretary General puts it while quoting Prof Boyd "If women are not perceived to be fully within the structures of power surely it is power we need to redefine rather than women". If we promote equality in our society, everyone will win and development will be heightened.

9. Conclusion and recommendations

This study has been able to prove that the attainment of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls is the fulfilment of human rights which must be taken serious. Although, no nation has been able to achieve this totally, but Nigeria seem to be toying with an impetus to her development process. Nigeria could lend credence and improve on the present fifty-two per cent score of Senegal's Global Index Score on gender equality by reducing her deep rooted religion and cultural resistance by ratifying and domesticating all gender equality related and constitutional reform bills, allotting a good proportion of the budget to all the development indices as highlighted earlier and involving all in the development process rather than chasing white elephant projects that bring tangential rewards, and in most cases hydra-headed to the beneficiaries of such projects. The goal of building a free and democratic society, a just and egalitarian society and a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens entails strong commitment to signed policies and laws.

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Are we doing enough? Nigerian Female Undergraduates' Knowledge and Use of Female Condom.

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Abstract. Female undergraduates' population in Nigeria though heterogeneous, is dominated by young people who have high sexual mobility and engage in sporadic and unstable sexual intercourse which tends to expose them to health compromising behaviours such as non-usage or inconsistent use of female condom. This study interrogated female undergraduates' knowledge and use of female condom in Nigeria. The descriptive research design was adopted for the study. The study's participants were five hundred and thirty-one female undergraduates drawn from six faculties in a Nigerian university. The Female Condom Knowledge and Use Scale (FCKUS), a 12-item questionnaire developed by the researchers with attendant psychometric properties ensured, was used for data collection. Results indicated that 31.4% of female undergraduates have seen a female condom before while 68.6% have not. The sources of knowledge about female condom were mostly from Peer group/friends (32%) and the least was from parents (4%). There was also a significant difference between New–intakes and Stalites female undergraduates' knowledge and use of female condoms. Also, there was a significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by female undergraduates below and those above 20 years old. However, there was no significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condoms of participants in Science faculty and those in Non-science faculties. The study concluded that we are not doing enough advocacy on female condom as a nation. It was recommended that more advocacy is needed, while free distribution of female condoms to female undergraduates periodically by Government Agencies/ Health Institutions and NGOs should be explored just like they do for male condoms.

Keywords: Female Condom; Knowledge; Use; Undergraduates.

1. Introduction

Globally, researchers have consistently interrogated young people's sexuality and sexual behaviours because today's youths will shape the size, health and prosperity of the world's future population (Population Reference Bureau, 2010). Female undergraduate population in Nigeria though heterogeneous, is dominated by young people, chronologically between 16 – 25 years old, and they are quite sexually mobile (Akindele-Oscar, 2009). The high level of sexual mobility, tends to expose these female undergraduates to health compromising behaviours. They engage in sporadic and unstable sexual intercourse.

Studies have suggested that female undergraduates engaged in early sexual debut sooner than previous generations within the formal university setting, away from direct parental control, fewer effective societal structures of traditional values, religious and cultural disapproval, and sometimes sanctions. Low parental income of female undergraduates was correlated with increase sexual intercourse and higher frequency of sexual activity by female youths. In fact, virginity is no longer consider a virtue among female young people (Akindele-Oscar & Ayodele, 2014). Female undergraduates in Nigeria engaged in risky sexual behaviours such as: unprotected sex; multiple sex partners; sexual intercourse under the influence of

substance, and transactional sex (the offering of sex by female undergraduates for financial gains from men popularly called "Sugar Daddies" to pay their school fees, buy gift items/ clothing, etcetera).

The factors that reinforce female undergraduates risky sexual behaviours are: growing poverty and economic insecurity amongst the populace; breakdown in familial values; peer group pressure and inability of most families to meet their female undergraduate's children financial needs (Akindele-Oscar & Adeyemo, 2004; Akindele-Oscar, 2009; Akindele-Oscar, 2014; Ajayi & Somefun, 2019). Research does not support abstinence only approach that sexuality education is effective in delaying young peoples' sexual intercourse, therefore the use of female condom is explored.

The efficacy of female condom as an important public health tool in the fight against HIV infection, cervical cancer, unwanted and unintended pregnancies, abortion complications, complications of pregnancy, infection prevention, prevention of health issues even for unborn babies, Sexually Transmitted Infection (STIs) and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) is well documented in literature (Ananga, 2017; Chipfuwa, *et. al*, 2014; Okunlola, *et. al,* 2006; Unchedu, Adeyera & Owoaje, 2019; Tarkang & Bain, 2015). Overall, female undergraduate's new sexual freedom and evolution had led to high incidence of STDs and STI.

In Nigeria as in some countries, condom advocacy by Government agencies targets the male much more than the females. This scenario has resulted in a low level of knowledge of female condom (FC). For example, among Zimbabwean women of reproductive age, the knowledge of FC was low (Chipfuwa, *et. al.*, 2014). In Nigeria, FC use was the least reported contraceptive practice as most women prefer to use unobservable contraceptives (Amu & Nyarko, 2016). Knowledge and use of male condoms are higher than female condoms (Oladeinde, *et. al*, 2011). Low usage of FC was reported in sample South African women over 15years of age (Guerra & Simbayi, 2014). In Colombia, the use of FC is very low (Pablo, *et. al*, 2019).

The low knowledge and use of female condoms in Nigeria are due to females not adequately prepared to know how to use female condom. This is not in conformity with best global practice where sexual health interventions for young people targets equally male and female gender, with focus on education and prevention (Rietmeijer, 2013). Other documented reasons for low knowledge and use of female condom are: Gendered inequalities such as male partner's refusal (they view such usage as a sign of mistrust in one's partners); unfamiliarity, unavailability or unaffordability; finding FC uncomfortable; and lack of sexual satisfaction (Okunola, *et. al*, 2006; Chipfuwa, *et. al*, 2014).

Low use of female condom has also been attributed to: its being less well known unlike the male condom; not readily available and accessible from vendors in most rural or semi-urban areas; male documented cultural norms; use of hormonal pills to prevent pregnancy; insertion difficulties, and stigma/shame associated with purchase of FC from vendors (Oladeinde, *et. al*, 2011; Caliskan, 2012; Tarkang & Bain, 2015). Other documented reasons for female condom use are: their perception of increased exposure to STI; inability to communicate their sexual and reproductive health needs to their partners; experiencing negative reactions after expressing their desire to uptake condom to prevent STI or pregnancy; and restrained decision making concerning SRH needs (Macaluso, *et. al*, 2000; Uchendu, *et. al*, 2019).

Undergraduates female in Nigeria, many of whom now engage in pre-marital sex, transactional sex, and multiple – partnered sex need to use female condoms because of inconsistent condom use by males (Ajayi, Ismail & Akpan, 2019). Also, the uses of female condom will prevent STDs, STIs, and unwanted pregnancies. Since female undergraduates are sexually active, the female condom would assist them take safer sex decisions.

To the knowledge of the present authors, there are limited researches/ literature on female undergraduate's condom knowledge and use in Nigeria. Most researches available have focused on male condom availability, awareness, knowledge and use. Accordingly, there is need for researchers to continue to interrogate what is predisposing and sustaining female undergraduates' poor knowledge and inconsistent or non-use of female condoms despite the danger their sexual mobility poses to their health and well-being. This study therefore interrogated Nigerian female undergraduates' knowledge and use of female condom, and x-rayed if we are doing enough as a nation to improving the status quo.

1.1` Research Questions

- What are the sources of knowledge about female condom available to female undergraduates?

- What is the level of female undergraduates' knowledge about female condom?

1.3 Hypotheses

- There is no significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by Stalites and New-intakes female undergraduates.
- There is no significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by female undergraduates below 20years and those above 20 years.
- There is no significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by female undergraduates in the faculty of science and those in non-science faculties.

2. Methodology

2.1 Design and Participants

The descriptive research design was adopted in this study. The participants were drawn from female undergraduates in a state-owned university in South-West, Nigeria. A total of 600 female undergraduates across six faculties: Science, Education, Arts, Law, Social Sciences, Administration & Management Sciences constituted the sample of the study. A combination of cluster, stratified and random sampling techniques was employed in choosing 100 female undergraduates from 100 – 400 levels in each faculty. Of the 600 questionnaires returned by participants, only 531 were deemed properly filled and considered for analysis. The platform of the university Directorate of Counseling was used to administer the instrument, this made the participants to be relaxed and cooperated to fill the scale.

2.2 Instrument

Female Condom Knowledge and Use Scale (FCKUS), a 12-item questionnaire developed by the researchers was used for data collection. It has 3 sections: A, B and C. Section A measures demographic variables: Faculty, Department, Level, Religion, and Age. Section B has 2 items that measures sources and levels of knowledge about female condoms. Section C has 10 items that measures participants' use of the female condom. A typical item on the scale reads. "I use the female condom because it is cheaper than other family planning methods". The response format for the items ranges from "Strongly Agree" (4) to "Strongly Disagree: (1). The content validity of the scale was done by making sure the items in the scale covered the domain of condom awareness and usage. This is appropriate and sufficient to elicit the required response from the respondents. Test retest reliability index of 0.87 was also obtained.

The instrument was administered personally by the researchers. The eligibility criteria to participate in the study was that the undergraduate must be a female and a full-time student, and must be willing to participate voluntarily. Those who dissent were excused without any reprimand. The administration was done just before the commencement of faculty-based lectures with the understanding of colleagues. This ensured that all the participants cut across departments in each faculty. The instrument took about 5 to 10 minutes to fill, and it was retrieved immediately. Only 531 of the 600 scales were deemed properly filled, and these were the one scored, collated and analyzed using simple percentage and t-test statistics.

3. Results

Research Question 1: Levels of Female Undergraduates' Knowledge about Female Condom.
Those who have seen a Female Condom before: 31.4%
Those who have not seen a Female condom before: 68.6%

Research Question 2: Sources of Knowledge about Female Condoms available to Female Undergraduates.

(a) Government Advocacy on Media: 18%
(b) Health Institutions: 11%
(c) Peer Group/ Friends: 32%
(d) Partner: 4%
(e) Media: 10%
Others: -
(f) Parents: 4%
(h) Siblings: 6.2%
(i) Textbooks/ Journals: 9.8%
(j) University Counselling Centre: 5%

4. Data Analysis and Results

Table 1: Stalites and New-Intakes Females Undergraduates' knowledge and Use of Female Condom

Group	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	df	t – cal	t - tab	P
New – Intake	285	17.11	8.61	529	6.83	1.96	* S
Stalites Undergraduates	246	10.81	6.35				

P < 0.05

The result presented in table 1 shows that the t-calculated is more than the t-table. Therefore, there is a significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condoms by Stalites undergraduates and New-intakes female undergraduates. The hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Table 2: Female Undergraduates' below 20 years and those above 20 years knowledge and use of Female Condoms

Group	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	df	t – cal	t - tab	P
Female Undergraduates below 20 years	377	18.08	9.32	529	2.74	1.96	* S
Female Undergraduates above 20 years	154	7.16	5.61				

P< 0.05

The result in table 2 reveals that there is significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by undergraduates below 20 years and those above 20 years. The hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Table 3: Female Undergraduates in Faculty of Science and those in Non-Science Faculties knowledge and use of Female Condom

Group	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	df	t – cal	t - tab	P
Female Undergraduates in Science Faculty	447	21.83	3.11	529	1.73	1.96	NS
Female Undergraduates above 20 years	84	52.75	1.84				

P>0.05

The table 3 shows that there is no significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom by females in Science and Non-science faculties. The hypothesis was therefore accepted.

5. Discussion

In respect to research question 1, of the total respondents, only about 31.4% have seen a female condom before. 68.6% have not seen a female condom before. It showed that their knowledge about female condom is poor. This is not good enough, considering they are a sexually active and mobile population. For research question 2, the respondents' answer is instructive but not surprising. The sources of information about female condom from analysis reveals the following: Government Advocacy (18%); Health Institutions (11%); Peer Group/ Friends – 32%; Partner (4%); Media (10%); Parents (4%); Siblings (6.2%); Textbooks/ Journals (9.8%); and University Counselling Directorate/ Aids Friendly Support Centre (5%). Obviously, the Government (Federal and State) are not doing enough advocacy on female condom, more effort needs to be channel in this direction.

Hypothesis one was rejected. The findings showed a significant difference between New – intakes and Stalites undergraduates' knowledge and use of female condoms. This contradicted Uwakwe (1999) findings that all undergraduates are susceptible to peer group pressure because they are all away from direct parental monitoring. However, the significant difference noted could be as a result of the Stalites being more emotionally matured having stayed on campus for more than one year. Hypothesis two was rejected. There was a significant difference in the knowledge and use of female condom between female undergraduates who are below 20 years and those above 20 years. This means age is not necessarily a potent factor in determining female undergraduates' knowledge and use of female condom. Hypothesis three was accepted. In other words, there is no significant difference in female undergraduates in Science and those in Non- Science faculties knowledge and use of female condoms. This finding is surprising because one will expect those in

the science disciplines to have more understanding of sexual-anatomical issues, and be disposed to knowing and making use of female condom than those in non-science faculties. This result reveals that both of these group need more advocacy on female condoms.

6. Implication of the Study

The Government have to change direction in terms of advocacy and making female condom available to the end users. More enlightenment that target the female gender and showcase the benefits accruable when female condom is correctly and consistently used by young people who cannot abstain from sex, need to be more aggressively pursued. Furthermore, University Counselling clinic and Health institutions should be reinvigorated to provide enlightenment/seminars on female condoms. Free female condoms should also be given out periodically as they do with male condoms by Government and other stakeholders. Parents should also make mentioning and showing female condom a priority when discussing sexuality education with their children (male and female).

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Part Six
History and Religious Studies

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From West Africa to West Indies: the Movement of German and Italian Internees in the British Empire during World War II, 1939-45

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Abstract. Wars lead to disruptions in the relationships of the belligerent countries. As soon as hostilities are declared, all interactions between citizens of hostile territories cease. The declaration of a state of war culminates in a prohibition of commercial intercourse between the subjects of the contending powers. It also leads to the proscription and unpleasant treatments of the citizens of the hostile countries. This study, therefore, examines the treatment of the enemy aliens in British Empire during the Second World War, with a special focus on the transfer of the German and Italian internees from Nigeria in West Africa to Jamaica in West Indies. It also deals with the representations by several individuals and agencies in connection with the internees in Jamaica, as well as their enlistment in the British Auxiliary Military Pioneer Corps. Archival sources provide data for this historical reconstruction. It is a contribution to knowledge in the areas of Second World War, German Studies, treatment of the enemy aliens, and the place of West Africa in the historiography of World War II.

Keywords: German/Italian Internees, Prisoners of War, West Africa, West Indies, British Empire, Second World War

1. Introduction

In law, the declaration of war makes enemies of all the respective subjects of the belligerents (EMB 1917: 104). This was the case during the First and Second World Wars. The belligerent countries put legislations in place (such as Trading with the Enemy Act in Britain and America) outlining the modalities for dealing with the enemy countries, their subjects and properties in the continuance of the war (Levey and Barbieri, Croft 1989; White 1900; Bishop 1948).

Earlier studies on the treatment of enemy subjects in the British Empire during the Second World War have omitted the West African case study. For instance, several attempts have been made to address the treatment of the enemy subjects/internees (Fry 2000, Koessler 1942, Kertesz 1992, Pistol 2015, Schenderlin 2017, Clark 2018, Poole 1982, Johnston 2000, Fiset 2003, Macmillan 1985, Christagau 2009) as well as prisoners of war (POWs) (Custodis 2011, Jackson 2010, Custodis 2012, Auger 2005, Robin 1995, Mackenzie 1994) during the Second World War. Specific studies have been carried out on the treatment of German Prisoners of War, most especially in America, during World War II (Reiss 2005, Krammer 1990, Thompson 2010, Pluth 1970). However, in all these conversations, there is an area that has escaped notice, namely, the treatment of the German internees in British West Africa during the Second World War.

This study seeks to address the lopsidedness in the historiography of the treatment of the German and Italian internees in British Empire during World War II by examining the transfer to Jamaica in West Indies of the German Internees in West Africa during the Second World War. It also deals with the representations made by several agencies in connection with the internees in Jamaica, as well as their enlistment in the Auxiliary Military Pioneer Corps. The history of the internment of German subjects in West Africa (most especially in Nigeria and the Cameroons under the British Mandate) is provided as a background.

The study relies essentially on the primary sources for its analysis. Files of the Chief Secretary's Office (CSO) on the enemy subjects provide the data for the historical reconstruction. The significance of the contribution of this study lies in expanding the discussion on the impact of World War II on the international integration by focusing on the somewhat neglected theme, namely, the treatment of the alien enemies in British Empire, as it affected West Africa with a special emphasis on the transfer of the German internees from West Africa to Jamaica. It is a contribution to knowledge in the areas of Second World War, German Studies, the treatment of the enemy aliens and the place of West African within the historiography of World War II.

2. World War II and the Internment of the Enemy Subjects in British West Africa

The Second World War (1939-1945) was an implosion between the Allied Powers (Britain, France, the USA and Russia) and the Axis (Germany, Italy and Japan). It occasioned the dislocation of the world political economy as well as global disintegration.

As soon as the War broke out, enemy aliens, most especially, German and Italian subjects in all the British colonies and Dependencies were arrested and interned as was the case during the First World War (1914-1918). This internment process and the concomitant repatriation and release on parole were supervised by the office of the Custodian of Enemy Property (C.E.P.). This internment of the enemy subject in the British Empire had been planned even before the outbreak of the war on 3 September 1939. For instance, in a secret letter from the Chief Secretary to the Government (CSG) of Nigeria to the Commissioner of the Colony (ComCol), dated 29 May 1939 (barely three months to the commencement of the war), the CSG noted that he had been directed by the Government to observe that the creation of a central internment camp was a matter for executive action (National Archives Ibadan [NAI] CSO 35769/I: 2). Some doubt existed as to the division of duties between Commissioner of the Colony and the Commissioner of Police. To clarify the position, the CSG explained that the part of Commissioner of the Colony and of the Resident of a Province as "competent authority" in respect of internment was restricted to the duties laid down in Part III of the draft Regulations. The section to be taken by the Commissioner of Police and his subordinates was indicated in broad outline in the Defence Scheme (Chapter VI, Section H) and would be implemented by him in detail subject to the general approval of the Governor (NAI CSO 35769/1: 1). The Defence Regulations would come into force on receipt of the "war" telegram, and, detailed arrangements for carrying out their provisions should be made by all concerned in peace time, observing the strictest secrecy. In the event of the outbreak of the war before the final Regulations were issued the draft Regulations should be acted upon (NAI CSO 35769/1: 1). The control and direction of each camp and the arrest and detention of enemy aliens would, following normal practice, be a matter for the Commissioner of Police whose local representatives would work in the closest co-operation with the administrative authority (NAI CSO 35769/1: 1). The question of a central internment camp was under consideration. In September, 1939, arrangements were made to establish such an institution at Ibadan, Nigeria, and it was probable that this would also be done in a future crisis (NAI CSO 35769/1: 1-2).

In Practice, following the outbreak of the war of 3 September 1939, the Germans in Nigeria were arrested and interned at the internment camp Ibadan. Some were released on parole. To be sure, of the total 132 Germans interned in Nigeria, 79 were on parole (NAI CSO 36117/I). Sixty-three (63) German males were interned in Nigeria, excluding the Cameroons, which by then was part of Nigeria. Women and children were not interned but were permitted to accompany their menfolk if so interned. German males who were considered eligible for military service or who were possessed of certain technical qualifications were interned. No hard and fast rule was in operation as regards 'eligibility for military service', each case being considered on its merits. German males who had not been interned were on parole and had been permitted to reside in their own homes. They had not been referred to public charity. A few German males over military age were allowed to repatriate themselves at their own expense (NAI CSO 36117/I: 23). Those, who were not of military age and women, were released on parole. In this way, they would be under the surveillance by the police.

With reference to the Cameroons under the British Mandate, about 60 were reported to have gone to Fernando Po. They had left before the declaration of war. The remaining were on parole and as far as possible were being employed on plantations which the Public Custodian had taken over. However, on 19 June 1940, all the Germans in the Cameroons under Mandate were taken prisoners. Similarly, on 25 June 1940, the Germans working under the French Custodian on the Plantation de Tabac, Batschenga, French Mandated Cameroons, had been transported

to Yaunde—Duala and then by the British vessel "SABO" to Lagos; after arrival at Lagos they had been transferred by train into the British Central Internment Camp at Ibadan (NAI CSO 36117/I: 76). They included Herr Trupppel & Frau Truppel, Herr Walter & Frau Walter, Herr Wiceacker & Frau Wieacker, Herr Leuchs, Herr Knittl, Herr Holl, Herr Laugwitz, Herr Zabel, Herr Barthel, Her Konig, Herr Krug, Her Weber, Herr Groch (NAI CSO 36117/I: 76). All arrested enemy aliens were allowed to have in their possession personal requirements which should not exceed the amount of three pound, which was expended at the internment camp monthly for every person (NAI CSO 36117/I: 70). The internment camps were located in Lagos, Ibadan and Umuahia, from which some were later transferred either to the internment camps in the Isle of Man in the United Kingdom or Jamaica in West Indies, while some others, wh o had medical issues, were repatriated to Germany at their own expense.

3. The Transfer of the German and Italian Internees in West Africa to Jamaica

The presence of internees in West Africa was an embarrassment to security, and the provision of guards was an additional commitment for which the resources of the General Officer Commanding 'Royal West African Frontier Force' in Ashimota, Ghana, were inadequate. The provision of suitable accommodation in West Africa for Europeans was always a most difficult problem and in Sierra Leone there was none (without building) and the GOC particularly wished to avoid diverting materials and labour to the construction of internment Camps before the military needs were complete. He mostly urged, therefore, that internees were not retained in West Africa (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V: 589).

There was an arrangement for the transfer of enemy aliens from West Africa to Jamaica in West Indies. In a telegram to the Governor of Nigeria dated 6 September 1940, repeated to Governors of Freetown and Accra, the Secretary of State assumed that the Governors would arrange in consultation with the Governor of Jamaica for any outstanding cash balances due to individual internees to be transferred with them to Jamaica and made available to them for personal expenditure while interned in Jamaica (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 529). Delay in transfer of internees to Jamaica was anticipated. Several internees had been resident in West Africa for periods of exceeding 36 months and on grounds of health and climate, the Governor promised to press for early departure (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 550).

The procedure proposed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies regarding non-enemy aliens would not be practicable since it was essential that Governor, Jamaica, should make orders for transfer of any such persons who had not in fact left Nigeria as a result of deportation orders and it did not appear that there was sufficient time for this. In any case he could not agree to such procedure in the case of Czechs and Dutch without consideration of details of individual cases (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 553).

In the telegram dated 26 October 1940, the Commander-in-Chief, South Atlantic wrote to the G.O.C. West Africa, repeated to Director of Nigerian Marine, Lagos, N.C.S.O. at Takoradi, West African Governors, and Command, Sierra Leone, stating that "Pennland" was available to transport these internees to Jamaica after present duties, if guard could be provided by the Nigerian Government. "Pennland" would arrive Freetown (Sierra Leone) about 2 November 1940 and could be sailed for Lagos (Nigeria) as soon as guard was embarked, arriving four days later thence to Takoradi (Ghana) and back to Freetown before proceeding to Jamaica (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 554). It was expected that internees would leave Nigeria on 6 November (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 550).
Approximately 150 internees were now at Umuahia (Nigeria) over 1,000 miles from Lagos by rail. As there was no accommodation for them at Lagos, it was essential that they should not reach Lagos before "Pennland" arrived. Rolling stock position made it impossible to get them to Lagos between 8 and 17 November (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 558). His Excellency had agreed that Col. Mavrogordato should go in charge of the Nigeria internees and he would take Capt. Blackburn and his wife with him. Having reached Jamaica and got rid of the internees Col. Mavrogordato would take his leave in the West Indies (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 559). The S.S. "Pennland" sailed from Freetown on 5 November and should arrive Lagos 9 November thence to Takoradi on 11 November (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 567).

On 9 November 1940, the Commissioner, Nigeria Police Force, wrote to the Chief Secretary to Government on board S.S. Pennland where he was awaiting the embarkation of the German Internees. He noted that the Ship was under the Dutch flag and her Captain Officers and crew were Dutch. This added to the difficulties of the voyage especially as there was a suggestion that some of the crew were likely to be of the Fifth Column. He found that there was an escort of European Troops consisting of two officers and five men of the Essex Regiment. There

was also one extra officer of the same Regiment on board who was supposed to disembark at Freetown. After taking on board the internees who would come on to the ship at Takoradi there would be something like 600 enemy aliens on board (sailing from West Africa) and he was of the opinion that the present escort was totally inadequate to efficiently guard this large number and to provide the necessary sentry posts over the ship including reliefs. Had the ship been British and British-manned the situation would not have been so serious, as they could have expected assistance which in the present circumstances was doubtful. In these circumstances, he urgently requested that His Excellency might be pleased to cable as soon as possible to the G.O.C. West Africa, recommending that on arrival of this ship at Freetown the escort might be increased by another officer and 50 more men. He called attention to the fact that among the German internees being taken, there was an ex Naval Commander as well as German ship's officers and in the event of an attempt being made to seize the ship it was doubtful whether the present escort of 50 men would be sufficient to deal with an attempt of that sort (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 568).

Concerning the number of the enemy internees taken to Jamaica from Nigeria, in a response, dated 11 November 1940, the Acting Commissioner, Nigeria Police Force provided the figures as follows:

	Germans	Italians	Totals
Males	197	27	224
Females	64	2	66
Children	38	-	38
	299	29	328

These internees left Lagos on Sunday, 10 November, 1940, on the S.S. "Pennland" under the charge of Col. A.S. Mavrogordato, O.B.E., Commissioner of Police, who was accompanied by Capt. G. M. I. Blackburne, M.C., Senior Asst. Superintendent of Police and Mrs. Blackburne. It was requested that details of the number of internees, including men, women and children, actually embarked should be furnished to the office of the Chief Secretary as soon as possible for transmission by cable to the Government of Jamaica (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 561-2). Among them were German Officers: 1 Captain and 3 seamen. Enemy aliens of military age (45 years or under) were: 24 Italians and 173 Germans, while suspected male and female enemy agents were 2 Italian males and 18 German males. Those who were only enemy aliens who had been interned and on whom there rests no particular suspicion were 3 Italian male and 21 German males (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 571, 574).

The ship reached Barbados on 30 November. All well on board, expecting to disembark Jamaica on 3 December 1940 (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 561, 583). Colonel Mavrogordato reported that 399 medical treatments were given during the voyage to internees from Nigeria. The Medical Director of the ship, Dr. Frederic Herzog, claimed 5/- each for these treatments, and the amount due (£99. 15. 0) had been paid to him as an advance on account of the Nigerian Government. The Crown Agents for the Colonies should be instructed to transfer the amount from Nigerian funds to Jamaica funds (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 601).

However, not all enemy aliens in Nigeria were to be transferred to Jamaica. The three Roman Catholic missionaries, on being informed of the decision to be released on parole, petitioned through the Vicar Apostolic of Onitsha-Owerri to be permitted to proceed to Jamaica with their colleagues. The Governor granted their request and they were included in the above-mentioned numbers.

His Excellency had decided that the following enemy aliens should be permitted to remain in Nigeria on parole when the main body of internees was transferred to Jamaica: J. W. Zitterstein, Frau Zitterstein, Ludwig Gunz. He had also approved of the recommendation of the Committee appointed to consider individual cases of enemy aliens and that where any person was to be released, or any person not at present interned was to remain at large, they should each of them be requested, as a condition of their release or remaining at large, to give an undertaking in writing that they would not engage in any political, anti-British or anti-allied activity. The further recommendation, that no person released from internment should be allowed to return to the area where he was stationed, was approved.

Concerning the instruction to permit the Zittersteins and Ludwig Gunz to remain in Nigeria, the Commissioner Police consulted the General Manager of the United Africa Company in regard to posting of Herr Zitterstein and Herr Gunz. He was prepared to re-employ them, to pay their transport expenses to their new stations, and to post them to areas removed from those in which they previously served, but he was not yet in a position to say where these would be (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 575). In the letter of 16 November 1940, the Acting Commissioner of Police noted that the General MANAGER, United African Company had now informed him that he was prepared to station in Lagos Herr Gunz, who was formerly at Zaria (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940:

576). Thus, steps would be taken to released Herr Gunz after he had given a written undertaken not to engage in any political, anti-British or anti-allied activity, and he would be informed that he would be required further to comply with the provisions of the Aliens Restriction Ordinance (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 576).

In addition to the Zittersteins, the Governor had also agreed to release on strict parole Ludwig Gunz, German Jew formerly in employment of Uniafrica. Twelve German internees remain in Nigeria, 6 males, 4 females and four children. These included the Zittersteins and Ludwig Gunz, party of missionaries from Mamfe Division Cameroons whose removal to internment camp had been delayed by transport difficulties and three men who escaped from Umuahia (Walter Rapp, Fritz Dietrich and Fritz Moll) and who were recaptured and were awarded 90 days' imprisonment for escaping from lawful custody at Umuahia Internment Camp, and too late to bring them to Lagos with rest of party. The Governor trusted that an early opportunity of transferring them to Jamaica would be found (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 573). In response, the Secretary of State regretted that in the present circumstances it did not appear practicable to transfer these people direct to Jamaica and unless some unexpected opportunity for such transfer should occur, there seemed to be no alternative to their remaining where they were (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1940: 580).

4. Representations in connection with the Internees in Jamaica

There were representations about Mr. Francesco Canfailla, his wife and his mother-in-law, as well as Dr. Aub, Mrs. Weinberg, and Messrs. Hamu and Hoffmann. In this connection the Secretary of States invited reference to his telegram No. 251 of the 28 of March 1942 in which he suggested that a review should be undertaken of all cases of interned enemy aliens whose profession of anti-Nazi or anti-Fascist view there were no specific grounds for doubting (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 626).

In a letter from Mrs. Marianne Kuschnitzky (nee Weinberg) to the Under-Secretary of the Colonial Offices, London, she drew attention to the case of Mr. Francesco Canfailla of Accra, Gold Coast, who had been interned for one year and a half, and was at present in the Italian Camp in Jamaica.

Mr. Canfailla was born in Sicily, but he and his family left Italy when he was three years old and went to live in Paris. During the last twenty years, Mr. Canfailla had lived in the Gold Coast, where he worked as a building-contractor, mostly for the Gold Coast-Government. He was well known in Accra, and he even gave a memorial-stone for the British dead of the First World War (1914-1918) to the town of Accra. In December 1938, he married the petitioner's (Mrs. Marianne Kuschnitzky's) sister, Mrs. Thea Schiff, nee Weinberg, a German-Jewish refugee from Nazi oppression. All members of their family were Jews. Mr. Canfialla married his wife after the racial laws had come into force in Italy, and he married under British Law. He gave up his Italian citizenship and applied for British citizenship, but the war started before he got his documents. When Italy entered the war, Mr. Canfailla was interned and later sent to Jamaica (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 627). The petitioner also noted that though her sister's son-in-law, Mr. Ernst Friendrich of Accra, a Swiss, offered to guarantee for the two women, her sister and her mother, who was living with her, preferred to follow Mr. Canfailla to Jamaica, in order to stay with him, as they had been promised by the Gold Coast Authorities. They were, however, bitterly disappointed when on their arrival they found that they were treated as internees and detained in a women's internment camp, even together with Nazi-women (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 627). The petitioner also noted that her mother, Mrs. Helen Weinberg, nee Hirschland, would be seventy years old next year (1943). She was a granddaughter of the late Simon Hirschland, Essen, a name well known to English bankers. She maintained that she should like to point out that Mr. Canfailla was Anti-Fascist, and that his marrying a Jewish, against the Italian laws, was only in accordance with his democratic views. She felt sure that the Gold Coast-Government would confirm the political reliability of Mr. Canfailla. As to her mother and sister, the petitioner needed not say that they were willing to do all they could for the British Empire, which gave them a home again after the cruel treatment they had gone through in Germany (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 628).

In reply, T.I.K. Lloyd noted that he had been directed by Viscount Granborne to state that a copy of the petitioner's letter was being immediately sent to the Governor of Jamaica for consideration in connection with Mr. Canfailla's case, and also to the Governor of the Gold Coast. With regard to the separation of Nazis and anti-Nazis in the women's internment camp, arrangements for the separation were put in hand in October last and should be now have been completed (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 627).

Similarly, in a letter from the Secretary of States for the Colonies to the Governor of Nigeria, he noted

that he continue to receive a strong representations regarding continued internment in Jamaica of enemy aliens including those deported from West Africa, whose anti-Nazi sympathies there were no specific reasons to doubt, maintaining that he was aware from the Governor's secret dispatch of 28 June 1941 that the cases of Jewish refugees had been reviewed and that the Governor decided that several of them could be released provided they secured either employment or guarantees of maintenance. He also noted that he found considerable difficulty, however, in defending the continued detention of persons who, having been interned for one reason, were kept in detention for quite another one; and that he appreciated, however, practical difficulties of releasing such persons in Jamaica without means of subsistence. The first thing was to ascertain the size of the problem. This might best be done by the appointment of a special tribunal which, taking into account the general policy outlined in the White Paper enclosed in his circular note of 29 November 1940, would examine all the cases of enemy aliens to whose release in Jamaica the only obstacle was that of providing employment or maintenance. As a result of such an enquiry, it might be found that some persons concerned possessed technical or other qualifications fitting them to assist the war effort here or in Jamaica while in others there might be special reason to consider anew the possibility of their return to West Africa.

The Secretary of State also noted that other cases of interned aliens in which representations had reached him included Kahn and Klein, Gertig and Miss Schoene. He requested the Governor to state reasons for doubting bona fides of first two and report whether cases of other two had ever been reviewed. In this connection, the Governor should know that the Secretary of State considered that all cases of professed anti-Nazi and anti-Fascist internees should be reviewed at regular intervals, preferably by an independent tribunal nominated for the purpose. Advisory Committee appointed under Defence Regulations might be suitable, if it was not desired to create additional tribunal (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 630).

Questions of legality of internment under Royal Prerogative of German Jews who had been, or might have been, deprived of their German nationality by the German Ordinance of 25 November 1941, had been recently under consideration. It had been decided by His Majesty's Government that unless and until the High Court decided in any particular case that the effect of the German Ordinance was to relieve an alien, who was formerly of enemy nationality, from his liability to internment under the Royal Prerogative, such persons would continue to be treated as liable to internment under the Royal Prerogative (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 631).

From Jamaica, the Colonial Secretary wrote to the Governor of Nigeria noting that he was directed to request the Governor to be so good as to provide information regarding an Italian civilian internee named G. Mora (No. 662) who was transferred from Nigeria for internment during the war, and who was recently sent to the United Kingdom for reparation to Italy. Immediately before his departure, Mora represented that on his arrival in Jamaica he had deposited with the authorities of the Internment Camp a large bottle containing 420 ounces of gold dust, and that the bottle later returned to him did not contain the quantity of gold dust which he had deposited. Enquiries had been made into the matter, and it seemed clear that More's allegation was entirely without foundation. It was possible, however, that he might make further representations in the matter. Another Italian interned in Jamaica, named Selva, had stated that when Mora was in Nigeria he was involved in "some confidence trick in connection with gold dust". The Colonial Secretary noted that it would be much appreciated if the Governor of Nigeria would make available Mora's record with special reference to his dealing in gold dust (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1942: 644). However, in a correspondence from the Acting Chief Secretary to the Government of Nigeria to the Commissioner of Police, it was noted that "neither Giovanni Mora nor Selva appeared in the list of enemy alien internees sent under cover of your Secret letter of 19 August, 1940. It is thought possible, therefore, that these persons may have been interned in Nigeria." (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1946: 646). The Commissioner of Police noted that there was no record in this office that Giovanni Mora, who was transferred with other Italian internees to Jamaica, was ever engaged in the illicit traffic in gold neither have they any information regarding the fact that he handed any gold to the officer-in-charge of the Internment Camp. He was a contractor employed by Chidiac, a Labanese, and was resident in Gusau, Sokoto Province in Northern Provinces of Nigeria. The internment camp records showed that he handed over only £28, his passport and Aliens Registration book (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1946: 647).

5. Question of the Enlistment of Internees in Jamaica in the Auxiliary Military Pioneer Corps

There was the question regarding the policy in the United Kingdom in regard to release of enemy aliens

from internment. Question of release of all men who could established that they were friendly to the Allied cause but who did not belong to categories set out in Cmd. 6233 had been carefully considered and it had been decided that since numbers involved would be very large it would be impracticable for each case to be heard by a tribunal. A certain number of such internees was covered by Categories 19 and 22 and their case would be heard by a tribunal. Most of these internees however would not be covered by those categories and it had, therefore, been decided that for those not included who were between 18 and 50 years of age enlistment in the Auxiliary Military Pioneer corps afforded an opportunity clearly to demonstrate their friendliness to the Allied cause and such men were being encouraged to offer themselves for service in that corps (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1941: 599).

As regards those who were not eligible for enlistment or were rejected on medical grounds a new category had been added to the Home Office White Paper for the release of men who by reason of age or physical unfitness were ineligible for the Pioneer Corps but could satisfy a tribunal that they were opposed to the Nazi or Fascist systems, that they would remain steadfast towards that cause in all circumstance. Arrangements were also being made in co-operation with the Minister of Labour and National Service to ascertain what other persons there might be among the internees who had special qualifications to undertake work for which there was a shortage of skilled workers, and it was contemplated that such persons would be released, provided there was no security objection in individual cases. As regards women, a review of all those who had been placed by a tribunal or Advisory Committee in the "B" Category was being carried out by a special Committee with a view to the possibility of releasing such women (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1941: 599).

The enquiry, whether internees in Jamaica who satisfied that they were opposed to the Nazi or Fascist systems might be given an opportunity of volunteering to enlist in the Auxiliary Military Pioneer Corps or in the case of skilled artisans to undertake work whether suitable volunteers in these categories, should be sent to the United Kingdom. The Colonial Office feared that it would not be possible to arrange for the reception in the United Kingdom of released internees for civilian employment as skilled artisans, but the Army Council were prepared to agree to accept for enlistment in the Pioneer Corps enemy aliens interned in Jamaica or in other West Indian Colonies subject to the following conditions:

(i) Particulars of each internee whom it was desired to release must be furnished in Form E. N.1. to the War Office who, after investigation, would be determine whether the internee might be accepted for enlistment or not. A copy of Form E.N.1. was enclosed and further copies might be made locally as required.

(ii) Enlistment of approved internees would be conditional on their being found medically and physically up to the required standards and would be carried out in Jamaica, Nermuda and Trinidad, under arrangements to be made by the Officer Commanding the Troops in those Colonies, who would also arrange for their subsequent dispatch to the United Kingdom. In this connection, it was considered that enlistment of approved aliens should be carried out on the day on which they would be required to embark for the United Kingdom, and that they should be released from internment prior to that day.

(iii) The cost of transport from the West Indies to England would be met by the War Office.

(iv) An assurance would be required from the Colonial Governments concerned agreeing to permit the return to the Colonies of any aliens discharged from the Pioneer Corps, in the event of His Majesty's Government in Great Britain being unwilling to grant them permission to reside in the United Kingdom after the conclusion of their service in the Pioneer Corps, and that any expense so involved should be borne by the Colonial Governments.

(v) Aliens' wives, parents or dependents could not be permitted to come to the United Kingdom. It was suggested, therefore, that consideration should preferably be given to unmarried applicants (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1941: 615).

The Colonial Office was of the opinion that the Nigerian Government would, no doubt, consider whether among the internees transferred to Jamaica from the West African Colonies, there were any who might be included in these arrangements. If it would be necessary for any such internees to be discharged from the Pioneer Corps before the end of the war it would presumably be essential for them to be sent back to Jamaica for internment there. If, on the other hand, there were not discharged from the Pioneer Corps until after the end of the war and it was not then considered possible to allow them to reside in the United Kingdom, it would be necessary for them to be sent back to the West African Colony whence they would be transferred to Jamaica (NAI CSO 26/31594/S.25/V, 1941: 616).

6. Conclusion

The outbreak of the Second World War led to the internment of Germans and other enemy aliens in the British Empire. This wartime action against the enemy subjects was also carried out in British West Africa where legislation was also domesticated and implemented. Depending on the condition, there were intra and inter regional movements of the enemy internees in the British Empire.

With regard to the intra-regional movement, there was a request for the transfer of internees from Sierra Leone to Nigeria. For instance, Ulric and Charlotte Rietmann (Swiss-Hotel-Keeper with German wife) were in the internment camp at Freetown. There was no definite evidence against them of hostile association or activities, but they had opportunities as hotel-keepers to acquire and to impart valuable information. This made their internment advisable. The wife was pregnant and due for confinement in late or early December 1940, and the medical adviser had urged most strongly her removal to a more suitable place than Freetown. The Secretary of State, after consulting the Admiralty, suggested Buea in the Cameroons (Southern Nigeria) and Commander-in-Chief and Medical adviser concurred in this suggestion (NAI CSO 36117/I: 102). However, the Commissioner, Nigeria Police Force declined the request, noting that he saw no reason why undesirable aliens should be off-loaded on Nigeria just because the lady was pregnant, maintain that the Nigerian Government was considering ways and means by which undesirable aliens might be removed from Nigeria (NAI CSO 36117/I: 105).

Regarding inter-regional transfer, most of the internees in West Africa were transferred to Jamaica in West Indies in November 1940 due to the difficulty in the provision of suitable accommodation in West Africa for Europeans most especially in Sierra Leone. Those who were not transferred were either repatriated or released on parole.

While in Jamaica, representations were made by relatives in connection with the internees concerning their well-being. There was the consideration in the United Kingdom that internees in Jamaica who satisfied that they were opposed to the Nazi or Fascist systems might be given an opportunity of volunteering to enlist in the British Auxiliary Military Pioneer Corps or, in the case of skilled artisans, to undertake work in the United Kingdom.

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A Critical History of the Defining Features of Modern Science

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Abstract. Modern Science has a long history of what differentiates it from other disciplines. Its separation from philosophy in the 16th century marked its steady ascent into becoming the king of all knowledge-seeking disciplines. It is almost a given that science is a collection of facts; a body of knowledge that describes and explains the working of nature. The facts of science are fascinating and interesting, but they are not the very essence of science, rather, the excitement of science lies in its inquisitive and curious nature, its intriguing observations, its breath-taking experiments and mathematical proofs that defines its character and purpose. This paper attempts to dig out the defining features that distinguish modern science from other disciplines from its historical antecedents. It carries out a historical exegesis of the rise of modern science drawing out its defining characteristics, from the early Greek philosophers through the medieval era to modern times. It shows that the defining features of modern science are common place procedures carried out by people in their daily activities but, which, taken together as a research procedure, amount to one of the most powerful tools man has devised to know, to conquer, and to control nature.

1. Introduction

The topic of this paper presupposes the periodization of the history of science. The use of the term 'modern' specifically points to the features of science in the present or recent times and indirectly refers to the past of science. This is simply the case as there can be no conception of modern science without a reference to science in the past. The reference to the past of science is inevitable since it provides the ground for the proper characterization of what is referred to as modern science. It is therefore not the case that we can proceed in our attempt to outline the features of modern science without having a clear picture of what constitutes science prior to the emergence of modern science and how it has contributed to the development of the features of modern science. In other words, for us to be able to discern the defining features of modern science, we must first and foremost account for its historical preconditions. This exercise will place us at a vantage point to be able to spell out the defining features of modern science.

From the issue adumbrated above, it is apparent that the objective of this paper is to expose the defining features of modern science through a historical and expository approach. Hence, the paper accounts for the historical background to the development of modern science. It also examines the emergence of modern science with its root in the Copernican revolution. In addition, (based on the two preceding steps) the paper extrapolates the defining features of modern science.

1.1 The Historical Background to the Development of Modern Science

The history of the development of science reveals that every scientific breakthrough is usually preceded by a period of uncertainty as regards the proper explanation of the world or a particular challenge to humanity which requires an urgent and probable explanation. Thus, science is seen as a massive problem-solving and information-providing enterprise (Thompson 1). It is in this sense that we can appreciate the role of science in human civilization as a means of understanding and skillful manipulation of nature. And since every human age in history has certain problems and challenges, it follows that there has always been a scientific tradition in every age of human history. This is so because man has the natural inclination to sort for an understanding and explanation of the world around him. This view is corroborated by Uduigwomen when he writes that:

Man, it has always been claimed, has been a scientist since his appearance on this planet. This idea is supported by the fact that man's attempt at building, construction, agriculture and health care through the use of herbs has scientific bearings. (18).

The early human civilization as pioneered by science is traceable to the Babylonians and Egyptians. They are said to possess a considerable body of knowledge to the extent of being able to invent some instruments with which they understood explained and solved certain challenges posed by their environment. This achievement is in line with our earlier conception of science as a problem-solving and information-providing enterprise. Titus, Smith and Nolan articulate the scientific achievements of the Babylonians and Egyptians in early civilization as follows:

More than two thousand years before Christian era began, the Babylonians and Egyptians possessed a considerable body of knowledge. They used fixed units of measurements, such as standards of length, weight, and volume, a multiplication table, tables of squares and cubes, and a decimal system based on man's ten fingers. In Egypt, the periodic rise of the waters of the Nile, resulting in lost of boundary marks, led to a system of land-surveying that stimulated the growth of geometry. Instruments such as set squares; levels, beam balances, and plumb lines, as well as a considerable amount of mathematical knowledge, were needed to build the pyramids. Weaving and spinning were practiced and wheeled chariots were in use. (218).

Following the above scientific activities of the Babylonians and Egyptians, is the genius of the Greeks. With the Greeks, human consciousness and interest in man and nature expanded rapidly. This expansion was so massive that the development of science in the western world is often traced to ancient Greek (Uduigwomen 18). This became a necessary historical practice as the postulations of the pre-Socratic philosophers indicate a paradigm shift from a tradition of mythological explanation of the universe to a natural and rational one. Consequently, the scientific as well as philosophical spirit was born. In fact, the contribution of the Greeks is so great that many of the philosophical cum scientific terms used today are traceable to them.

However, it is pertinent to point out at this juncture that there seems to be some sort of links between the early civilization in Egypt and the scientific speculations of the Greeks. For instance, Thales, the first Ionian nature-philosopher from Greece is reported to have visited Egypt and to have become acquainted with the system of land-surveying in use there (Titus et al. 218). Upon his return from Egypt he advanced geometry and set forth his views about the watery nature of the universe. So, according to Uduigwomen, "as widely travelled people, the Ionians have gathered many ideas from Egypt and the oriental world which enabled them to focus attention on nature" (Philosophy & the Rise of…192).

1.2 The Early Greek Thinkers and the Features of Science

Here, attention will be focused on the basic postulations of the ancient Greek philosophers whose thoughts in one way or the other contributed to the features of modern science. Thus, a detailed discussion of their scientific thoughts will not be carried out as our aim is to excavate the features of modern science through a historical survey of the development of science.

The history of the development of science is usually traced to the pre-Socratic philosophers in ancient Greece, particularly the Ionians or Milesians (Thales, Anaximander & Anaximenes) whose philosophical speculations were mainly attempts to naturally explain the origin and structure of the universe. Thus, they were concerned with cosmology; the scientific study of the universe and its origin and development (Idang 31). Prior to the pre-Socratic philosophers, all natural events were attributed to supernatural causes and things were only understood through a mythological explanation of the universe. The Cosmos (universe) was believed to be inhabited by all sorts of gods, goddesses, godlets, demigods, demons, ancestral ghosts, and a host of other spirits. It was concluded then that events happen because they are willed by these supernatural forces. For instance, it was believed among the Greeks that if lighting strikes, then, Zeus has hurled another thunder bolt. When the sun moves through the heavens, all knew that Apollo is driving in it his fiery chariot (Christian 23). Thus, natural occurrences were explained through the activities of the gods who inhabited the natural world. For this reason, Ozumba concludes that "before the ancient period of philosophy, the thoughts and contemplation of the universe were steeped in mythology and superstition" (49). This mythological conception of the universe was given a literary sanction by Homer and Hesoid in their poetry.

Dissatisfied with this mythological explanation of the universe the pre-Socratic philosophers, particularly the Milesians (Thales, Anasimander, Anaximenes) sought a different kind of explanation; a naturalistic

approach to the understanding of the universe. This substantial departure became necessary when they (the pre-Socratics) could not see any rational justification for the mythological views. As such, they embarked upon the task of articulating a more rational, plausible and defensible explanation of the natural world. Popkin and Stroll delineates this philosophical cum scientific spirit of the Milesians as follows:

The thinkers who began the philosophical quest were those who found that when they scrutinized these beliefs they were seen to be inadequate…the explanations were always based upon insufficient evidence, and could never adequately account for all the information people had acquired about the world. Philosophers, to the dismay of their contemporaries, challenged the believers in mythology to provide their views, or to find a better theory, one that would satisfy reasonable people. Out of this rejection of traditionally accepted beliefs, and the search for more plausible or more defensible theories, came the attempts of thoughtful people to explain the natural world in some consistent and rational fashion (xvi).

From the above, it is evident that the Ionian philosophers established two basic traditions which have come down to be an integral part of modern scientific practice. First is the critical attitude and zeal for rational explanation of natural events. This is simply manifested in their rejection of old assumptions and paradigm of explanation and the adoption of a more rational and defensible explanation. Second is the explanation of natural event from nature itself. That is, the paradigm-shift from a supernatural approach to a natural approach of the explanation of the universe. Hence, the ancient Greek philosophers appear to have succeeded in recognizing the difference between a purely rational explanation of things as distinct from myth or religion (Idang 41). This is simply the idea of explaining nature from nature and it is a central feature in the practice of modern science. This credit to the pre-Socratic thinkers is been attested to by Owen when he writes that "their philosophies have been regarded as a pursuit of physical science in a quite positivistic mentality…or as a rational transcription of mythological traditions, or as an intellectual seeking of divine" (5).

At this point, one may begin to wonder how the pre-Socratic thinkers achieved this feat? It was simply through the observation of their immediate environment. They were referred to as a group of thinkers who developed theories to explain the nature of things, based on their observation of the natural world; they were, in effect, the first western scientists. (Thompson 12). In support of this position Onyewuenyi quoting Paul Glenn states that these philosophers:

…saw a world around them which evidently remained the same world, and yet was full of change, motion and of variety… the Ionians felt that, at the back of all changes and varieties in the world, there must be some one thing which is the fundamental material out of which all things are made-some "world-stuff" of which different things are the variant and manifestations (167).

It is important to note at this juncture that the postulations of these set of philosophers were purely speculative. That is, unlike modern scientists, there was no means of experimentation to test their postulations.

From the above, it is clear that although the explanations of the pre-Socratic philosophers were devoid of any physical means of arriving at knowledge. However, the idea of observation and theory formulation is a feature of modern science that is traceable to them. But, to put this argument in the proper context, it is imperative to briefly consider some outstanding scientific achievements of some selected individuals among these philosophers with a view to extrapolating the features of modern science therein.

The pioneering figure of early Greek science is Thales. He is reported to have lived between 624 and 547 B.C in Miletus, Greece. Although, Thales is credited with many scientific feats, but two cases are of primal concern here. First, he is said to have accurately predicted the eclipse of 585 B.C. But, how could he have done this without access to scientific apparatus as it is the case today? Perhaps, Idang's description of the inquisitive nature of Thales answers the question. According to Idang:

Thales was so interested in the heavens to the extent that while gazing upward and scanning the stars; he fell into a well. He became so famous for his practical shrewdness and theoretical wisdom by making important discoveries whose true origin were not known then and in some cases are still obscure (45).

The point in the above quotation is that Thales was always engrossed in the act of observing natural phenomenon. And observation today is a key feature of modern science. Secondly, Thales taught that water was the fundamental material out of which all things were made and the last into which they are resolved (Onyewuenyi 168).

From the above, it is evident that the explanations given by the ancient thinkers were devoid of any physical means of knowledge acquisition. That is, unlike modern science, there was no means of experimentation to test their postulations. However, the idea of observation and theory formulation that is the hallmark of modern science is traceable to them. For instance, Thales is claimed to have arrived at his thesis that water is the primordial stuff by a careful and meticulous observation that all substance are all ultimately reducible to this single element (water). Ozumba is of the view that Thales must have arrived at water based on the following reasons or observations:

That water pervades all things everything consists of water, water is the source of plant and animal life, water is capable of mutation giving rise to the three types of substance that is gaseous, solid and liquid, water is unlimited and contains the finite universe, the earth itself is borne of water, the seed of all things have moist nature and water is the origin of the nature of moist things. Nourishment, heat and living things come from water (51).

In fact, modern science has vindicated Thales as "only one oxygen atom separates Thales from modern physics, for we now consider all substances ultimately to be derived from hydrogen" (Thompson 13). Another clear feature of modern science traceable to ancient Greek thinkers is Mathematics. It was the Pythagoreans under the leadership of Pythagoras who first of all called the attention of the world to the importance of mathematics in the search for the ultimate reality. They attempted to explain everything in mathematical terms and believed that all things are numbers, and can be explained numerically (Idang 72). Quoting Aristotle, Omoregbe captures this point thus:

The so-called Pythagoreans, the first to be absorbed in mathematics, not only advanced this particular science, but having been brought up on it, they believed that its principles are the principles of all things. Now of these principles, numbers are naturally the first…in view of this, they took the element of numbers to be the elements of all things, and the whole heaven to be harmony and number… (9).

Leucipus and Democritus developed an important theory called atomism in the ancient period. Atomism is the view that all matter was composed of very small particles separated by empty space. (Thompson 13). They argued that if substance had different characteristics, it was because they were composed of different mixtures of atoms. They reached this conclusion through a reasoning process called induction. Induction is the process of reasoning that infers a general statement from a class of specific instances (Pence 28). Thompson articulates the inductive reasoning of the atomists as follows:

They saw that a substance can take on different forms -solid, liquid or gas, depending on temperature (as when water boils or freezes) and came to the general principle that the same atoms combine differently at different temperatures. In observing the world, looking for explanations for what they saw and moving from these to formulate general theories, these early philosophers were doing what we today recognize as science (13).

The above quotation clearly shows that the atomists laid the foundation for inductive method; a process that is certainly the hallmark of modern science. In addition, they utilized the principle of observation as the bedrock of the articulation of their theory. However, what they lack was any systematic or experimental method to confirm their theory.

In Aristotle (384-322 B.C) the process of scientific thinking became systematized. Aristotle argued that knowledge of the world comes through experience interpreted by reason; you need to examine phenomena, not turn away from them. (Thompson 14). As a result, Aristotle set out the different branches of science and divided up living things into their various species and genera. This process of classification is presently a major feature of modern science. In addition to the classification of things, Aristotle held that everything has a potential and a goal and that all occurrence are nothing but a process of actualization of a goal. Uduigwomen captures such Aristotelian classification in Biology as follows:

Aristotle bifurcated the physical world into organic and in organic. The former is marked by the possession of life or soul, and the later lack it. He classified living things in accordance with the amount of soul stuff they possessed. (Philosophy and the Rise… 197).

Aristotle's influence on science is not limited to the systematization of knowledge he also held the astronomical view that the earth is the centre of the universe, with the heavenly bodies rotating around it. That is, the earth was a sphere at a rest. The influence of Aristotle was so pervasive that all his thoughts were regarded as sacrosanct until the rise of modern science.

From the foregoing, it is clear that the pre-Socratics had speculated about the fundamental nature of things while Aristotle had developed key concepts

and systematized the sciences. But, in the real sense of the word 'science', Archimedes (287-213 BC) stands out as the practical scientist among them all. He achieved this by using experiment and theory to solve practical problems. Let us consider one practical example to justify this claim. It is reported by Thompson that Archimedes was given a task to find out if a crown was made of pure gold or if it has been debased. According to Thompson:

In order to achieve this objective, Archimedes reasoned along the line of his usual experience during bath by observating how water displaced as he got into his bath, he had a simple method of measuring volume by measuring the volume of water displaced when the crown was immersed in a container full of water. He checked it against the displacement produced by an equal weight of gold, found that its volume was greater and therefore concluded that a lighter metal had been added (16).

From the above experiment, Archimedes reasoned from the usual bath to the theory of displacement of water which provided a practical answer to the task at hand. This is simply an eye opener to see the importance of experimentation in our quest for knowledge. This Archimedes achievement was based on pure physical and mathematical theories. And all these are central to the activities of modern science.

The medieval period emerged after Aristotle and it is usually referred to as the Dark ages. This is because during this period there was no clear-cut distinction between philosophy and theology. In fact, philosophy was more or less an instrument in the pursuit of the interest of theology. It was a period of intellectual darkness as a result of the sacking of the Western Roman Empire in 476 A.D by the Barbarian Goths (Uduigwomen 198). Uduigwomen further delineates the characteristics of this period as follows:
Learning almost came to a standstill, as virtually the whole body of ancient literature was lost. Philosophy was however kept alive by Christian philosophers who became channels through which ancient Greek works were transmitted to the west. (Philosophy & the Rise…198).

Although, there is nothing much in history in terms of the identification of features of modern science to be credited to the medieval thinkers, but it would be a mistake to underestimate the role medieval thinking played in making science possible (Thompson 17). Aristotle's philosophy was accepted as the great authority. His overall metaphysics was synthesized with the basic teachings of Christianity. The result turned out to be both intellectually and emotionally satisfying. The thinkers of this period looked at deductive reasoning (Syllogistic logic) and revelation as their sources of knowledge. From this standpoint they taught they knew the meaning and the purpose of their own lives and of the universe. What then is their main contribution to science? The main contribution of the scholastic philosophers and theologians to science was their idea of nature as a rational, orderly whole. This concept is basic to modern science. (Titus et al 220).

The synthesis of this period therefore lies in seeing the universe as a rational entity, established by an 'unmoved mover', protecting the human mind against the despair and nihilism of a world where everything is a product of chance. It offered an intellectual structure in which the human life has purpose and meaning. In line with this thinking, modern science looks at natural events as obeying certain laws and principles in nature. And as such, modern science seeks to unveil these natural laws and principles in order to establish theories that account for the operation of the natural world. This is another important defining feature of modern science. However, it is important to point out here that the medieval thinking was based on authority and religion, whereas, modern science is based on evidence and reason.

2. The Rise of Modern Science

In order to put this discourse in its proper context, it is imperative to situate modern science within the ambience of its emergence. This exercise will place us at a vantage point to have a clear picture of the rise of modern science against the cultural background that conditioned it. However, a detailed examination of the views of the modern thinkers will not be undertaken as the paper is interested in only identifying the defining features of modern science as obtainable in their views.

The emergence of modern science coincided with the Renaissance and the Reformation spirit of the 17th century. At this period, there emerged in Europe a general appreciation of the value of human reason and its ability to challenge established ideas. Skepticism was widespread. The period witnessed political debate at every level of society, as witnessed in the Civil War in England and its aftermath. Consequently, the period witnessed the birth of new ideas, of individual liberty and of the overthrow of traditional authority, both political and religious (Thompson 21). With this background, the door was thrown open for scientists to engage in free rational

explanation of the world. Thus, the origin of modern science lies in the period of rapid scientific development that occurred in Europe between the years 1500 and 1750, which we now refer to as the scientific revolution (Okasha 2). The change that took place in terms of the use of reason and evidence is what is generally referred to as the scientific revolution. It was Nicolas Copenicus (1473-1543) who took the first crucial step in the development of the modern scientific world-view, and for that, the first scientific revolution was seen as the Copernican revolution. In *De Revolution bu Orbium* (1542), he claimed that the sun rather than the earth was at the centre of the universe and that the Earth rotates everyday and revolves around the sun once a year. In addition, he noted that there was no *Stella Parallex,* in other words that there was no shift in the relative position of the stars when seen from widely separated places on Earth. He reasoned, from this that the stars must be considerably further away from the Earth than was the sun. Clearly, this went contrary to the geocentric or Ptolemaic astronomy which lay at the heart of the Aristotelian world-view which had gone largely unchallenged for 1,800 years (Okasha 3). Within Copernicus heliocentric model, the earth is regarded as just another planet, and so loses the unique status that tradition had accorded it as a result of threat from the Catholic Church who regarded it as contravening the scriptures. The preface of Copernicus' book had an inscription suggesting that it did not claim to represent the way things actually were in the universe, but merely a convenient alternative way of calculating planetary motion. However, the work did establish that, on the basis of careful gathered evidence, it was possible to put forward a theory that contradicted the accepted view of the universe.

Based on the above scenario, Francis Bacon (1561-1626) initiated what was to become the norm of scientific method, by insisting that all knowledge should be based on evidence and experience. In doing this, he rejected Aristotle's idea that everything had a final cause or purpose. Rather than observing nature with preconceived notions about what should be found, he started with the observation of individual things, and from them reasoned toward general principles. (Then, here lies the first conscious articulation of the principles of observation and induction as methods of science). Bacon went further to warn us about 'idols' that are barriers in the way of knowledge. Thompson highlights these idols are follows:

- The wish to accept whatever evidence seems to confirm what we already believed.
- The distortion that results from our habitual ways of thinking.
- Muddles that come from a careless use of language.
- Accepting the authority of a particular person or group (21).

It is important to note that Bacon saw mechanical causation throughout nature. That is, everything happened because of prior causes and conditions. This effectively ruled out Aristotle's final cause. Thus, things happened for reasons that lay in the immediate past, not goals that lay in the future. Consequently, for modern science, natural events must be studied from the conditions that led to them in order to be prepared for such events in the future (Thompson 21).

Copernicus' attack on the geocentric view and Bacon's articulation of the methods of science or how science should progress led to the development of modern physics including the work of Johannes Kepler (1571-1630) and Galileo Galilei (1564-1642). According to Okasha:

Kepler discovered that the planets do not move in circular orbits around the sun, as Copernicus thought, but rather in ellipses. This was his crucial 'first law' of planetary motion; his second and third laws specified the speeds at which the planets orbit the sun (3).

Galileo on his part was a life-long supporter of Copernicanism and in the spirit of the Baconian scientific system he employed the use of the telescope to prove what Copernicanism stands for. That is, the claim that nature operates in a regular, mathematical way. This achievement led Einstein to describe Galileo as 'the father of modern physics' (Thompson 26). Okasha captures the impact of Galileo's scientific achievement as follows:

When he pointed his telescope at the heavens, he made a wealth of amazing discoveries, including mountains on the moon, a vast array of stars, sun-spots, and Jupiter's moons. All of these conflicted thoroughly with Aristotelian cosmology, and played a pivotal role in converting the scientific community to Copernicanism (4).

The enduring contribution of Galileo to science is not even in astronomy but in mechanics. Here, he refuted the Aristotelian theory that heavier bodies fall faster than lighter ones. In place of this, he reasoned that all freely falling bodies will fall towards the earth at the same rate, irrespective of their weight. Furthermore, he argued that freely falling bodies accelerate uniformly, that is, gain equal increments of speed in

equal times. This is known as Galileo's law of free-fall. In fact, to prove his case, Galileo conducted an experiment on the velocity of objects dropped from the Learning Tower of Pisa. Galileo's achievement in science can be summarized as follows:
He was the first to show that the language of mathematics could be used to describe the behaviour of actual objects in the material world, such as falling bodies, projectiles, etc… Another innovation aspect of Galileo's work was his emphasis on the importance of testing hypotheses experimentally… Galileo's emphasis on experimental testing marks the beginning of an empirical approach to studying nature that continues to this day (Okasha 5).

From the discussion so far, it is evident that the features of modern science is a gradual development of its methods from one stage in history to another. The above quotation in particular shows that all other developments and achievements in science are precipitated on the outlined features of science in the course of this discussion. Therefore, from the historical exposition of the development of science above, we can deduce or excavate the following defining features of modern science.

3. Features of Modern Science

From the foregoing, it is evident that although modern science was birthed out of the advancements of the renaissance and the age of reason, it is, however, a gradual process of development from the ancient period through the medieval period to a strong foundation in the modern period. Following this historical account of the development of science, it is clear that what is today known as modern science would not have been what it is, if its defining features had not been developed in one way or the other through the ages. It is on the basis of this that we took the pain in this work, to expose some of these features in their developmental stages in history. Thus, from our discussion so far the following defining features of modern science are deducible:

Inquisitiveness and Curiosity: This refers to the strong desire to know or unravel the reasons behind something. It is a thirst after knowledge. Modern science is constantly propelled into unraveling the secrets of nature through its undying desire to uncover the secret of nature. This leads to raising basic questions concerning a state of affair and it also defines the purpose of scientific research. For instance, a scientist may be curious to know the relationship between the colour of a bulb and the growth of grass seeds. As such, he would raise the question "Does the colour of a light bulb affect the growth of grass seed?"

Observability: This is central to any genuine scientific activity. As such, modern science is not an exception. As opposed to medieval science, which hailed theology and metaphysics as the principle of scientific knowledge, modern science only references natural objects which can be perceived by the five senses or can be perceived with the aid of instruments. So, observation is a matter of sense perception: we see, hear, touch, feel or smell something. On the basis of our observations we draw conclusions regarding relations, causal sequences, and the meaning of the situation. (Titus et al 223). Modern science emphasizes the act of watching something carefully for a period of time, in order to learn about it.

Formulation of Laws and Theories: Once facts have been observed, tested and re-tested, scientists try to arrange their observations in the format of expressions referred to as scientific laws. Observations which cannot yet be tested and proved on a consistent basis are referred to as scientific theories which are subjected to future tests for confirmation or otherwise. This explains why the postulations of the ancient Greek philosophers were regarded as scientific theories as they were observations that were at that time yet to be tested and proven.

Hypothesis Formulation: On the basis of observation and the derived laws scientists put up hypothesis in order to predict the outcome of a particular test or problem. Another term for hypothesis is 'educated or informed guess'. Hypothesis is therefore an idea or explanation of something that is based on a few known facts but that has not yet been proved to be true or correct. In other words, a hypothesis is a sort of draft law about what the world – or some particularly interesting aspect of it is (Medawar 84). This is usually stated like "if I… (do something) then…(this will occur)". For instance, "if I grow grass seeds under green light bulbs, then they will grow faster than plants growing under red light bulbs".

Experimentation: Here, scientists design a test or procedure to find out if their hypothesis is correct. In our example under hypothesis (item 4). Scientists would set up grass seeds under a green light bulb and a grass seed under a red light and observe each for a couple of weeks. They would also set up a grass seed under regular white light so that they can compare it with the others. This manipulation and control of the

environment of the object of study is basically what is referred to as experiment in science. It is central to the practice of modern science.

Mathematics: A strong emphasis on mathematics is another central feature of modern science that goes hand-in-hand with observability and experimentation. This is derived from Galileo's successful utilization of mathematical principles in presenting a superior conception of the universe (heliocentricism) as against the Aristotelian Ptolemaic conception of the universe (geocentricism). Consequently, Galileo's use of mathematics sparked the replacement of speculation with objective observation. Isaac Newton, one of the fathers of modern science, further solidified the importance of mathematics in theorizing that the entire universe could be explained through the use of mathematical models. In a more practical term, mathematics as a feature of modern science involves the use of statistical method. The term 'statistics' refers to the science of the collection, analysis, and classification of numerical data as a basis for induction. With the use of statistics, science helps us to predict the probability of events, to explain causes and effects, to describe type of phenomena, and to make comparisons through the use of tables, charts, and graphs (Titus et al 226).

Classification of the Sciences: Modern science can be divided into two different classes, which are known as applied science and pure science. Pure science describes the science of discovery. Applied science describes the process of developing new technology and products for consumers and often results from the experiments and theories of pure science. While both classes of science utilize the powers of observation, experimentation and mathematics, pure science is more concerned with expanding and testing the existing body of scientific knowledge while applied science seeks to put that knowledge to use.

The Inductive Method: The rise of modern science was characterized by a new seriousness with which evidence was gathered and examined in order to frame general theories. This process which is termed 'inductive inference' is the attempt to move from singular statements (that is, statements about things) to general or universal statements about the world, which could take the form of 'laws of nature'. This form of reasoning distinguishes modern science from what had gone before it. Central to the inductive method is the idea of sampling. This involves taking the nature of certain numbers of a class as an indication of the nature of the whole membership. This is based on the idea that if an experiment is performed only once, one may be uncertain of its results. If it is performed it 100 times, with the same result each time, one becomes convinced that the same result will be obtained every time it is performed. So, on the basis of selected cases a general conviction is drawn.

Instrumentalism: Instrumentalism as a feature of modern science can be understood in two senses. On the one hand, it refers to the use of instruments to enhance the senses in the observation of nature as evident in Galileo's use of the telescope in the study of planetary systems. On the other hand, it is a kind of anti-realistic view of scientific theories wherein theories are construed as calculating devices from a given set of observations to a predicted set of observations. (Audi 379). In other words, it refers to a conception of scientific theory as tools for predicting future occurrences. As such, it sees science in terms of its usefulness and ability to solve puzzles. This means that modern science is definable from a pragmatic rather than an absolute approach to truth.

4. Conclusion

Our discussion so far in this paper has shown that what constitutes science in the modern sense of the word is centred on the highlighted features above. That is, for any activity to be described as science today, it must possess the features discussed here. This is not to say that the paper has exhausted the defining features of modern science, but other features that may be identified are still part and parcel of the above identified ones in one way or the other. As such, the features pointed out in this paper can be regarded as the basic and most fundamental features of modern science. Consequently, this paper submits that any discipline worthy of the name 'science', must as a matter necessity, be definable within the limit of the above stated features in the final analysis.

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Biblical Prophecy: A Catalyst for National Transformation

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Abstract. Biblical prophecy in its character and form comprises the classical unity of prediction and proclamation, of foretelling and forth telling. Prophecy is a message from the divinity to humanity. Prophecy is the art of creating a bridge between the natural and the supernatural order. In most cases prophecy is directed at a particular person or group in a given situation. The main aim of prophecy is a positive change of attitude towards God or Man. The aim of this paper was to investigate the role Biblical prophecy played in the transformation of ancient Israel with the view of establishing its relevance in the Nigerian society. Historical method was used. It was discovered that Prophecy was used and still being used to regulate and control human behavior in ancient Israel and in the Nigerian society. The paper established that Prophecy has been instrumental to the growth and transformation of Nations. Prophets are therefore enjoined to use their office to foster unity and peace that will bring growth, development and transformation to the nation in which they serve.

1. Introduction

Prophecy is an age long practice in both biblical and non-biblical traditions. Prophecy simply means God speaking to his people. A careful study of the prophetic books revealed a concern not only for the future events, but also for the contemporary affairs. Most of the prophet's predictions were based on their observation of the present. They saw the coming calamity but with God, they expressed hope. Prophecy is not just the product of intellectual attainment or rational debate. Prophecy is the revealed truth that came from God to man. This paper considers prophecy as a gift from God to humans. Prophecy is God's way of transforming humanity to fit divine purpose.

One of the main functions of prophecy in ancient Israel is that it serves as a medium for transformation. This was because; the nation of Israel was born through prophecy (Gen. 12). From time to time, prophets in ancient Israel delivered oracles on how the nation will be sustained. Prophecy was used as a channel of communication between God and Man. Prophecy was used as an instrument to regulate human behavior and to control religious, political and economic space. This paper explored prophecy as a Catalyst in the growth, development and transformation of ancient Israel with the view of establishing its relevance in the Nigerian society.

2. Prophecy in Biblical Literature

Prophecy is inseparable from the religious life of Israel that antedated it and brought it into being. Biblical prophecy comprises prediction and proclamation, of foretelling and forth-telling. According to J.P. Baker, foretelling and forth telling serve as the primary nature of the Old Testament prophecy (Baker, 1980:1286). In other words, Old Testament prophecy has two sides. They are: forth telling- exhortation, counseling and prayer, and fore telling- prediction of the future. The prophet will first inform the audience of the way God is seen them and then proceed to tell them of the consequences of their actions. He will later advise them to turn a new leave to God and will be followed by what God will do depending on their response to God's word.

Deuteronomy chapter 18 verses 9-20 are usually pointed to as the passage that speaks with some details about the origin of prophetic institution. Here, God promised to raise a prophet who will act as a mediator between the people and God. It also submits that the prophet would speak unto them all the words, which God would place in his mouth. Two things are pointed to in this passage; that there would be a body of prophets, an institution and one great prophet who alone would be like Moses and he is the Messiah (Oludahunsi,2007:177).

However, during the mosaic era, they held the opinion that prophecy was bestowed directly by Yahweh on Old Testament prophet and not copied from other people; this view is linked to the fact that Moses was the standard of comparison for prophetic personages among the Jews. It is clear that prophecy is not limited to the Israelites; prophecy existed among all other nations. We must look further back to see the prophecy movement in Numbers 24:29. There is a story about the spirit of Moses which was transferred to the elder of Israel and enabled them to prophesy ecstatically (Erb, 1968:27).

It is a fact that a new form of prophecy began in Israel with Samuel. It was in his time that one began to hear of group of prophets and during this same time prophets in Israel increased numerically (I Kings 13:11; 20:20:35; II Kings 4:38; 6:1-7 etc). Samuel gathered about himself a prophetic band over whom he must have wielded considerable influence (I Sam. 19:28-24). It is quite likely that Nathan, Gad, and other prophets active in David's time received their impetus from Samuel (Schultz, 1960:121). The fact remain that, before Samuel there was only a little revelation from God (I Sam. 3:1), this suggests that when Samuel became a prophet, he trained others in the prophetic ministry as sons of ht prophets (Folarin, 2004:15).

However, we have what is called classical prophecy and these are the prophets who have their oracles in form of writing and they are also called the writing prophets. The great era of prophecy came with the rise of Amos and Hosea in the eight century B.C. Amos' prophecy is focused on the social condition of the people (Amos. 2:11-3:7), while Hosea's prophecy focused on the religious condition of the people, he gave an illustration on how God loves the Israelites and showed them how they were unfaithful to Him (Armerding, 64).

About half a century after Amos and Hosea, two prophets arose with a message of judgment for Judah. Isaiah of Jerusalem, one of the greatest of the writing prophets, directed his message of God's glory and ultimate triumph against all of the neighboring of Judah. Isaiah prophecy is in the light of the holiness of God as understood by the prophet through his own call, is "guilty" Along with the message of doom came the promise of a savior (9:6ff). Both Isaiah and Micah were contemporary and they use the future as an encouragement and consolation for those who will heed the message of judgment (Armerding, 65). Old Testament prophecy had the supreme element that differentiate the religion of Israel from other contemporary religion, and gave it a survival value that other contemporary religion did not have or possessed. The prophecy in Old Testament would be incomplete without mentioning Jeremiah and Ezekiel, both of them make several references to "the hand of Yahweh being upon them" (Scott, 1967:87).

Also we have Habakkuk, Obadiah, Nahum, and some other as writing prophets and they were also called classical Prophets in the Old Testament (Scott, 1967:88). However, the issue of prophecy is not limited to the Old Testament alone but there is continuity of prophecy in the New Testament.

Prophecy and prophets form the greatest line of continuity between the Old Testament and New Testament. This is evident from the attitude of Christ and the apostles, to Old Testament prophecy, from the continuation of the phenomenon of prophecy both up to and after the ministry of Jesus, form the prophetic character of his own ministry, from the placing of the inspiration of New Testament, and prophets alongside that of Old Testament prophets, and from the general outpouring of the Holy Spirit, the Spirit of prophecy came upon the church, leading to a continuous acceptance of prophets and prophesying in the New Testament churches (Baker, 1980:1285).

As a matter of fact, the Old Testament prophetic lien did not end with Malachi, but with John the Baptist, as our Lord expressly declares (Matt. 11:13). Prophetic utterance of John's father Zechariah, and of Anna, Simeon and Mary at the beginning of Luke's Gospel all bear witness to the continuance of prophetic inspiration (Lk. 1:46-55; 67-79; 2: 26:38) (Baker, 1980:1285).

Since the beginning of the church age, it was signified by a remarkable awakening of the spirit of prophecy and the experience was Joel.

And it shall come to pass after wards that I will pour out my spirit upon all flesh; and your sons and daughters shall prophecy, your old men shall dream dreams, your young men shall see visions. And also upon the servants and upon the handmaids in those days I will pour out my spirit… for in Mount Zion and in Jerusalem shall be deliverance, as the Lord has said, and in the remnant whom the Lord shall call (Joel 2:28-32) NIV.

Moreover, the Lord Jesus Christ himself had seen in His own equipping for ministry the fulfillment of the promise of the spirit when he quoted 61:1ff of Lk. 4:17ff. The spirit of the sovereign Lord is on me, because the Lord has anointed me to preach good news to the poor. He has sent me to bind up the

broken-hearted, to proclaim freedom for the captives raise from darkness for the prisoners (Isa. 62:1 NIV). To the people of his time Jesus was a prophet, strong in action, and utterance. He was acclaimed a prophet both by the nature of his preaching and teaching and by the miracles that he performed. And occasionally he referred to himself in the same way (Matt. 13:57; Mk. 4:24) (Napier, 1962:919).

It is evident that the whole Jewish apocalyptic literature of the period testified to the general expectation of the drawing of the "last days" and the bestowal of the spirit of prophecy. Thus the demonstration of the spirit on the day of Pentecost was the opening of a new era in the religious history of mankind. Tongues were loosed and the impulse of prophecy spread like wild fire among the converts to the new faith of Christianity. Jesus Christ Himself says he came not to abolish the law and the prophets but to fulfill them (Matt. 5:17), and he indeed based his understanding of his mission upon their predictions (Onsachi, 79).

The persecution which followed the stoning of Stephen scattered the disciples widely and multiplied the number of those who sought to interpret "the sign of the times." It thus came about that each little community of believers heard those among them who "spoke as the Holy Spirit gave them utterance and they were regarded as prophets of the Lord (Mitchell, 1930). Notable in Acts of the Apostles is prophet Agabus in chapter 11:28, 21:10, he predicted the great famine throughout all the world which came to pass in the day of Claudius Caesar and the arrest of apostle Paul by the Jews in Jerusalem. The church in Antioch according to the account in Acts 13:1-2 shows that prophets and teachers among who are Banabas, Simeon called. Niger, Lucius and Saul. Judas and Silas (Acts 15:32) were all prophets who exhorted the Gentile Christians with many words and were confirmed (Mitchell, 1930).

However, as far as Paul is concern, prophecy was of God's greatest gifts to His church for edification (I Cor. 14), and he ranked the prophet second only to an apostle in honor and importance (I Cor. 12:28-29). By "prophecy," Paul understands intelligible preaching that builds up the church in faith (Rom. 12:6), He explains mysteries, and impart knowledge (I Cor. 13:2). In (I Pet 1:10), the prophet's concern is the searching of scripture for the witness of Christ, and the book of revelation make us understand that, witness to Jesus is the "spirit of prophet." The entire book of revelation is a classic example of Christian prophecy (Rev. 1:3; 22:7; 18-19) (Gray, 1962:919).

Though cast in an apocalyptic form, it is the proclamation of a man in the spirit" who expounds from the imagery of the Old Testament the new relation of God's victory in Christ and in those who belong to Christ. Therefore, the issue of prophecy is also present among the Christian up till today and it is one of the gift of the church.

3. Biblical Prophecy as Catalyst for National Transformation

It is important at this juncture to define the word Catalyst and Transformation. A Catalyst is something that causes a change or events to happen (1992:174). In other words, a Catalyst brings about a change in individuals and in a given society without its self-changing. Catalyst increases or speeds up the rate of change. The word Transformation means a total change of something or individuals. Transformation means complete change usually into something with an improved appearance or usefulness. It is a process of changing something for the better. The Greek word for 'transform' is *metamorphoo,* a combination of two Greek words: *meta* meaning 'change' and *morphoo* meaning ' form'. Therefore, *metamorphoo* means to 'change' into another form (Ajala, 2009:23).

Also, the word means a change of condition. According to Groenewald (1999:18), to 'transform' is to change in form or appearance; in condition, nature or character. Transformation or change can occur as a result of revolution, emergence of common purpose, external influences such as culture contact or conquest as well as fortuitous occurrences. As mentioned earlier, prophecy is both foretelling and forth telling. Prophecy is God communicating with Man. Prophecy acted as a Catalyst in the growth and development of ancient Israel. Prophecy as the word of God does not change. In most cases prophetic oracles were meant to bring about a positive change in humans. For instance, God declare through Isaiah the Prophet in Isaiah 1: 18-20:

Come now let us settle this, says the Lord. Though your sins are like scarlet, I will make them as white as snow. Though they are red like crimson, I will make them as white as wool. If you will only obey me, you will have plenty to eat. But if you turn away and refuse to listen, you will be devoured by the sword of your enemies. I the Lord have spoken! (NLT)

It is clear from this passage that God wanted a change for the better from the nation of Israel. It is this change that will bring peace and prosperity in the land. It was through prophecy that Israel knew the mind of God. Israel will prosper through prophecy. Disobedience to prophetic message earned Israel

captivity, sufferings of all sorts, sickness, death and all forms of misfortune (Jer. 26:8-16). The prophets in ancient Israel distinguished themselves by their proclamation of punishment for sin and restoration through repentance. Their message was predominantly a call to repentance and turning back to God as the absolute source of morality. They stressed that God would punish the people with exile, due to their lack of the fear of God (which manifested in various forms of vices) but if they repent and turn to God, they would be restored to their land.

A prophet is that individual who prophesies. A prophet is first and foremost a preacher, who calls people to repentance. Prophets discharged their duties when they are inspired. Sometimes the prophet often criticized individuals who violated God's command. For instance, a prophet rebuked David for adultery and murder (2 Sam. 12:4) while Amos berated women who oppressed the poor, crushed the needy, and lorded it over their husbands (Amos. 4:1) (Shield, 2002:66-88). God chose the channel of prophecy to reach out to Man with definite instructions. Divine instructions are for the good order and governance of the people. Whenever prophetic oracles are obeyed, there is peace, progress and development in the land. Israel suffered exile many times because she jettisoned prophetic oracles (Jer. 25: 1-11).

The Bible establishes the fact that God created Man in his own image and intended him to attain to his likeness. Furthermore, God often share communication with man in the Garden of Eden. Communication was another bond between man and God. God instructed man not to eat fruits from a certain tree but man contravene divine instruction. This led to separation from God. It is through the instrumentality of prophecy that man will be restored. Communication means sharing and this means prophecy. Prophecy is a part of divine self- disclosure or self-revelation to man to increase man's knowledge of God and the understanding of his ways (cf. Ps. 103:7). God was eager to disclose something of himself, his will or his ways to his people, as they were also willing to receive from him.

Israel is a product of prophecy. God called Abraham with a promise to make of him a great nation (Gen. 12). The covenant God cut with Abraham was prophecy- laden (Gaebelein, 1990:115-116; Collins, 2005:61). As a prelude to the formation of the nation, the God of Israel sought for himself a prophet to entrust his instructions, directions, judgment and states to him. According to Hosea the prophet: "The Lord used a prophet to bring Israel up from Egypt, by a prophet he cared for him" (Hosea 12:13, NIV). Hosea also indicted Israel for its rebellions against the Lord who had been good to her (Hosea 12:14). From the fore going it is clear that prophecy is an essential ingredient for growth and development of Israel.

In ancient Israel, the prophets assumed the role of divine assessors of the nation's life, conduct and relationships. In this role they complemented the priestly functions with their spontaneous critique of the social order. This is evident from the writings and actions of the prophets. Through the prophets Yahweh made his will and demands known to Israel as the covenant people. Whenever Israel was disloyal to the terms of the covenant, Yahweh raised prophets to bring the people back into his kind of relationship. To the prophets, Israel's history was a continual chain of sin and fruitlessness (Howard, 1969:191). As far as Anderson was concerned, "the prophet speaking under the influence of the Yahweh's Spirit was able to interpret the meaning of events and proclaim the will of God in concrete terms" (Anderson: 1975:231). Thus, prophets challenged people to right living by demanding a religion that translated into the socio-political and economic dimensions of life. Whenever Israel complied with Yahweh's instruction there was growth and development in the nation.

Also, it was a normal practice in ancient Israel for people to consult God in difficult situations through the prophets. People from all walks of life consult prophets for divine direction and intervention in their existential concerns. Prophetic consultation ranged from private matters such as a word about lost donkeys (1 Sam. 9: 3-10), the outcome of an illness (2 Kgs. 1:2; 8: 7-15) to national or international issues (1 Kgs. 22:6). Some prophecies were received heartily but others were rejected because they did not answer the presuppositions of the inquirer. This was the case of monarchical consultations with the prophets.

Furthermore, a careful study of the prophecies in ancient Israel revealed that prophets were concerned with justice and fair play. The prophets condemned oppressive regimes and leaders, and demanded a fair deal and treatment for the poor. The prophet aimed at some forms of social control that will result in reforms and development, to improve the pitiable social condition of the poor. The prophets were concern with the political and social questions of their generation. They were interested in social justice as well as religious orthodoxy. They rebuked unequal and unkind practices in the administration of

justice (Awojobi, 2018: 118). The prophets declared that God is interested in justice for all and sundry. In line with God's action of benevolence and fairness, God expects that humans would display similar behavior or rather replicate his fairness and magnanimity among the humans and nations (Amos 1:3-2:5). Israel and other nations of the world will be judge because of their sinfulness (Sweeney, 2000, 200-203; Sunukjian, 1985: 1428-29). God's declaration of judgment is tied to His irrevocable right over the nations as the creator and as the standard of justice for mankind (Finley, 2015:1).

Besides, the prophets were Yahweh's mouthpiece. According to Leon J. Wood, the prophets hold a unique place in the history and development of Israel and the ancient Near East. This is evident by their writings which have been of great importance in world history (Wood, 1979:13). Wood also observed that they were specially called people. They did not come to office by inheritance, having been born into a prophetic tribe or family; nor was a son of a former prophet automatically made a prophet because he was the son of such a person. Each person was chosen by God to do a specific assignment (Wood, 1979:1). Prophets spoke in the time of historical and moral crisis. There would not have been the need for prophets if not for crisis at one time or the other. When the literary prophets are posted, it will be noted that they are clustered around critical historical events or eras (Bullock, 1986:28).

Moreover, prophecies in ancient Israel were oracles of hope of resuscitation and restoration. For instance, the oracles of Ezekiel were deeply rooted in hope for the nation in exile. Charles Lee Feinberg captured the entire book when he observed two purposes for the book: "(1) to remind them of the sin which had brought judgment and exile upon them and (2) to encourage and strengthen their faith by prophecies of future restoration and glory" (Feinberg, 1974:13). It should be noted that the house of Israel at this time was looking forward to restoration which Ezekiel saw in the vision of the resuscitation of the dry bones (Ezek. 37). The message of Ezekiel in chapter 37 is an indication that God who is sovereign remains faithful to his people in exile with a hope of rebranding them in form of resuscitation, restoration, development and deliverance from suffering (McConville, 2002:102).

It should be noted that from the time of Saul, Yahweh has always prophetic oracles from the prophets to influence political decisions of the nation. Israel went into Assyrian and Babylonian captivity because she ignored warnings from the prophets. It was Prophet Samuel that enthroned Saul and David. Prophet Nathan gained position of great influence in the royal court during the reign of David. Nathan's oracle on Yahweh's covenant with David had lasting effects on Israel's life and thought. However, when King David abuses his power, Nathan did not spare him (2 Sam. 12: 1-15). In the time of political crisis and aggression of foreign nations that threatened Israel's national life, prophets do deliver oracles of victory to Israel and enjoined her to put her trust in Yahweh alone.

Also, as noted earlier in the study, a prophet in ancient Israel was an individual called by Yahweh and given a message for a particular person or group. There were false prophets in Israel as well as in Nigeria today. These are persons who claimed to have been called by God to the office of the prophets but are not. The false prophets are fetish, materialistic and commercial preachers. Their interest is in pecuniary gains and not national growth and development. They extort money from the poor and the rich.

In Nigerian society today, the impact of prophecy on the growth, development and transformation of the nation cannot be overemphasized. From time to time prophets in Nigeria are consulted by the people to know what the future hold in stock for them. At the end of the year, some prophets in Nigeria predict what will happen the following year. As mentioned earlier, prophecy is a divine message from God transmitted to man through his appointed human agent. The state of human relationship, as well as man's relationship with God is of utmost importance to the way God views his dealings with man. God works through the prophets to disclose, his attitudes, intentions, or expectations to man. Israel as a covenant nation was expected to guard her relationship with Yahweh jealously. However, Israel erred many times in keeping the terms of the covenant but God will always send series of warnings to them to avoid tragic consequences, or admonitions in the face of adversities to encourage the afflicted and spur them on to victory. The prophets in Nigeria are to emulate the prophets in ancient Israel by communicating divine messages to the people from time to time. The ancient Israelite Prophets proclaimed their messages faithfully and God backed them up with divine power. It was the divine power that working with the proclaimed message that transformed the hearts of individuals, and by extension, the entire community.

It is believe that there can be no meaningful development without ingredients like justice, faithfulness, righteousness, true love, peace and

holiness among the citizenry. The prophets have the responsibility of addressing the factors that want to militate against these ingredients. It would be recalled that prophets in ancient Israel demanded justice for the oppressed in the land. The situation in Nigeria is similar to that of the ancient Israel. Political leaders in Nigeria are involved in any form of in justice against the poor. Injustice meted against the poor and the needy are always the product of the rule of evil men and women who consequently set aside God's righteous laws. They bribe their way through in everything. The judicial processes have been compromised. Justice is now for the highest bidder. True prophets in Nigeria should concern themselves with social justice. It is a good thing to have pity on the victims of injustice and change the evil social structures and unjust situations that we see on a daily bases in the streets, cities, courts, government institutions and so on. Like their counterpart in ancient Israel, prophets in Nigeria are to champion the fight against any form of injustice in the nation.

It is only when people are transformed that they can make meaningful contribution to the society. For no society can rise beyond the level of its morality. The faith based organizations have the responsibility to inculcate moral principles in their members. The impact of Christianity is on Africa is believed to be a variant of globalization. Consequently, moral transformation of Nigeria is considered as a positive influence of globalization (Familusi, 2013:247). Transformation is not merely a set of ideas or theories. It means empowerment, justice, healing, reconciliation and freedom. Transformation has to do with building character. It is becoming obvious that that the message about transformation is missing in the Nigerian Church today. The real goal of the Church is to see that Christ is formed in people within the Christian Community. When this happened, the Christian community will then become agent of transformation in the Society. Besides, prophecy regulates and control human behavior. For instance, if a prediction is negative the recipient will pray to avert it. If a prediction is positive recipients are seen praying to speed up the fulfillment of the prophecy. In Nigeria today, those who have been living carelessly will suddenly turn a new leaf to God to avert calamities predicted. Murderers, thieves, and rouges have been known to change from their wicked ways for fear of the bad things predicted as consequences of their actions (Dada, 2018:190).

4. Conclusion

It is clear from our study that prophecy was a Catalyst to the growth, development and transformation of nations. Israel was born and sustained through prophecy. Prophecy was used as a channel of communication between God and Man. Prophecy was used as an instrument to regulate human behavior and to control religious, political and economic space. The prophets are expected to declare the mind of God to their audience. Prophetic oracles were aimed at transforming the recipients. Anytime Israel erred God will send his prophets with message of repentance and if she refuse to yield message of punishment will follow. The transformation experienced in ancient Israel was due to her response to prophetic oracles. In the same vein, the Nigerian society is expected to give appropriate response to the messages from true prophets so as to experience transformation. The messages of the prophets in the Church in Nigeria today, must be accompanied with life transforming power which is capable in changing the lives of the people morally and socially.

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An Appraisal of Missions in the Calvary Grace Bible Church, Oyo, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study appraises Missionary activities in the Calvary Grace Bible Church, Inc in the light of Paul Missiology. The main focus of this study was on the methods and impacts of both ministries in the contemporary world. It was established that although methods can vary with time and place but the principles remain the same. Some mission strategies that were not known to Paul were seen adopted in the Calvary Grace Bible Church. But both missions are seen addressing issues as occasions allow it. It was therefore recommended that we must must do as much as possible to care for the physical needs of our members and especially the needy ones in our communityand also use our stewardship of "influence or connection" to find jobs for numerous Christian that are around us.

Keywords: Missions, Church, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The preaching of the gospel began in a wholly Jewish situation. The first Christians were Jews, and they continued to live and worship like Jew. The main difference between the Christian Jew and the traditional Jew was that the one believed in the Messiah who had come, who had been crucified and resurrected from the dead; the other believed in a messiah who was still to come. The Christian Jews continued to observe temple worship, circumcision, the Sabbath, and all the other matters of the Mosaic Law. When gospel went to the Gentiles, Jewish Christians expected Gentiles believers to be circumcised before they can be baptized. In short, they demanded that Gentiles become Jews before they could become Christians. Paul never agreed with this Jewish Christian view of the gospel. He held that Gentiles believers could be baptized as Gentiles (Akano, 2015:159).

The correctness of Paul's position was put to the test at the end of his first missionary journey. When, on his arrival in Antioch, he reported the conversion of the Gentiles, some Christians came from Jerusalem with the teaching, "Unless you are circumcised according to the custom of Moses, you cannot be saved" (Acts 15:1). This was the important matter that confronted the church. Paul presented the case before the council of apostles and elders in Jerusalem. After a long debate, the council agreed with Paul, but it asked the Gentile believers not to offend Jewish Christians by conduct with respect to certain Jewish customs (Acts 15:12-21) (Akano 2015). Paul's drastic approach to Christian values and practices attracts the interest and attention of scholars across ages and the globe. This also is the main thrust of this study as this researcher intends to evaluate the missionary activities in the Calvary Grace Bible Church, Inc. in the light of Pauline Missiology. It is mportant, in this work, that we shall see the methods, impacts, and the related segments.

2. The Methods And Impact Of Paul's Missionary Activities

Many things have been said and written on Paul, and his mission works. It is the view of some scholars that Paul ranks next, only to Jesus, in prominence and influence on Christian theology and missions. Hauer and Young (1994), in particular, note that Paul stands next after Jesus in terms of influence. According to Fuller (2001), "Paul was a powerful missionary model. He told people in 1 Corinthians 4:16 and Philippians 3:17 to emulate him and his colleagues" (p. 29). In a shortened form, Fuller (2001) later gives Paul's methods of Evangelism as follows: Paul had a traveling ministry. After evangelizing and gathering a church, he set up local leaders (Acts 14:23) and moved on, coming back to visit them (15:36, 41) and

writing to them from time to time. He used the Jewish community, if there was one, as a starting point, and got converts from it who knew the Old Testament and understood something of God. He went to larger cities that became centers to evangelizing the rural areas around them (Acts 19:10, 26; Col. 1:7-8). He used signs and wonders (Rom. 15:19). And he supported himself most of the time by making tents (Acts 18:3; 2Thess. 3&-10).

McCain (2004) and Greenway (1999) give deeper and more detailed analyses of these methods in their respective books. While McCain identifies eight methods that Paul used in his missionary endeavors, Greenway accordingly identifies seven, summing up Paul's methods to fifteen he used in the course of his missionary career. McCain's eight Pauline methods are:

- Concentration on population centers
- Beginning with the Jews and expanding to the Gentiles
- Focusing on leaders and people of influence
- Use of team effort
- Use of the supernatural in Evangelism
- Use of discipleship and follow-up
- Taking advantage of his personal strengths and natural advantages.
- Taking advantage of natural opportunities that afford.

In the same perspective, Greenway gives the following seven methods:

- The confrontation of people with the saviourhood and Lordship of Christ and urging them to submit their hearts and lives to Him.
- Focus on families and households in both Evangelism and outreach into society.
- Stressing of the importance of planting and nurturing churches and communities of faith, worship, followership, and service.
- Concentrating on developing local leaders in the churches and placing them in charge as soon as possible
- Use of natural "bridges" of families, relatives, friends, and contacts in spreading the gospel.
- Starting of "house churches" everywhere he went, which became living cells of the body of Christ.
- Teaching believers to promote justice, truth, and mercy in society and care for the Lord's earth.

After a careful examination of these methods given by the two scholars above, ten different methods were extracted, determined, and established. With respect to the impact of Paul's mission on the church, one can say with confidence that the fact that he set the pace for others to follow in all Christian matters remains a universal truth. Writing on what he calls "Pauline Mission," Boer (1976:22) states that "thus began the Christian life and the missionary career of the man better known to all as Paul, who became the father of Gentile mission and the author of nearly one-fourth of the New Testament." He further says that "The thirty years following his conversion were of the greatest importance for the life of the church." It was Paul who created Christian. Before he did so, the Nazarenes (those who followed the teachings of Jesus Christ after His death), was a Jewish set. Paul brought in various esoteric thoughts and pagan ideas and applied them to his own ideas about Jesus Christ. He also expanded his mission to the Gentiles. As a result, Christianity moved away from its Jewish roots. The Gentile influence subsequently resulted in additional pagan beliefs being applied to the gospel of Jesus, such as the virgin birth. When the gospels were written decades later, the original story of Jesus

Christ was modified to reflect many of these extraneous ideas. Jesus undoubtedly would have been horrified by much of what Paul brought into the church, particularly his deification. Paul is not more or less the founder of Christianity as it exists outside the Middle East proper. He founded the early churches outside of the holy lands and spent the rest of his life offering them guidance and advice (which we will have in the form of the Pauline letter waking up a huge portion of the New Testament). He also serves as a remarkable example of redemption because he was well known for his persecution of Christians prior to his conversion on the road to Damascus. Paul identified his apostolic message with that of the Old Testament Prophets, by saying that the gospel contains what the Old Testament prophets have foretold. They prophesied the death and resurrection of Jesus and that He would be light to the Gentiles. The difference between Paul's message and Old Testament Prophets is that while the prophets foretold the coming of Jesus, preached the fulfillment of the prophetic message. He became a servant and a witness after the Damascus road experience. His own mission is stated in Acts 26:18 thus:

"To open their eyes and turn them from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan to God, that they may receive forgiveness of sins and an inheritance among those who are sanctified by faith in me."

Boer (1976) gives three main areas in the affairs of the church; this study calls the impact of Paul's missionary activities. The contributions include the establishment of the gospel in foreign nations like Asia Minor, Macedonia, and Greece, allowing Gentiles to be a true worshipper of Yahweh without forcing them to go through circumcision and other Jewish rituals and his body of letters. Among the churches, Paul founded in foreign countries that stand out for both strategic importance and for the length of time he labored in them are Ephesus and Corinth. About twelve years, Boer says, "lie between Paul's conversion and his first missionary journey (A.D. 36-48").

3. History Of The Church

The Calvary started was founded in Araromi (Oyo East Local Government area) in 1988 under the leadership of Rev. Dr. Femi Afolabi. Calvary Grace Evangelical Ministries is seven-fold ministries hence the pluralization of the name as Ministries. The seven arms are:

- Calvary Grace Bible Church
- Calvary Grace Home Mission (including Media)
- Calvary Grace Foreign Mission
- Calvary Grace Campus Church
- Calvary Grace Financial Project
- Calvary Grace Educational Project
- Calvary Grace Literature Ministry (Afolabi, 2014:26).

The Ministry was registered with the Corporate Affairs Commission with the following members of Board of Trustees:

- Revd. Dr. Femi A. Afolabi------General Overseer
- Pastor Ruth Adeoti Afolabi-------Member
- Pastor Moses Adewusi----------Member
- Pastor Solomon Kolade----------Member
- Elder Muritala Aworinde (now late)—Member

It was registered with the Number 12648 on February 3, 2000.

The Lord has helped the Ministries to plant churches at Iseyin, Ondo, Ile-Ife, Ila Orangun, Ilorin, Jikwoyi (Abuja FCT), Kurudu (Abuja FCT), Haikimi (Abuja FCT), Jaina (Abuja FCT), Aawe Town, Tobacco area Oyo, Jagun (Oyo), Emmanuel Alayande Campus (Oyo), Isale-Oyo (Oyo) (Afolabi, 2014:31).

4. The History of Rev. Dr. Femi A. Afolabi

Femi Adejare, Afolabi was born in 1956 to the family Pa and Madam Afolabi in Oyo Town, Oyo State. Both parents were committed members of Christ Apostolic Church, Oke-Isegun, Baago, Oyo. Thus Femi Afolabi was brought up in an atmosphere of Christian religious influence and activities. There is no doubt that parents are the primary agents of helping children to cultivate beliefs and practices (Falaye, 2010:146). Thus the Christian home is a good ground for introducing the children to the basic doctrine of Christianity in practice and faith. According to Falaye, children can be trained to study and appreciate the word of God before being exposed to the external influence of their peers and colleagues outside the corridors of their homes (Falaye, 2010:146). Falaye, quoting Roberts Liardon even advised parents that they should let their children to be occupied with the move of God as it is essential and important to the teaching and training of the children in the things of God (Falaye, 2010:146).

Though, this belief may be opposed to some children who distanced themselves from the ways of God in spite of the fact that their parents were ablaze for the Lord. Such examples include the children of Eli, Samuel (1Samuel 3-4, 8:1-4). We must not overlook cases where some great men of God brought up and nurture from ungodly or idolatrous homes. For example, Abraham was brought up by idol worshippers before God called (Gen. 12:1-3). Binta Jalingo, a great Evangelist, came from a Muslim home. Falaye made mention of Argyle and Beit – Hallahmi, who argued that many factors determine the religious attitude of individuals. According to him, few of them are hereditary, while a large percentage is environmental (Falaye, 2010:147).

Femi Afolabi attended St. Michael Anglican Primary School, Kano, in Kano State of Nigeria between 1961 and 1968. After his primary school education, he gained admission to Oranyan Grammar School, Oyo, in 1969 and graduated in 1973. He proceeded to St. Andrew's College of Education, now Emanuel Alayande College of Education in1974, for one year Grade II Teacher Training course. He later gained admission into the Federal College of Education in Dustsin-ma, Kastina state between 1976 and 1979 for his National Certificate in Education, after which he has his NYSC in Mubi, Gongola State because those are the years when NCE graduates were allowed to serve their nation. He went to the University of Ilorin for a first degree in Education from 1982 to 1985 when he studied Educational technology and also bagged his Master's degree and Ph.D. in Educational

Technology in 1990-1992 and 2002-2006 respectively (Afolabi 2019). He attended the Proof Producers Bible College in Ibadan/Oyo campus in the year 1993 for his Diploma in Theology and was fully ordained as the minister of the gospel in that year. Femi Afolabi's working career dates back to 1979 when he worked as a primary and Secondary school teacher (Afolabi 2019). He gained employment with the government of Oyo State after his Masters in Educational Technology in 1993 as a lecturer at Emmanuel Alayande College of Education Oyo, and he retired as a chief lecturer from the Department of Educational Technology in the year 2017 (Afolabi 2019).

Before December 1, 1973, Femi Afolabi was a young boy who was full of himself. He said:

"I walked tall and often basked in the euphoria of my academic achievements. All through my study in Oranyan Grammar School, Oyo, in Oyo State between 1968 and 1973, there was hardly a subject I did not receive a prize for at the end of each session. If I did not come first, it would be second or third. Girls in the school wanted to associate with me, and I was the focus of every student. I was the boy to beat. Even though I was active in the Students' Christian Movement (SCM), I had no touch with heaven at all; I was full of pride. I considered all my achievements as being the result of my personal effort "(Afolabi 2014:5-6).

He graduated from Oranyan Grammar School, Oyo, in June 1973 but could not gain admission to any University in Nigeria. His dream of becoming a Senior Advocate of Nigeria (SAN) and a world-renown Conference Speaker became dashed because he has P7 in English Language. His pride beclouded his reasoning, and he decided not to retake the examination. So, he traveled to his elder sister, who was resided in Ibadan to get a job at the Kingsway Stores where she was working then. He considered this a face-saving plan, not knowing that God knew all that was about to happen to him. According to him, "That memorable day came December 1, 1973, by 8 pm, in that big church. There was no altar call, no invitation; in fact, there was no salvation message. Senior Apostle Joseph T. Durojaye was leading a prayer session; while we were praying, I fell into a trance and saw a man carried a kettle of water and was running along a path. I saw myself running after him with great thirst, and instantly the trance went off" (Afolabi 2014:7). The service ended, and they went home. He then asked his aunt, Mrs. Deborah A. Fasoyin, what the revelation meant for, and she said that she has been interceding for him for a long period of time and that it was time for him to give his life to God by accepting Christ as his personal Lord and Saviour. Having listened to his aunt's explanation of the revelation, he then gave his life to Jesus Christ in her home on the same day, and his life was changed.

This testimony tends to confirm that there is a world of difference between being born into a Christian home and being born again. In other words, parental faith cannot confer upon a person the experience of spiritual rebirth. According to Falaye, Regeneration means that change of heart and nature, which a man goes through when he becomes a true Christian (Falaye 2010:149). Falaye says this change of heart in a true Christian is so complete, that no word could be chosen more fitting to express it than that word, "Regeneration" or "New Birth." He explains further; doubtless, it is no outward bodily alteration, but undoubtedly it is an entire alteration of the inner man. It adds no new faculties to a man's mind, but it certainly gives an entirely new bent and bias to all his old ones. His will is so new, his opinions so new, his views of sin, the world, the Bible, and Christ so new, that he is to all intents and purposes a new man (Falaye 2010:149). Apart from this foregoing personal encounter, Femi Afolabi claimed that he was divinely called into the Ministry. Generally, all Pentecostals believe in two kinds of calls. Falaye explains that there is the universal Christian call, and there is a specific call of individuals to special assignments by God. He goes further to explain that the great commission: "Go ye into the entire world and preach the gospel to every creature" (Matt. 28:19-20) represents a general call of God meant for all who profess faith in Christ the Saviour. Hence every born again Christian by virtue of that commission is qualified to be a preacher and minister of the word of God (Falaye 2010:150). On the other hand, he explains that there are those who receive specific calls to begin a church or Ministry in order to meet a spiritual vacuum for the spiritual development of his people (Falaye). Femi Afolabi got married in1981 to his heart rob Ruth Adeoti Afolabi, and the marriage is blessed with godly children.

5. The Vision And Mission Statements Of Cgrem

As clearly listed in a book written by Rev. Dr. Femi Afolabi during his fortieth anniversary on the Pulpit that was held in 2014 at the headquarter, Oyo. The following are described as the Vision and Mission Statement of the Ministry:

- To preach GRACE to those who are ignorant of it.
- To demonstrate love, Jesus' way leading to Evangelism and good human relation.

- To plant churches anywhere, the Lord opens the door and provides the shepherd.
- To demonstrate and preach Jesus' type of holiness in the inward-man, outwardly, and an attitude to life affairs.
- To emphasize a cross-bearing life and victory over M.R. FLESH (Afolabi 2014: 32).

The growth of the church in number, structure, and quality goes on as the Lord permits it.

5.1 Mission Methods In Calvary Grace Evangelical Ministries

Calvary Grace Evangelical Ministries approaches missions from several perspectives. The various ways in which the church approaches mission could be discussed under seven arms of the ministries, namely: Mass Evangelism, Literature Evangelism, Discipleship program, Campus Evangelism, Leadership Development, Youth Ministry, and National Transformation Programme.

6. **Mass Evangelism**

Mass Evangelism is an aspect of a mission where a large number of people are addressed at the same time. The founder of the church, being an evangelist by calling, adopted open-air preaching as his main approach to Evangelism from the very beginning of the church. The method adopted may perhaps be due to the fact that it is the most popular approach among Evangelists. This form of Evangelism is characterized by speaking in public places, either open field or any public place like civic center, market square or likes as considered convenient by the preacher or the organizers, to a crowd of people at a time using a message, sermon or speech which spreads the gospel. This is the oldest approach to Evangelism. The Ministry has a group known as the Evangelism Group, which goes ahead of time before any open-air crusade in order to get the people ready for the outreach. Through this approach, most CGREM churches (branches) were developed, especially at the very beginning of the church. The General overseer, Rev. Femi Afolabi, like several other pastors, believes in the efficacy of the word of God, which in his words is known as "Power in the Word."

6.1 Literature Evangelism

The literature evangelism of the Calvary Grace Evangelism Ministries started with the sharing of gospel tracts at the initial stage of gospel communication. To further enhance this aspect of the mission, the church later established a publication unit basically saddled with the responsibility of publishing evangelism materials such as gospel tracts, bulletins, banners, newsletters, and magazines. The Calvary Grace Evangelism Ministries has published several gospel tracts, among which are "What will Be Your End?" "Hell is Real" There is a place of Refuge." Empty Vessels". Among the numerous books published by CGREM are What Every Believer should Know published in 1994, The Model for Pastoral Care Ministry published in 1996, Twenty-three Thing You Need to Know Before Entering into Marriage published in 2002, Power of Tongue (2007), Breakthrough Prayers (2010), My Forty Years on the Pulpit (2014). Testimonies abound as to how many lives have been richly blessed by this aspect of Ministry.

6.2 Discipleship Programme

Discipleship program, a derivative from Jesus' discipleship and leadership approach, is the Calvary Grace Evangelical Ministries' method where people under a leader are a disciple and developed for leadership purposes in the church and in the society at large. It is a structure that allows for every believer to be responsible to another person. House fellowship is an extension of the church, a gathering point for all members of the church at their various locations for fellowship; this recent approach is basically meant for developing leaders. Fundamental in the functions of discipleship program in the mission of Calvary Grace Evangelical Ministries is the fact that it provides a structure for monitoring the growth of members and for filling of leadership vacancies, if they arise, for example, nominations for deacons/deaconess. It helps the Ministry identify people into whose hands responsibilities can be committed, and thus it is a leadership development scheme. The following are the objective of Discipleship Programme:

- To provide a structural framework for fulfilling the five principal purposes of church worship, fellowship, ministries, Evangelism, and counseling.
- To provide an opportunity for personal pastoral care for individual members of the church through visitation, Bible study, and prayers.
- To serve as a dragnet for reaching unbelievers and other prospective members. Due to the small nature of a cell and its mode of operation, it is easier for them to penetrate their immediate environment.

For the personal development of members and subsequent integration into the core leadership of the church through measurable, practical service (Afolabi, 2014).

The founder states that "There are four hallmarks of a cell church, namely, worship, nurture, fellowship, and Evangelism (Afolabi, 2019). The believer, accordingly spends time in worship of God, resting under the authority and leadership of Christ. Consequently, they nurture each other from the word of God, seeking to apply its teaching to their everyday living. Thus, they seek to fulfill Christ's command to love one another and build up others in fellowship, and finally go beyond considering their needs and shall be motivated to Great Commission by making disciples of all nations (Matt. 28:19).

6.3 Campus Evangelism

This is another method in which CGREM carries out its mission. They move around campus to establish fellowship centers in order to minister to younger people. They applied to catch them young approach. CGREM has branches in campuses like Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Ajayi Crowther Universities, and Polytechnic of Ibadan, to mention a few.

7. **Social Ministry**

CGREM cares for the physical needs of its members and especially the needy ones in society. As they feed people spiritually, they are taking care of their material's needs as well.

7.1 The Administration Of The CGREM

The church is governed by the councils of a pastor, who are guiding it in the power and wisdom of the Holy Spirit.
There eight ordained pastors who are working with the general overseer in the headquarter, and more than twenty other pastors are on branches throughout the federation. They do observe their annual general convention program every Easter period at the headquarter.

7.2 The Finance Of The Church (CGREM)

The following are the sources of the income in CGREM:

- Systematic tithes and regular offerings: these are the offering usually and always collected every Sunday Service.
- Special offerings such as thanks-giving, marriage, house warming: These are offering collected when there is a special program. They are occasional offerings not like systematic tithes and offering.
- Funds from real estate management (shops, apartment, and other): These are the funds gathered from church investment and businesses.
- Funds from school established. These are the income generated from school, i.e., nursery and primary. This is a fund known as gain after the staff have been paid, and all taxes have been settled.
- Donations: These are the funds got from self will offerings, a gift from church members, distance members, and other people (Afolabi, 2019).

7.3 Expenditure Of CGREM

The following are the monthly expenses in CGREM:

- Wages and salaries of the staffs
- Mission and evangelism activities
- Purchase of church literature like Sunday school and Hymnbooks
- Attending meetings (Associational, Conference, Convention)
- Maintenance of church facilities and equipment.
- Contribution to other Christian Organization (CAN, BBN and ministers' fellowship)
- Various purchases (stationery items).
- Help ministry (Benevolence, sponsorship student to higher institutions, disadvantages, and disaster-affected people).
- Seminars, Conference, and Retreats (Afolabi, 2019).

7.4 Problems And Challenges Of The Church (CGREM)

These are some of the challenges confronting CGREM:

- The Problem most Problem confronts CGREM is financial challenges, which, as a result, has led them to close down some of their branches.
- Lack of committed people for the work of Evangelism. The harvest is plenty, but laborers are few. People that are ready to give all it takes to the mission work are not many compared to the magnitude of the assignment.

8. Solutions And Recommendations

Paul's activities are sources for renewal of our faith and in Evangelism. We should develop a sense of aggressive Evangelism. Evangelism should not be viewed only as a religious belief but also as an important work and an urgent task for Christians of all ages (Acts 1:8). The "Great Commission" in Matthew 28:19 must be seen as the primary assignment of all Christians. Evangelism must take important priority in our lives, churches, and society at large. We must do as much as possible to care for the physical needs of our members and especially the needy ones in our community. We must use our stewardship of "influence or connection" to find jobs for numerous Christian that are around us. We can give them money to start a petty trade, to learn a trade and pay for their training. They need peaceful co-existence is highly needed in our midst, so as to focus our attention equally on the "Great Commission."

Above all, Christians and all the stakeholders must get to know that we are sources of nation/world renewal, transforming and rebinding according to the injunction of the Scripture, comparing us as the SALT AND LIGHT of the world (Matt. 5:13-16). Christians should have a burning desire and compassion for the lost souls.

9. Conclusion

As seen in this paper, CGREM, as a ministry, believes and teaches that the program of Jesus was a holistic one. As man is a tripartite being, possessing spirit, soul, and body, so are his needs. That is the reason the Ministry believes in ministering to all aspects of human life. In order to achieve this, certain arms like those highlighted above in this study were formed. This is a lesson to all other churches and even other religions so that there could be peaceful co-existence in society.

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