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Editorial

This issue of KIU *Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Development Administration, Political Education, Educational Social Psychology as well as Peace and Conflict Studies.

The first part of the Journal addresses issues in Development Administration such as Rural Development, Human Resource Practice, Democratic Governance, Demographic Changes, Women Empowerment and so on. It is argued in one of the papers that that urbanization is very significant in reducing unemployment in the rural areas and promoting economic growth, therefore its importance should not be exaggerated. The study recommends that Sub Sahara African countries should put urbanization at the heart of their socio-economic policies and programmes so that it can extend economic opportunities and potentials to the rural areas, which will serve as impetus for rapid economic growth of the Sub Sahara African countries.

Section two explores issues in Political Education such as Usage of Media Advocacy Election, Voting Behaviour, Elite Self Recruitment, Party Defection and Consolidation of Democracy. Based on its findings, one of the papers argues that since party defections are not driven by fundamental ideological considerations, the outcome is an unstable opposition which is unable to sustain and consolidate the gains of democracy. The paper, thererfore, recommends that party manifestoes be supreme with laws made to limit defections. Elected representatives should also lose their seats if they defect outside the procedure to be provided for in the electoral act.

The third section deals with Peace and Conflict Resolution Strategies. Relying on an emipirical study, one of the research papers in this section argues that despite the equal inclination of religion to peace and conflict, it is more prone to conflict than peace, especially because of its inherent proneness to segregation and manipulation. The paper, therefore, recommends a general re-orientation of all stakeholders of peace and conflict in relation to the role of religion in the society, following the realist, rather than the utopian, claims that help maintain the unwanted influence of religion on the balance of peace and conflict in human society. According to the paper, this re-orientation is necessary because it will help clear the scholarly confusions on ground and to place religion in its rightful place in the promotion of the necessary balance of peace and conflict in human society.

Papers in the last section are on Educational Social Psychology. Using focus group discussion method to elicit relevant information, including key informant interview with the students, teachers and parents of Essence Secondary School, at 10 Kashim Ibrahim Road in Kaduna metropolis, one of the papers in these sections reveals that television viewing does take away from credible academic performance, as well as influence behaviors and actions of the students.

In all, this issue of *KIU Journal of Social Sciences* features many educative and interesting research papers which are very useful to all and sundry.

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Part One
Development Administration

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Democracy, Good Governance and Development in Nigeria: A Survey of Karu Local Area

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Abstract. The study is examines democracy, good governance and development in Nigeria: a survey of Karu Local Area**.** Social contract theory was used as theoretical framework. The study adopted survey research method; data was collected from the primary and secondary sources. The study reveals that Democracy has enhanced good governance and development for the people in Keffi Local Government. Karu Local Government council to some extent has provided the people of Karu Local Government Area with social amenities like roads, pipe born water, functional hospital, schools and others essential service for the citizens. The study recommends that Elected and Caretaker Management of Karu Local Government Council should consolidate on the effort made so far by the provision of more physical infrastructures like roads, bridges, potable water, telecommunications and public transport to remote villages that are yet to feel the dividends of democracy.

Keywords: Democracy, Governance, Good Governance, Development

1. Introduction

Democracy is the system of administration where citizen are given the power to elect their leader and to govern. “The development of every nation is the product of how men and women come together and harness their economic and political potentials towards such end. This development is achieved with the use of certain ideological paradigm, which serves as a cardinal force that conscientises, mobilizes, energizes and motivates both the leaders and the followers to action. The role of leadership in shaping this process is sacrosanct because it is the leadership that the whole society looks up to for solutions to its problems” (Oluwole, 2003).

Democratic governance has come to represent a new gospel in international political arrangement. There is no nation, no matter how highly dictatorial, that does not wish to be referred to as being democratic. “Dictators in both capitalist and socialist societies often refer to their system of political and economic arrangements as democratic in nature and that their actions and inactions are guided by democratic ideals. Nation states attract global attention and respect only when the foundation of their government and structure of governance is predicated upon democratic norms” (Cheema and Maguire, 2004). This is because it is believed that democracy represents the best form of governance which offers opportunities for the citizenry to choose and determine people that will represent them as leaders in all strata of the society. “Democracy also holds a strong appeal among the masses in Africa, Latin America and Asia because democracy also offers them protection and preserves their fundamental human rights and in addition to ensure that government is accountable and transparent” (Oluwole, 2003).

In spite of the difference in conceptual and practical application of democracy, all versions of democracy share one fundamental objective, which is how to govern the society in such a way that power would actually belong to the people. It is also argued that democracy has some special ingredients that distinguish it from other systems of government. Such ingredients include freedom, equal opportunity, free fair and credible elections, rule of law and respect for due process, transparency and

accountability which can be subsumed under the word, ‘good governance’.
“Good governance also entails responsible use of governmental mechanism for enhancing efficiency, growth and the overall development of a state. So it becomes clear from the aforementioned points to say that the success of any democratic political system is premised on how good governance is integrated into the governance process, enhanced and encouraged by the political leadership. It has become clear that the sustainability of Nigerian democratic depend on good governance through the management of national resources for the benefit of the citizens” (Oni & Excellence-Oluye, 2016). The basic question to ask is whether the people of Karu Local Government enjoy dividend of democratic since the return of civil rule in Nigeria.
This study seeks to evaluate the effect of democracy on good governance in Karu Local Government Area. This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- To what degree have political leaders enhance/improve the living standard of people in Karu Local Government Area?
- To what magnitude have democratically elected officials provided infrastructural facilities in Karu Local Government Area?
- What is the effect of elected officials provide basic social amenities to the people of in Karu Local Government?

This specific research objectives of the study are:

- To assess the effort of political leaders in enhancing/improving the standard of living in Karu Local Government Area.
- To determine whether democratically elected officials has provided infrastructural facilities in Karu Local Government Area.
- To assess the effect of elected officials in providing basic social amenities to the people of in Karu Local Government.

Nigeria returns to democratic rule since 1999. Since the study cannot cover all of these periods. Therefore, the study period only cover the period of five (5) years from 2015 – 2019. This is to ascertain how democratic rule has impacted on the lives of the citizenry in Karu Local Government Area during the period under review.

2. Conceptual Clarification

2.1 Concept of Democracy and Governance

“Democracy, on its own, does not connote good governance. It is not an end in itself but a means to an end”. “Deep-rooted and consolidated democracy in the form of liberalism or what Cheema and Maguire (2004) call ‘maximalist democracy’ indeed has been found to be able to engender good governance”. According to them, “maximalist democracy encompasses “various rights and liberties that have to be associated with a competitive and inclusive system of government”. Diamond (1999), “while appraising the maximalist approach of democracy, submits that democracy is a concept that allows for fundamental human rights, broadening political participation and guaranteeing credible and periodic elections”.

For democracy to evolve into good governance, Linz and Stepan (1999) suggest “five inter-related conditions that must be met; the rule of law to guarantee citizens’ freedoms and independent associational life, functional state bureaucracy which can be used by the democratic government to deliver public good, free and lively civil society, a relatively autonomous and valued political society and an institutionalised economic society”.

Democracy has thus been recognized as the only moral and legitimate way through which a society can be administered. Thus, theoretically, scholars and international financial institutions like the World Bank have established an inextricable connection between democracy and good governance. Democracy, adequately understood, is a theory that sets some basic principles according to which a good government, whatever its form, must be run (Oluwole, 2003). Such principles include those of justice, equity, freedom, liberty, accountability, openness and transparency in government. Indeed, effective democratic forms of governance rely on public participation, accountability and transparency. In most countries today, it is these principles that are used as criteria for distinguishing between good and bad governments. In this regard, democracy not only prescribes how political power should be acquired but also what to do with it or how it should be exercised. Therefore, democracy specifies who constitutes the legitimate government and wields the authority inherent in the state (the elected representatives), how they acquire authority (free and fair elections, choice between parties) and how they are to exercise it (in broad harmony with public good) (Parekh, 1993).

2.2 Concept Good Governance

“Good Governance (GG) “… among other things participatory, transparent, and accountable. It is also effective and equitable. And it promotes the rule of law” (UNDP, 1997). GG is “… epitomized by predictable, open, and enlightened policy making; a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; an executive arm of government accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs; and all behaving under the rule of law" (World Bank 1994).

"Good Governance (GG) "promotes equity, participation, pluralism, transparency, accountability, and the rule of law in an effective, efficient, and enduring way. In putting these principles into practice, we can see the holding of free, fair, and frequent elections, representative legislatures that make laws and provide oversight, and an independent judiciary to interpret those laws. The greatest threats to GG come from corruption, violence, and poverty, all of which undermine transparency, security, participation, and fundamental freedoms" (UN, 2013). "Good Governance is a term which becomes a part of the vernacular of a large range of development institutions and other actors within the international arena. What it means exactly, however, has not been so well established" (UNU, 2012). Good Governance "relates to political and institutional processes and outcomes which are deemed necessary to achieve the goals of social development. It has been said that is the process whereby public institutions conduct public affairs, manage public resources, and guarantee the realization of human rights in a manner essentially free of abuse and corruption depending on the rule of law" (UN, United Nation Human Rights, 2016). For the governance, the inter-linking of the four Pillars (Accountability, Transparency, Predictability, and Participation) is considered to be the cycle processes of Good Governance. It means "if the governance sectors, institutions, or groups accompany with answerable, reasonable, and logical qualities in response to people depending on rules, laws, and regulations, people will find it easy, understandable, reliable, timely, and relevant" (UN, 2016).. Effective accountability refers "to people's consciousness of what their responsibility, daily activities, and benefits are, resulting in transparent institutions and participation from the citizens". "Transparency is vital to good predictability. In brief, the effects of accountability, transparency, and clear predictability of an institution can strongly contribute to greater participation" (UN, 2016).

"The concept of good' in 'governance' is an appendage to the word 'governance' and it is seen as the process and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised (World Bank, 2014). Furthermore, governance includes how governments are selected, held accountable, monitored and replaced with an emphasis on the capacity of government to manage resources and respect the rule of law" (World Bank, 2004; Boyte, 2005). Therefore, the word 'good' in governance connotes the proper exercise of authority, management of resources and respect for the rule of law in accordance to laid-down principles for the benefit of all in a society.

In this regard, Babawale (2007) sees good governance as the exercise of political power to promote the public good and the welfare of the people. He argues that good governance is the absence of lack of accountability in government, corruption, and political repression, suffocation of civil society and denial of fundamental human rights. He points out the attribute of good governance in any society to include: accountability, transparency in government procedures, high expectation of rational decisions, predictability in government behaviour, openness in government transactions, free flow of information, respect for the rule of law and protection of civil liberties, and press freedom.

"Governance in the context of this research is defined as the process of allocating resources, through the instrumentalities of the state, for the attainment of public good. Thus, governance includes institutional and structural arrangements, decision making processes, policy formulation and implementation capacity, development of personnel, information flows and the nature and style of leadership within a political system" (World Bank Institute, 2003). Hence, "governance is largely about problem identification and solving. It is also about social, economic and political progress or advancement. Consequently, governance has social, economic, administrative and political dimensions" (World Bank Institute, 2003).

"Economic governance includes processes of decision making that directly or indirectly affect a country's economic activities or its relationships with other economies". Usually, "economic governance has a major influence on societal issues, such as equity, poverty and quality of life… Political governance refers to decision making and policy implementation of a legitimate and authoritative state" (World Bank, 2001). The state should consist of separate legislative, executive and judicial branches, represent the interests of a pluralist polity, and allow citizens to freely elect their representatives. "Administrative governance, according to the World Bank (2001), is a system of policy implementation. "Systemic governance encompasses the processes and structures of society that guide political and socio-economic relationships to protect cultural and religious beliefs and values, create and maintain an

environment of health, freedom, security and with the opportunity to exercise personal capabilities that lead to a better life for all people" (World Bank Institute, 2003).
"Governance, therefore, is the manner in which power is exercised by governments in the management and distribution of a country's social and economic resources. The nature and manner of this distribution makes governance a bad or a good one. Thus, when resources are distributed to promote inequality or to achieve personal or group ambitions, the essence of governance which coincides with the essence of politics and essence of the state is defeated" (Mogobe, 2003).

"Good governance, as a concept, is applicable to all sections of society such as the government, legislature, judiciary, media, private sector, corporate sector, trade unions and non-government organizations (NGOs). Public accountability and transparency are as relevant for the one as for the other. It is only when all these and various other sections of society conduct their affairs in a socially responsible manner that the objectives of achieving larger good of the largest number of people in society can be achieved" (Madhav, 2007).

2.2.1 Features of Good Governance

Arowolo & Aluko (2010) outlined some the characteristics of good governance:

Effective Service Delivery: Access to such basic services as education, primary health care, electricity and motor able roads is prerequisite for effective human development with a whole lot of wide reaching effects on the citizenry. Effective leadership is one that puts together and pursues programmes that are sustainable and avoid disjointed mode of planning. When sustainability is in focus, it helps to check elephant projects that are mostly momentary and designed to fail so that a few only are enriched and the target population unreached.

Employment: Nigeria, as a nation, prides itself in fact that it is the most populous nation in Africa, with every 1 in 5 black people on the continent being Nigerian. The population of the country is presently estimated at about 170million people and of this lot it is estimated that a whopping 70% comprises of the youth. However, population growth by itself does not equal prosperity, unless young people are educated and job opportunities created we will only be raising a population that is fast becoming a liability rather than as asset.

The development of non-oil sector is the key to improved and sustainable productivity. The increasing application of modern technology and non-availability of basic services sees increasing migration of the youthful population to urban areas in search of employment. Leadership must be proactive and innovative in the provision of viable alternatives, programmes and policies that would see to the effective accommodation of this impressionable population.

Participation: All men and women should have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interests. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively.

Rule of law: Legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially.

Transparency: Transparency is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are directly accessible to those concerned with them, and enough information is provided to understand and monitor them.

Responsiveness: Institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders.

Consensus orientation: Good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interests of the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures.

Equity: All men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their well-being.

Effectiveness and efficiency: Processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources.

Accountability: Decision-makers in government, the private sector and civil society organizations are accountable to the public, as well as to institutional stakeholders.
Strategic vision: Leaders and the public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded.
Looking at leadership and good governance as defined above, it will, therefore, mean that fostering positive change for the good of the whole, based on inherently acceptable values as outlined in the

characteristics of good governance presents us with the desired leadership for attaining governance that is participatory, accountable, transparent, responsive, equitable, effective and efficient and based on the rule of law. As good as all these may sound, to the so called ordinary Nigerian, it would be free and fair elections, effective public service delivery rooted in public financial management, creation of employment opportunities, and access to basic infrastructure, security of lives and property and timely dispensation of justice.

2.3 Review of Empirical Studies

Gberevbie, Oyeyemi & Oluye (2014) examined the challenges of Good Governance, Accountability of Governmental Agencies and Development in Nigeria. It observes the manifestation of unethical behaviour amongst public officials as the major challenge hindering development in the country. It therefore recommend among others the need for the government to strengthen the existing anti-corruption agencies to enable them enforce proper ethical standard.

Kevreaksme, Wang, Ratanak, Keosambath (2015) examines Good Governance and Poverty Reduction in Cambodia by overviews of its Governance and Poverty Situations as the key concepts for discussion to find out the factors impeding GG, causes and characteristics of poverty, and governance reforms. The findings indicate that GG really has a positive influence on PR in Cambodia, still some challenges should be considered to enhance the governance and PR strategy in Cambodia. Actually, the NPRS in 2002 is proved to be unsystematic and ineffective. However, the main reason of the poverty retaining in Cambodia is seen in poor governance in terms of widespread corruption, limited transparency, and limited accountability of public policy making, limited control, and limited participation to public. Here GG is considered and demanded to make a significant change in the condition of the poor and near-poor. Obviously, the result of the investigation showed that Cambodia is now on the new ways of governance and PR strategy after a big change shown in the result of the general election in 2013.

Another study conducted by ONI and. Excellence-Oluye (2016). The paper examines leadership and governance: the Nigerian experiences. The study reveals that leadership and governance have been recognised as imperative for the attainment of the political, economic and social objective of any political community. The significance of leadership to governance is seeing in the fact that good leadership sets the tone and standard of governance. The paper conceptual examination of the nexus of governance and leadership and with heavy reliance on secondary data, analyzes its phenomenon in Nigeria. Findings reveals that the history of Nigeria is replete with governance and leadership that in most cases lacked vision, mostly engrossed with corruption and political bickering leading to the enthronement of maladministration and mismanagement of public resources, and consequently insecurity, economic setback and abject poverty. A vibrant civil society committed to ensuring free and fair election leading to the enthronement of political leaders founded on distinct sound value systems and with a probe for probity and accountability is imperative if good governance and leadership is to be attained in Nigeria.

Lambert & Aiguosatile (2011) examined "good governance and democratic dividends in Nigeria: the Nexus. The study asserted that the economic problems facing the Nigerian state that started some decades ago have continued to increase despite the current democratic method of governance. Democracy is not only a political concept but also an economic phenomenon for the realization of what people now commonly refer to as the dividends of democracy. It is in this direction that this study seeks to explain why democratic dividends seem to have eluded Nigerians. It concludes that corruption inhibits good governance and by extension the spread of the dividends of democracy. It argues that to stop or reduce corruption, the values must change and the Nigerian must be rearmed morally".

Adegbami & Adepoju (2017) examined "good Governance in Nigeria: A Catalyst to National Peace, Stability and Development. It asserted that, Good governance manifesting in areas of rule of law, transparency, accountability, citizens participation among others are sine qua non for national peace and development. However, 'poverty of leadership' in most of the Nigeria's 57 years of existence has not only hindered the nation's development, but continued to threaten its peace and stability. While it is widely believed that bad governance is prevalent in autocratic and oligarchic systems, it is evident now that bad governance does exist much more in democracies. Therefore, the study analysed the twin concepts of governance and good governance; assessed the nature of governance offered by the nation's leaders; and its effects on the national peace and development. Using secondary data, the study revealed that, unethical practices, arbitrary rule and corruption which pervade public offices are products of bad governance. The study further revealed that, bad governance in Nigeria has brought about unemployment, poverty, crimes, internal violence, insurgents activities, and diseases, loss of lives and properties, and underdevelopment of the country". The study concluded that until proactive steps are taken for the enthronement of good governance, peace, stability as well as development will continue to elude the nation, beyond this, the corporate existence of the nation remains threatened.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

Social contract theory was adopted for this study. "The social contract theory is an old concept in political philosophy propounded by Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean Jack Rousseau. The choice of the theory is informed by its adequacy in explaining the origin of nature, and operation of democratic systems out of which periodic elections are organized to ensure regular turnover of leadership".

Hobbes (1588 – 1679) made "emphasis of a state of nature describing it as poor, nasty, brutish and short, because, in it, there are certain features associated with human conditions, such that equality of need, scarcity, essential equality of human power, and limited altruism. The state of nature lacks fundamental social amenities for satisfying of human needs, due to poor social cooperation to produce these basic amenities and that for man to avoid this state of nature, there must be a guarantee that people will not harm one another and government will fulfil its part of the agreement to the citizens".

The concept of "social contract created an avenue for increases benefits between the parties to the contract in areas such as political, moral values and socio-economic, that brings lasting peace to societal existences. In other words, social contract has a strong temporal dimension such as the willingness of people to work together in maintaining the contract is strongly influenced by how they view the future. Usually citizens may see little worthy in cooperation with their rulers, if they doubt their sincerity of such contract which was entered for societal development purpose to do with social security, stability and economic development and growth without discrimination".

Specifically, this theory gives an overview of how governments in an organized society are formed, maintain changed or are overthrown. It explains why people come together to avoid living a brutish, nasty and short life" that characterizes the state of nature where political authority is absent, which is commonly obtained through periodic elections in a liberal democracy, and that elections that meet the requirements of that contract are termed as legitimate.

3. Method and Materials

This study adopted survey research method for this study. Questionnaire and secondary data are the tools used in this study to obtain desired data. Survey method allowed for the use of questionnaire to obtain data from primary sources to be analyzes using statistical tools.

The population of the study will include all adult citizens living in Karu Local government Area of Nasarawa State. Adults are citizens who were eighteen years and above. According to National Population Commission, the total population of People in Karu Local Government is 216, 230.

In selecting the sample size, base on the population of the study, the sample size will be determine at 5% error tolerance and 95% degree of confidence, using Yamane's (1967) formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where

n = sample size

N = population size

e = error tolerance (5%)

1 = constant

From the study, the sample size is computed as:

$$n = \frac{216{,}230}{1+216{,}230(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{216{,}230}{1+540.57}$$

$$n = \frac{216{,}230}{541.175}$$

$n = 399.5$ Therefore, ≈≈ n=400.

From the above target population, simple stratified and simple ramdom sampling technique was used to distribute the questionnaire to the representative population. The sample represents Ten (10) Wards that make up of Karu Local Government Area. This ensured that the sample is fairly representative in terms of geographical spread and other population demographics.

The study used both primary and secondary method of data collection. Questionnaire instrument was used to generate the primary data

Data collected were analyzed, using the simple percentage to measures significance of data collected.

4. Result and Discussion

From the data obtained, it was revealed that four hindered (400) questionnaires were administered to selected people in all the wards constitutes Karu Local Government Area, only three hundred and sixty one (361) which represent (90.3)% response rate were completed and return while, Thirty nine (39) which represent (9.7)% response rate were not returned. This is presented in the table below:

Table 1: Respondent's view on whether Democracy has enhanced better standard of living through constituency projects

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	240	66.5
NO	105	29.1
Undecided	16	4.4
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field survey 2021*

From the data obtained, 240 respondents, representing 66.5% of the sampled population agreed that democracy has enhanced better standard of living through constituency projects; 105 respondents, representing 29.1%, disagree while, and 16 respondents, representing 4.4 %, could not ascertain whether democracy has enhanced better standard of living through constituency projects.

Table 2: Respondent's view on whether any public primary school in their constituencies is built by government since 2003.

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	230	63.7
NO	120	33.3
Undecided	11	3.0
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field survey 2021*

The data obtained revealed that 230 respondents, representing 63.7% of the sampled population, agreed that any public primary schools in their constituencies is built by government since 2003; 120 respondents, representing 33.3%, disagree while 11 respondents representing 3.0 % cannot not ascertain whether any public primary school in the constituencies has been built by government since 2003.

Table 3: Respondent's view on whether graduate in their constituencies have gained meaningful employment in government establishment.

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)	
YES	220	60.9	
NO	100	27.7	
Undecided	41	11.4	
Total	**361**		**100**

Source: *Field survey 2021*

The data obtained, 220 respondents, representing 60.9% of the sampled population, agreed that graduate in their constituencies have gained meaningful employment in government establishment. 100 respondents representing 27.7% disagreed while 41 respondents representing 60.9% could not ascertain whether graduate in their constituencies have gained meaningful employment in government establishment.

Table 4: Respondent's view on whether government has provided any modern market in their constituencies.

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	00	00.0
NO	300	83.1
Undecided	61	16.9
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 0 respondents, representing 0.0% of the sampled population agreed that government provided no modern market in their constituencies; 300 respondents, representing 83.1% disagreed while 61respondents, representing 16.9 % cannot ascertain whether government provided any modern market in the constituencies.

Table 5: Respondent's view on whether government has provided electricity for their constituencies

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	260	72.0
NO	71	19.7
Undecided	30	8.3
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 260 respondents, representing 72.0% of the sampled population, agreed that government provided electricity for their constituencies; 70 respondents representing 19.7% disagreed while 30 respondents representing 8.3% could not ascertain whether government has provided electricity for the constituencies.

Table 6: Respondent's view on whether there is any improvement in electricity supply

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	80	22.2
NO	261	72.3
Undecided	20	5.5
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 80 respondents representing 22.2% of the sampled population, agreed that there is improvement in electricity supply, 261 respondents, representing 72.3% disagreed while 20 respondents, representing 5.5% could not ascertain whether there was any improvement in electricity supply.

Table 7: Respondent's view on whether government has constructed or rehabilitated some roads in their constituencies.

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	190	52.6
NO	150	41.6
Undecided	21	5.8
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 190 respondents, representing 52.6% of the sampled population, agreed that government constructed or rehabilitated some roads in their constituency, 150 respondents representing 41.6% disagree while, 21 respondents representing 5.8% cannot government has construct or rehabilitate some roads in the constituencies.

Table 8: Respondent's view on whether government has provided their constituencies with Pipe-born Water or Borehole

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	186	51.5
NO	165	45.7
Undecided	10	2.8
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 186 respondents representing 51.5% of the sampled population, agreed that government has provided their constituencies with pipe born water or borehole, 165 respondents, representing 45.7% disagreed while, 10 respondents representing 2.8% could not ascertain government provided the constituency with pipe born water or borehole.

Table 9: Respondent's view on whether their constituencies has Access to Telecommunication Services

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	290	80.3
NO	61	16.9
Undecided	9	2.5
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 290 respondents, representing 80.3% of the sampled population, agreed that constituency has access to telecommunication services and post office service, 61 respondents, representing 16.9%

disagreed while, 9 respondents representing 2.5% could not ascertain whether the constituency has access to telecommunication services and post office service.

Table 10: Respondent's view on whether government had provided Agricultural inputs, like fertilizers and chemicals to farmers in this constituency for improved food output

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	30	8.3
NO	150	41.6
Undecided	181	50.1
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 30 respondents representing 8.3% of the sampled population, agreed that government has provided agricultural inputs, like fertilizers and chemicals to farmers in this constituency for improved food output, 150 respondents representing 41.6% disagreed while 181 respondents, representing 50.1% could not ascertain whether government has provided Agricultural inputs, like fertilizers and chemicals to farmers in the constituency for improved food output because they are not farmers.

Table 11: Respondent's view on whether there is any improvement in Healthcare Delivery system in their community

Variables	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
YES	211	58.4
NO	100	27.7
Undecided	50	13.9
Total	**361**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2021*

The data obtained, revealed that 211 respondents representing 58.4 of the sample population agreed that healthcare system delivery has improved in their community, 100 respondents representing 27.7% disagree while, 50 respondents representing 13.9% could not ascertain whether there is improvement in healthcare delivery system in this community.

Finding From analysis shows that democracy has positive effect on good governance in Karu Local government, This finding is in line with the view Linz and Stepan (1999) who reveals that, democracy evolved into good governance, suggest five inter-related conditions that must be met; the rule of law to guarantee citizens' freedoms and independent associational life, functional state bureaucracy which can be used by the democratic government to deliver public good, free and lively civil society, a relatively autonomous and valued political society and an institutionalised economic society. He therefore reveals that Political participation is synonymous to good governance. Political participation, which includes citizens' involvement in the decision making process, contribution to public debate on national issues and voting, needs to be encouraged we can be concluding that democracy as well as good governance is actually working in Karu Local government Area Council. The study further shows that, Democracy has enhanced better standard of living in KLG through constituency project and more also, that political office holders in KLGA are accountable to their people and The Local government at all levels has provided menial job through agencies like NDE. The government since return of democracy has provided social amenities like roads, pipe-born water, functional hospital, schools and others essential service are been provided for the citizens. We can deduce that people in Karu Local Government Area are enjoying democratic dividends under the democracy.

The study further shows that, Karu Local Government has made great impact in term of efficiency service delivery. Many primary health care as been established and the existing one has been equiped by both the federal, State and the Local government.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

One of the most powerful ideas in development in recent years has been good governance. At its most basic, good governance describes all the things governments do in order to allow development to happen. Checklists of good governance have usually contained elements such as transparency, accountability and the practice of democracy and the rule of law. In this sense, good governance in Karu Local Government Area is about having Local institutions that makes fair and appropriate decisions about how a locally is governed, and effective systems put in place to deliver public services.

The study concludes that, Karu Local Government Area to some extent has reduce the pressure on federal and state government by providing social amenities to the people of the Area. Elected officials to some extent have provided the communities with social amenities such as bore holes waters, electricity through provision of transformers, bridges and drainages etc.

The Karu Local Government to some extent are more concerned with the provision of potable water projects which can ameliorate the situation of the rural dwellers and various white elephant projects called water schemes has been executed in the area.

Government needs to be reminded that provision of good road network that would link the rural areas with the major cities has the potentials to enhance the economy of the rural areas mostly populated by farmers.

Good governance and utilization of the people will enhance productivity and the quality of live.

There is no gain saying that the deepest root of development failure is not a lack of resource for development; rather, it is lack of good governance the inability or unwillingness to apply public resources effectively to generate public goods and services. The following recommendation flow from the study and are therefore made:

- Elected and Caretaker Management of Karu Local Government Council should consolidate on the effort made so far by the provision of more physical infrastructures like roads, bridges, potable water, telecommunications and public transport to remote villages that are yet to feel the dividends of democracy.
- Since transparency, the openness of the state business and conduct focus on the relationship between state actors and the general public. Democratic administrations should manifest the spirit of accountability, responsibility and responsiveness to ensure good governance in Nigeria.
- Since good governance is bound up by the existence of the rule of law, governance can only be good and effective when it is restrained by law, when the law is applied equally to the mighty and the meek, and when there are professional independent authorities to enforce the law in a neutral and predictable fashion. Only this will ensure social justices in economic, social and political life.

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Agricultural Policy and Economic Growth of Nigeria

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Abstract. The objective of every independent nation like Nigeria is to improve the standard of living of its citizenry and promote economic growth. Despite huge sums of money allocated to the agricultural sector over these years, there was little or insignificant improvement in agricultural production because successive governments only used the policies to embezzle public funds to the total neglect of food production by refusing to pay farmers the true value of their crops and at the same time selling fertilizer and seeds to them at high prices. The study adopted ex-post facto research design. Economic data were sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin and World Governance Indicator from 1981-2017. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis. Agriculture policy had positive but non-significant moderating effect on the relationship between agricultural exports and the economic growth of Nigeria ($\Delta R^2 = 0.024$; $\beta = -0.0001$; $t(185) = 4.3743$; $p<0.05$). The study concluded that agricultural policy impacted the economic growth of Nigeria. The study recommended that an effective and committed policy implementation by the government is needed to improve economic growth. Furthermore, the Nigerian government should provide additional funding for the agricultural sector to raise its productivity and increase its contributions to economic growth.

Keywords: Agricultural, Economic, Growth, Gross Domestic Product, Policy, Sector.

1. Introduction

The world has become a global village which has both positive and negative implication for every sphere of life. The efforts at creating international frontiers for sales and consumptions of goods and services of any country has multifarious implications ranging from creation of job opportunity, trade by barter to fostering the relationship between two or more countries and many more. From the perspective of occupational distribution and contribution to the gross domestic product, agriculture was the leading sector contributing almost about 70% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employing about the same percentage of the working population, and accounting for about 90% of foreign earnings and federal government revenue (Gbaiye, Ogundipe, Osabuohien, Olugbire, Adeniran, Bolaji-Olutunji, Awodele & Aduradola, 2013). The contributions of agriculture to aggregate economic growth could be modeled via its effects on total factor productivity or as an intermediate input in the industrial production sector (Ruttan, 2000). The agriculture sector contributes to the nation's development in aspect of enhancing government revenue; infrastructural growth, living standards and also contribution to Gross National Product, (Chandio, Jiang, Rehman & Jing dong, 2016). The objective of every independent nation like Nigeria is to improve the standard of living of its citizenry and promote economic growth and development of the country. Apart from employing about 51.3% of labour force in Nigeria and accounting for 70% of GDP of the non-oil sector (Bureau of Statistics, 2010), it also contributed more than three quarter of export earnings (Linda, 2001).

The role of agricultural sector in diversification of economy cannot be over emphasized, given that it guarantees food security of any nation. For a developing country with a mono-product oil economy such as Nigeria, government's indifference to agriculture portends great danger to the economy for many reasons. It is generally accepted that Nigerian agriculture has suffered as a result of the resource curse effect of oil and inappropriate policies and institutions. Implementation of agricultural policies is however moderated by macro-economic policies which provide the enabling environment for agriculture to grow pari passu with the other sectors. These policies usually have major impact on profitability of the agricultural system and the welfare of farmers as they affect the flow of funds to the sector in terms of budgetary allocation, credit, subsides, taxes and therefore, must be in harmony and mutually reinforcing with the agricultural policies. Apparently, the intended goals and objectives of agricultural policies such as generating massive employment through agriculture and agro-based businesses, reduction of high poverty rate, ensuring sufficiency in the supply of food for the Nigeria's teeming population, improving per capital income of Nigerians who engage in agriculture, taking comparative advantage on the Nigerian agricultural products in the international markets among other have remained partially unachievable considering some research findings such as (Ayoola, 2001; Madukwe, 2008) study on the assessment of agriculture in Nigeria

2. Statement of the Problem

Having realized the declining role, the agricultural sector has had to economic development, the government over the years have put in place certain policy measures and programmes with a view to increasing the contribution of agriculture to economic development in Nigeria. However, despite huge sums of money allocated to the sector over these years, there was little or insignificant improvement in agricultural production because successive governments only used the policies/programmes to embezzle public funds to the total neglect of food production by refusing to pay farmers the true value of their crops and at the same time selling fertilizer and seeds to them at high prices (Akintunde, Adesope, & Okruwa, 2013). The mismatch between the performance of the Nigerian economy and massive increase in government total expenditure over the years raises a critical question on its role in promoting economic growth and development. Regardless of the involvement of Nigeria in international trade, hunger, malnutrition, mass poverty and income among small groups of businessmen and politicians, unemployment and lack of executive capacity, over dependence on petroleum and imports of goods and services continues to take a turn for the worse thereby leading to threat on economic growth in Nigeria (Ijirshar, 2015). Early authors (Onah, 2006; Umoh, 2001; Ayatse & Akuva, 2009) identified some key reasons that have contributed and hindered agricultural productivity and income from agriculture in Nigeria are linked to poor policy formulation and implementation in the agricultural sector. For instance, Anyanwu (1997) observed that most of government agricultural policies have failed to address the issues of land tenure system, provision of adequate agricultural facilities to farmers, access to agricultural micro credits, access to markets for the sale of agricultural provision of agricultural education to rural farmers on mechanized farming, among others. Eze et al (2010) noted that access to credit is a problem for all farmers and is particularly acute for poor farmer. It is on this note that the Report of the Nigerian Poverty Assessment (2007) stated that none of the existing credit sources on agriculture appear able to provide credit to poor farmers, without which it is unlikely that they will invest heavily in productivity-increasing inputs. Given that poor farmers are less likely to have assets for collateral, innovative ways need to be found to provide credit, perhaps based on the group credit systems operating in other countries. On the other hand, improving agricultural extension services as well as providing adequate agricultural infrastructures have remained poor. In light of this, there is a need examine the moderating effect of agriculture policy on the relationship between agricultural export and the economic growth of Nigeria from 1981-2017.

3. Conceptual Review

Policy is a deliberate plan of action to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. Policy differs from rule of law. While law can compel or prohibit behaviors, policy merely guides actions toward those that are most likely to achieve a desired outcome. It is also a guideline consisting of principles and rules governing the behaviour of persons in an organization. Policies prescribe how people in an organization should act or behave (Asiabaka, 2002). Whereas, agricultural policy is a statement of action and a fundamental tool employed in achieving agricultural development (FBN, 1997). In Nigeria agricultural policies and programmes have undergone changes especially in the postcolonial era. Agriculture is important to the Nigerian economy as it engages about 70% of the labour force and contributes over 40% of the Gross Domestic product (GDP) (FMARD, 2000). It provides food for the teeming population and raw materials for industries. The sector is faced with mirage of problems which militate against optimizing its potential. Some of the constraints include low productivity, poor marketing and distribution infrastructures, and inadequate access to credit, weak extension services and inadequate database among others. An attempt to ameliorate the constraints by the federal government was the adoption of the agricultural policy for Nigeria in 1988 (FMARD, 2000). With the growing awareness of the role and importance of agriculture in the economic growth of Nigeria, various government regimes have intensified efforts aimed at transforming agricultural from its subsistence level to a market-oriented production.

Some fundamental weaknesses that have impeded the effectiveness of agricultural policies and program implementation have been identified in FMA (2001), they include: Hostile environment where macro – economic policies and the agricultural policy are in disharmony thus resulting in escalating costs of production and reduced purchasing power of farmers; Inconsistency and instability in macro – economic policies which discourage medium and long term investments in agriculture; Poor state of rural infrastructure; Lack of appropriate indigenous technology to reduce the drudgery in agricultural production and processing activities; Inadequate technology; Inadequate database for policy formulations, monitoring and evaluation as well as impact assessment; Poor translation and articulation of policy prescription into implementable programme; Lack of involvement of beneficiaries in programme; designs monitoring and evolution and implementations arising from under-rating of the knowledge, ability, capability and sensitivity of the small scale farmers; Lag between project costs and budgetary provision resulting in sub-optimal allocation; Fragmentation of farmlands into small unit which are sometimes far apart; Cropping systems not often adequate for mechanizations.

There had been a number of policy measures and programmes which involve the reconstruction or reformation of the whole structure of the agricultural sector by the creation of appropriate institutions and public services designed to strengthen the economic position of the independent farmer. The objectives and strategies of the policy include: Creating conducive macro-environment to stimulate greater private sector investment in agriculture, rationalizing the roles of the three tiers of government in their promotional and supportive activities to stimulate growth; reorganizing the institutional framework for government intervention in the sector, articulating and implementing integrated rural development as a priority national Programme to raise the quality of life of the rural people; increasing agricultural production through increased budgetary allocation and promotion of the necessary developmental, supportive and service-oriented activities, opportunities; increasing fiscal incentives to agriculture, promoting increased use of agricultural machinery and inputs through favourable tariff policy. This policy direction placed additional responsibilities on extension by including sustainable development components. Manyong et al. (2003) noted that some of the agricultural policies and programmes from pre-independence to early 2000 included: Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS) in the early-to-mid 1950s for creating farmsteads of the Israeli Moshav type agriculture intended to increase commodity output and create employment for young school leavers; River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) for the purpose of harnessing water resources for farmers throughout the country; Green Revolution Scheme (GRS) that encouraged all Nigerians in both urban and rural areas to go into agriculture for both commerce and provision of food for home consumption; and Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs) in all states of the federation to help organize farmers into more productive agriculture through the provision of modern inputs. Also, other policy measures and efforts made by various administrations according to Agbogo and Aja (2011) included: the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) sponsored fertilizer supply in the early 1970s; the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) in 1972; the Operation Feed the Nation Programme (OFN) in 1976; the Green Revolution Programme (GRP) in 1980; the River Basin Development Authority Scheme (RBDA); the Integrated Agricultural Development Programme (ADP) in 1984; the Commodity Boards; the Government sponsored food production companies in the mid- 1980s; the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI) in1986 and the National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA) in 1992. While Ugwu and Kanu (2012) study on effects of agricultural reforms on the agricultural sector in Nigeria, noted the period, type of government date and objective of the agricultural policies and programmes.

Type of Government, Date and Objective(s) of the Agricultural Policies and Programmes.

S/N	Period	Length of Time	Head of Govt.	Type of Govt.	Policies	Date	Objective
1	Oct. 1960 to Jan. 1966	6 months	Tafawa Balewa	Civilian	Nigerian Research Institute Acts	1964	To promote research in agricultural and other areas
2	Jan. 1966 to July 1966	6 months	Aguiyi-Ironsi	Military	-	-	-
3	July 1966 to July 1975	9 months	Yakubu Gowon	Military	i) Agricultural Research Council of Nigeria Decree (ii) Agricultural Research Institute Decree (iii) National Accelerated Food Production Project (NAFPP) (iv) Integrated Agric. Development Projects (v) Nigerian Agric. And Cooperative Bank (vi) Specialized Marketing Boards (vii) National Grains and Roots Cultivation Programme	1971 1973 1973 1973 1973 1975 1975	To coordinate all agricultural research To establish institute to conduct research in any field of agriculture To accelerate Production of major staples To enhance adoption of new Agric. Technology by farmers To make credit available to farmers To fix commodity prices. To accelerate production of grains and root crops.
4	July 1975 to Feb. 1976	6 months	Murtala Muhammed	Military	-	-	-
5	Feb. 1976 to Oct. 1979	3 months	Olusegun Obasanjo	Military	(i) Operation Feed the Nation (ii) River Basin Development Authorities (iii) Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme (iv) Rural Banking Scheme (v) Land Use Act	1976 1977 1977 1977 1978	To mobilize the public to participate in agricultural production To develop the country's land and water resources To reduce the risk borne by commercial banks and make credit available to farmers. To encourage rural banking habit. To make land available for agricultural purposes, etc.
6	Oct. 1979 to Dec. 1983	4 months	Shehu Shagari	Civillian	Green Revolution Programme	1980	To increase agricultural production
7	Dec. 1983 to Aug. 1985	1 month	Muhamadu Buhari	Military	Increase in the number of River Basin Authorities from 11 to 18	1984	-
8	Aug. 1985-Aug. 1993	8 months	Ibrahim Babangida	Military	(i) Directorate for Foods, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure. (ii) Reorganization of the River Basin Authorities (iii) Abolition of the Marketing Board (iv)Trade Liberalization Policy (v)National Directorate for Employment. (vi) National Agric. Insurance Scheme vii) National Land Development Authority	1986 1986 1986 1987 1991	To promote rural development. To enhance the earnings of farmers To encourage export employment To reduce the risk burden on farmers To develop agricultural land in the country
9	Aug. 1993-Nov. 1993	3 months	Ernest Shonekan	Civillian	Merger of the Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) with Federal Ministry of Water Resources	1993	-
10	Nov. 1993-June 1998	4years and 9months	Sani Abacha	Military	Continuation of Babangida programmes	-	-
11	June 1998-May 1999	-	Abdul Salami Abubakar	Military	-	-	-
12	May 1999-2007	-	Olusegun Obasanjo	Civillian	A series of the initiative of the President targeted at particular commodities to increase food production in line with Vision 2020, with a view to attracting the attention of the highest political authority for special intervention in the commodity sector.	-	-
13	May 2007-2010	3 years and 6	Musa Yaradua	Civillian	In continuation of the vision 202020, the agricultural policy within the	-	Create the conducive macro-environment to stimulate greater

		months			seven point agenda focused on land Reforms, Food Security, and Agriculture.		private sector investment in agriculture Rationalising the roles of the tiers of government in their promotional and supportive activities to stimulate growth Re-organising the institutional framework for government intervention in the sector to facilitate smooth and integrated development of agricultural potentials
14	2010 to May 2015	5 years	Goodluck Jonathan	Civillian	This administration developed the agricultural transformation agenda focusing on major policy reforms to eliminate corruption in the seed and fertilizer sectors, improve the functioning of market institutions, establish staple crop processing zones which in turn sets to attract private sectors into areas of high production as well as reduce post-harvest losses, add value to locally produced crops and foster rural economic growth.	-	To improve Agricultural rural infrastructure and access of farmers to financial services and markets. Eliminate corruption in fertilizer deals Create agro-business, value addition and private participation

Source: *Adapted from Ugwu and Kanu (2012): Effects of Agricultural Reforms on the Agricultural Sector in Nigeria Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme Fund (ACGS)*

The need to encourage the flow of increased credit to the agricultural sector raised the necessity for an investigation to determine the bottlenecks which were experienced in attracting credit to the sector Ijere (2001). The agricultural credit guarantee scheme (ACGS) which provided for a Fund of N100 million subscribed to by the Central Bank of Nigeria (60%). Anyanwu (1997) came into operation of April 3, 1978 with the objective of providing guarantees in respect of loans granted for agricultural purposes by any bank in accordance with the provision of the Act and with the aim of increasing the level of bank credit to the agricultural sector. The agricultural purposes in respect of which loans can be guaranteed by the Fund are those connected with the establishment or management of plantations for the production of rubber, oil palm and similar crops, the cultivation of cereal crops, animal husbandry, including cattle rearing and poultry and fish farming. Between April 1978, when the scheme came into operation, and the end of that year a total of 341 agricultural loans amounting to about N11.3 million had been guaranteed by the Fund. The Fund has continued to increase progressively over the years such that by the end of 1982, a total of 4,762 projects involving the sum of N143.2 million have been guaranteed by the fund. As table above showed the number of loans guaranteed rose from 341in 1995 to 18079 in 1998 while the value rose from N11.284 million in 1978 to N164.190 million in 1995. However, some of the observed problems in the implementation of the scheme include delays experienced by farmers in having their application processed by the banks and some issues alleged to have arisen from the Land Use Act.

3.1 The Nigerian Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB)

The Nigerian agricultural and cooperative bank (NACB), was founded in April, 1973, to foster growth in the quantity and quality of credit to all aspects of agricultural production including poultry farming, fisheries, forestry and timber production, horticulture etc. It aimed at improving storage facilities for agricultural products and the promotion of the marketing of agricultural products. The Central Bank of Nigeria has 40% of its equity shares which stood at N150 million in 1984. The bank provides for two credit markets: direct-lending to individual farmers and organizations, and on-lending to establish institutions mainly state governments and co-operative bodies against guarantees for on-lending to third parties. Despite this apparent impressive performance, quantity of loans granted to small-holder has proved grossly inadequate.

3.2 Commodity Boards

Their establishment was to promote both the production and marketing of their respective commodities. There was also a restructuring of the then existing marketing board system for export in 1977 from regional-oriented boards to those with a national outlook. Thus, there came into being 7 Commodity Board, viz: Cocoa, Rubber, Cotton, Groundnut, Grains (for Cereals) Root Crops (for

Cassava, Yam and Cocoyam), and Palm Produce (for palm oil and Palm kernel). In the particular case of the food crops, the boards recorded little or no impact due to their low coverage with only a small proportion of farmers reached. In addition, the minimum prices fixed by the boards are lower than those obtaining in rural markets. However, the boards wound up their operations in 1986.

3.3 Economic Growth

According to Peng and Almas (2010), economic growth is a long term rise in the capacity to supply increasingly diverse economic goods to its population. It entails sustainable rise in national output which is a manifestation of economic growth. A growth in the economy implies that, if laws remain unchanged existing tax revenues also increase, if the employment rate increases due to economic growth, then the impact is much stronger. Additional public revenue, if well invested can further foster growth in an economy (Olajide, 2010). Classical theorists that was led by Arthur Levis' in 1950s viewed economic development as a growth process of transferring factors of production, especially labour from an agricultural sector characterized by low productivity and the use of traditional technology to a modern industrial sector with higher productivity. Economic growth is the leading goal of policy makers worldwide (Hernandez, 2011). Countries can experience economic growth with exports of goods through returns of scale, increase efficiency by increased competitiveness at international level and specialization, (Atrkar & Roshan, 2007). Also, Ayeomoni and Aladejana (2016) defined economic growth as an annual increase in productivity which is often measured over a given period of time.

Whereas, Schumpeter (2005), defined economic growth as "a gradual and steady change in the long run which comes by a gradual increase in the rate of savings and population". It also implies that economic growth is synonymous with a sustained rise in national output, provision of wide range of economic goods, presence of improved technology and institutional, attitudinal and ideological adjustments. The gross domestic product is monetary value of goods and services which serve as a major growth indicator. This presumes that all sectors of an economy make their inputs to the economic growth of the economy. Agriculture is one of such sectors (Yakubu, 2006). A large body of literatures can be found on the role of exports in economic growth that is known to "export led growth" hypothesis, by scholars, such as, (Amit, 2010, Saad, 2012, Mangir, 2012, Love & Chandra, 2005). A growth in the economy simply implies that, if laws remain unchanged existing tax revenues also increase, if the employment rate increases due to economic growth, then the impact is much stronger. Additional public revenue, if well invested can further foster growth in an economy (Olajide, 2010).

3.4 Keynesian Theory

This theory was developed by British economist-John Maynard Keynes during the 1930's in an attempt to understand the great depression. This theory advocates for increase in government expenditure and lower taxes to stimulate demand and pull the global economy out of the depression. According to Keynes, "we are all dead in the long run". Keynes believed depression needed government intervention as a short-term cure. Increasing saving would not help but spending. Government would increase public spending giving individuals, purchasing power and producers will produce more, creating more employment. This is the multiplier effect that shows causality from public expenditure to national income. Critics (Oteng-Abayie & Frimpong, 2009; Folster & Henrekson, 2001) assert that increasing government expenditure may slowdown overall performance of the economy. That is, financing government increasing expenditure by raising taxes or borrowing may induce long-run adverse effects, as higher taxes discourage innovation which in-turn results in lower income and aggregate demand. Likewise, if government finances her expenditure by domestic borrowing, it may crowd-out private investors hereby mitigating the level of growth. Classicalists and neo-classicalists still hold this view.

Supporters (Pevcin, 2003; Brady, 2007; Pham, 2009; Olugbenga & Owoye, 2007) and Maku, 2009) of the Keynesian school of thought suggested that, government spending can contribute positively to sectorial growth (like the agricultural sector) in the economy. Thus, an increase in government consumption is likely to lead to an increase in employment, profitability and investment through multiplier effects on aggregate demand. Consequently, government expenditure increases the aggregate demand which brings about an increased output depending on expenditure multipliers. Keynes regards public expenditures as an exogenous factor which can be utilized as a policy instruments to promote growth. Nearly all the sectors in the national economies of developing countries demand more budgetary allocations every year. For instance, the agricultural sector under the Maputo Declaration of 2003 requires African governments to increase expenditure on agricultural sector to at least 10 percent of the national budgetary resources (New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), 2011).

This theory however is important as it explains that government expenditure is the main instrument used by governments especially in developing countries such as Nigeria to promote economic growth which is an essential ingredient for sustainable development. Economic growth brings about a better standard of living of the people through provision of better infrastructure, health, housing, education services and improvement in agricultural productivity and food security (Loto 2012).

4. Empirical Review

In Nigeria, several writers have found a nexus between economic growth and agricultural policies activities, majority of which are positive. Others whose results of the study showed positive relationships between agriculture and economic growth include but not limited to Umaru and Zubairu (2012); Agbogo and Aja (2011). Conversely, Ugwu and Kanu (2012) examined the agricultural policies in Nigeria over three decades and came to the conclusion that the overall economic reform strategies developed and operated by Nigeria over the period focused only on the achievement of food self-sufficiency and food security, generation of gainful employment, increased production of raw materials for industries, increased production and processing of export crops, rational utilization of agricultural technologies for the improvement of life of its citizens. Olagunju and Ajiboye (2010) analyzed that the lack of a formal national credit policy and the inadequate number of credit institutions in Nigeria is a major cause for the decline in the contributions of agriculture to the economy. The results showed that agriculture credit/finance brings about growth and it solves the problems militating against the agriculture sector's productivity. Interestingly, Rhaji (2008) considered the impact of agriculture on Nigerian economy found out that, the lack of adequate, accessible, and affordable credit is among major factors responsible for the systemic decline in the contribution of agriculture to Nigerian economy.

Ayoola and Oboh (2006) examined the effect of agricultural production on the growth of the economy. They found out that every segment of agricultural production requires the availability of adequate capital since capital determines access to all other resources on which farmers depend. The finding showed that agricultural credit if well applied, encourages capital formation and diversified agriculture, increases resource productivity, size of farm operations, innovations in farming, marketing efficiency, value added and net farm incomes and thereby leads to economic growth. In the same direction, Oboh (2008) carried out farmers' allocative behaviour in credit utilization in Benue State used error correction model approach. The study revealed that the usefulness of any agricultural credit programme does not only depend on its availability, accessibility and affordability, but also on its proper and efficient allocation and utilization for intended uses by beneficiaries. However, they concluded that agriculture only relatively contributed minimally during the period in terms of output, market, foreign exchange and capital formation or transfer as a result of policy instability, poor coordination of policies, poor implementation and mismanagement of policy instruments and lack of transparency. Some writers have blamed the poor performance of agriculture in Nigeria's economic growth to poor and lip-service paid to policy implementation (Umaru & Zubairu, 2012). Uma et al. (2013), using augmented Dickey-Fuller and Phillips-Perron to test for unit root and John co-integration, concluded that there was a long-run relationship between agricultural practices and gross domestic products (GDP) which was used as a proxy for economic growth.

Methodology

This study adopted an ex-post facto research design. Secondary information from 1981-2017 from various sources, such as data from Central bank statistical bulletin, African Development indicators, Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and Nigeria Bureau of Statistics was retrieved for the study. The secondary data for this study was analyzed with Econometric View (Eview 9) statistical software in analyzing both descriptive and inferential statistics. Co-integration and error correction estimation techniques was also employed on annual time series data covering 1981-2017, to capture both short run and long run dynamics.

Régression Model

X= Agricultural export

Y= Economic growth

$_{Z1}$ = Agricultural policy

The econometric model of the research is-

$Y = \alpha_o + \beta_1 X_t + \beta_{2\,Z1\,t} + \beta_3 X^*_{Z1\,t} + e_t$.

In order to test this hypothesis, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted

Model Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Test

Model	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std Error**	**Change Statistics**				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F change
A	.843	.839	.925	.843	188.49	1	36	0.000*
B	.932	.928	.619	.089	232.37	1	35	0.000*
C	.956	.952	.500	.024	243.92	1	34	0.000*

A. Predictors: (Constant), Agricultural Exports
B. Predictors: (Constant), Agricultural Exports, Agriculture Policy
C. Predictors: (Constant), Agricultural Exports, Agriculture Policy, Agricultural Exports* Agriculture Policy

*Significance at 5%

$GDP_t = \alpha_o + \beta_1 LNAEX_t + \beta_2 LNAP_t + \beta_3 AEX*LNAP_t + e_{t-}$

$GDP_t = 17.335 + 0.002245 LNAEX_t + 0.835431 LNAP_t - 0.000129 AEX*LNAP_t + e_t$

Source: Researcher's Study, 2019

Dependent Variable: LNGDP
Method: Least Squares
Date: 02/06/19 Time: 15:51
Sample: 1981-2017
Included observations: 37

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	17.50405	1.450587	12.06687	0.0000
AE	0.000156	0.000105	1.483991	0.1470
LNAP	0.846516	0.127467	6.641056	0.0000

R-squared	0.931829	Mean dependent var	29.17055
Adjusted R-squared	0.927819	S.D. dependent var	2.305177
S.E. of regression	0.619322	Akaike info criterion	1.957223
Sum squared resid	13.04105	Schwarz criterion	2.087838
Log likelihood	-33.20863	Hannan-Quinn criter.	2.003271
F-statistic	232.3719	Durbin-Watson stat	0.302964
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Dependent Variable: LNGDP
Method: Least Squares
Date: 02/06/19 Time: 15:51
Sample: 1981 2017
Included observations: 37

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	17.33550	1.172070	14.79050	0.0000
AE	0.002245	0.000485	4.627960	0.0001
LNAP	0.835431	0.102969	8.113458	0.0000
AE_AP	-0.000129	2.94E-05	-4.374353	0.0001

R-squared	0.956849	Mean dependent var	29.17055
Adjusted R-squared	0.952927	S.D. dependent var	2.305177
S.E. of regression	0.500140	Akaike info criterion	1.553949
Sum squared resid	8.254625	Schwarz criterion	1.728102
Log likelihood	-24.74806	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.615346
F-statistic	243.9215	Durbin-Watson stat	0.869851
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Researchers Computation

5. Result

The table above showed the hierarchical multiple regression results of the moderating effect of Agriculture Policy on the relationship between agricultural exports and economic growth. The value of R^2 for model A from the table indicated that 84.3% variations in economic growth were caused by agricultural exports alone. However, the inclusion of agriculture policy increased the coefficient of determination to 93%, implying that about 93% variations in economic growth could be attributed to both agricultural exports and Agriculture Policy. Also, Model C showed the results after the interaction term (Agricultural Exports* Agriculture Policy) was added into the model, addition of the interaction term into the model resulted into an R^2 change of 0.024 with a p-value of 0.000 showing a presence of significant moderating effect since the p-value is less than 5%, the level of significance adopted for this study. Therefore, the null hypothesis four that Agriculture policy have no significant moderating effect on the relationship between agricultural export and the economic growth of Nigeria from 1981-2017 is rejected. Hence, agriculture policy has significant moderating effect on the relationship between agricultural export and the economic growth of Nigeria from 1981-2017.

6. Discussion on the findings

The findings showed that agriculture policy has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between agricultural export and the economic growth of Nigeria at 5% level. This finding is in agreement with the empirical research of Olagunju and Ajiboye (2010) that showed agriculture credit/finance brings about growth and it solves the problems militating against the agriculture sector’s productivity and that the lack of a formal national credit policy and the inadequate number of credit institutions in Nigeria is a major cause for the decline in the contributions of agriculture to the economy. However, they concluded that agriculture only relatively contributed minimally during the period in terms of output, market, foreign exchange and capital formation or transfer as a result of policy instability, poor coordination of policies, poor implementation and mismanagement of policy instruments and lack of transparency. Also, Ayeomoni and Aladejana (2016) findings showed that short and long run relationship existed between agricultural credit and economic growth in both short and long run respectively. These finding also supports the view of Umaru and Zubairu (2012); Agbogo and Aja (2011) & Lawal (2011). Conversely, Ugwu and Kanu (2012) examined the agricultural policies in Nigeria over three decades and came to the conclusion that the overall economic reform strategies developed and operated by Nigeria over the period focused only on the achievement of food self-sufficiency and food security, generation of gainful employment, increased production of raw materials for industries, increased production and processing of export crops, rational utilization of agricultural technologies for the improvement of life of its citizens. Iyoha and Oriakhi, (2002) identified the sources of economic growth in Nigeria using the growth accounting model and found that agriculture contributes more than expected to GDP growth. In other hand, some researchers (Agu 2014, lance 2012, Audu 2012, Okafor 2012) believe that agriculture policies are positively related with output growth.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The results from the test showed that agriculture policy had significant moderating effect on the relationship between agricultural export and the economic growth of Nigeria from 1981-2017. The findings of this study revealed that agricultural credits especially to farmers and prospective investors would have a significant effect in the long run. Credit managers would utilize the findings of the research by assessing the level of effect favourable agricultural policies have in market economic growth. This study would provide useful guidance to potential and prospective investors to be fully guided on how to make appropriate investment decisions that pertains to investment horizons for better returns and improvement on their worth. The government should evolve policies toward diversifying the economy and encourage the campaign for improvements in the non-oil sectors of the economy especially agricultural sector. More so, because of the shortfall in agricultural output as a result of poor credit finance by government as revealed in the study, government should be more proactive in insisting on the private sector, especially, the financial sector to set aside funds annually for agricultural financing to compliment government efforts. Also, government should make efforts through its agencies to enlighten farmers of the availability of such credit facilities.

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Production Efficiency and Health of Farm Households in Ogun and Oyo States Nigeria

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Abstract. Good health is an asset for agriculture, as healthy people can produce more and good nutrition contributes to it. The study was carried out in Ogun and Oyo states in South-west Nigeria. The broad objective of the study was to analyse the effect of health on agricultural production efficiency in Ogun and Oyo States. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to describe socioeconomic characteristics and prevailing illness of farm household; estimate the production efficiency among the farm households and to determine the effect of health on production efficiency of the farm households in the study area. The sampling technique that was adopted for this study is Multi-stage sampling techniques and 450 respondents were randomly selected from the two states. The primary data for the study were analysed by a combination of descriptive statistics, Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and Tobit regression methods. Results revealed that technical efficiency among the respondents varied substantially between 0.51 and 1.00, with a mean technical efficiency of 0.76. The mean allocative and economic efficiency of farm households are 0.71 and 0.53 respectively. The two limit Tobit model was used to analyze the effects of various socio-economic characteristics of the farm households on the production efficiency. The data envelopment analysis revealed that inefficiencies exist among farming households hence there is need to improve the output of farmers. The study therefore concludes that production efficiency of farm household is significantly impaired by ill health, most especially the incidence of malaria.

Keywords: Agriculture, Health, Efficiency, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Agriculture and health are linked in various ways. These links are bidirectional: agriculture influences health and health influences agriculture. As depicted in the framework developed by Hawkes and Ruel (2006), the entire agricultural supply chain—agricultural producers, agricultural systems, and agricultural outputs—have implications for health through critical intermediary processes, which are the labor process, environmental change, income generation, and access to food, water, land, and health related services. Poor agricultural households tend to be vulnerable to malnutrition and poor health; agricultural systems interact with the environment, and by so doing affect human health; and agriculture produces foods, fibers, and plants with medicinal properties essential for human life and health.

The linkage between agriculture, health and nutrition is bi-directional, and so health and nutrition also affect agricultural system. Poor health brings hardships to households including diseases, substantial monetary expenditures, loss of labour, and sometimes death. Poor heath lessens the farmer's ability to innovate, experiment, and operationalize changes in agricultural production. A farmer who is ill cannot attend a Farmer Field School or interact with an extension officer to learn about new technologies and improved practices in agricultural production, and so may lack the knowledge to innovate. Most often, innovation requires the purchase of improve seeds, fertilizers, poultry feeds, drugs, or other inputs and this may not be affordable for poor farmers after spending their money on healthcare. When the innovation involves additional labour (for example, farming practices like application of fertilizer and herbicides, picking of eggs in a battery cage), it is difficult for households with sick members to adopt the practice. Experimentation on technology adoption and improved practices would be too costly for a farm household that is spending a lot of money on healthcare and is losing labour to illness. Health also affects agricultural output, particularly its demand. Malnutrition and disease patterns influence market demand for food quantity, quality, diversity, and the price people are able or willing to pay. Nutrition affects people's health and is an important factor in farm labour productivity. Past nutritional status predicts the probability of developing chronic diseases and consequently, influences labour force participation (Sur and Senauer, 1999).

The nutrition and health status of adults affects the duration of labour force participation and the intensity of work effort. Poor health will result in a loss of days worked or in reduced worker capacity, and is likely to reduce output (Antle and Pingali, 1994). Limited access to food may occur in a household if individuals are too ill or overburdened to produce or earn money to buy food (Keverenge-Ettyang*et al*., 2010). Based on the premise that wages reflect the marginal productivity of labour, Sur and Senauer (1999) looked at the link between nutrition and health, and labour productivity by estimating wage equations from individuals participating in the wage labour force in rural Bangladesh. Height, which was used as an indicator of long-term health status, was found to be a significant determinant of labour force participation in agricultural wage labour but not for non-agricultural wage labour. Good nutrition has been found to be crucial for both children's physical and cognitive development and for their productivity and earnings as adults. The Lancet reported that boys who benefited from a randomized nutrition intervention during conception and in their first two years of life earned 50% more wages than those of non-participants, when both groups became adults (Hoddinott*et al.,* 2008).

A common mechanism households adopt to cope with the burden of high medical costs is reducing consumption of basic needs, including food (Pitayanone*t al.,* 1997). If consumption reduction is substantial, this can lead to malnutrition which increases susceptibility to opportunistic diseases for AIDS patients. Malnutrition weakens the immune system, increasing the risk of ill-health, which in turn can aggravate malnutrition. The World Health Organization identifies malnutrition as "the single most important risk factor for disease." In developing countries, poor nutrition is a massive problem making people more susceptible to diseases.

Many developing-country governments are increasingly concerned with the basic needs of their populations, and health and nutrition projects account for rising public sector expenditures. However, under tight budget constraints choices need to be made where resources are best spent. The government of Nigeria thus faces the key challenge of ensuring consistency of policies and strategies to promote long-term economic growth in the agricultural sub sector, raise smallholder productivity, achieve food security, and reduce poverty, among farmers while providing the social services that meet their immediate welfare needs. One way to solve this conundrum is to devise strategies that maximize the contribution of social services to productivity in agriculture. Expenditures relating to human capital formation can be more easily justified in terms of promoting economic development and, thus, generate a large increase in productivity. Unlike the issue of returns to education, as yet there have been comparatively few empirical studies, especially in developing countries, on the linkages between the trio, health, nutrition and agricultural productivity especially among rural farmers.

The broad objective of the study was to analyse the effect of health on agricultural production efficiency in Ogun and Oyo States.

The specific objectives were to:

- describe socioeconomic characteristics and prevailing illness of farm household
- estimate the production efficiency among the farm households
- determine the effect of health on production efficiency of the farm households in the study area.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Area: The study was carried out in Ogun and Oyo states in South-west Nigeria.

2.2 Sampling Technique and Sample Size: The sampling technique that was adopted for this study is Multi-stage sampling techniques. It entailed dividing a state into clusters based on geographical areas by considering various demographic and natural characteristics. These clusters were then numbered, randomized and the chosen ones picked and studied.

At the first stage, two states (Oyo and Ogun) were purposively selected based on higher population of rural farmers in these states and availability of market for agricultural products. Thereafter, three zones based on the division of Farmers Association of Nigeria (FAMAN) were randomly selected from each of the state. Thus, a total of six (6) zones were selected from the two (2) states. In the third stage, three (3) Local Government Areas (LGAs) were selected from each of the zones making a total of eighteen (18) LGAs. At the fourth stage, five (5) villages were randomly selected from each LGAs resulting in a total of ninety (90) villages. Finally, in each of the ninety (90) selected villages, five (5) respondents engaged in farming were randomly selected giving a total of four hundred and fifty (450) respondents from the two states.

2.3 Analytical Technique: The data for the study were analysed by a combination of descriptive statistics, Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and Tobit regression methods.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Distribution of Farm Households by Personal Characteristics of Household Head

The socio-economic characteristics of farmers and their households are believed to have a direct or indirect relationship with their production activities, production efficiency and decision making process. These socio-economic characteristics are presented below. Most of the socio-economic characteristics discussed here are peculiar to the household head. This is because of the overwhelming influence the household head has on the household decision making process in traditional African setting most especially as it relates to farm production activities (Ayinde, 2004). Age is believed to be an important factor in farming activities. Younger farmers are likely to commit more energy into production. On the other hand, older farmers are expected to have more experience which may impact positively on production efficiency. Ages of the farming household heads in the area are distributed across the various ranges in Table 1. A cumulative percent of 73.3 were below the age of fifty with a mean age 47 years which can be classified as active age for farmers in Ogun State while in Oyo State, a cumulative of 71.7 percent of the farming household heads in the area were less than 50 years of age. The mean age of farmers in this category was 46 years for households in Oyo State. This implies that majority of the farmers are still in their active age and are therefore expected to be productive and this will have positive effect on their efficiency, *ceteris paribus*. Distributions of Household Heads according to sex showed that majority (68 percent) of the household heads were male in Ogun State while among the Oyo State farmer households sampled 52.4 percent were male. This shows active involvement of men in farming in the study areas while women are more involved in the processing of agricultural products and marketing. Also, majority of the household head in Ogun state are married (91.9 percent) and had primary education (44.4percent) while 96.1 percent and 38 percent of household heads are married and have completed secondary education in Oyo state.

Table 1: Distribution of Farm Households by Personal Characteristics of Household Head

	Ogun State		**Oyo State**		**Total**	
Characteristics	**Freq**	**Percent**	**Freq**	**Percent**	**Freq**	**Percent**
Age(years)						
less or equal to 30	44	16.3	40	8.2	84	11.1
31-40	85	31.5	87	17.9	172	22.7
41-50	69	25.5	222	45.6	291	38.4
51-60	36	13.3	86	17.7	122	16.1
>60	36	13.3	52	10.7	88	11.6
Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Mean	47		46		45	
Gender						
Female	84	31.1	232	47.6	316	41.7
Male	186	68.9	255	52.4	441	58.3
Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Educational level						
None formally	62	23.0	67	13.8	129	17.0
Primary	120	44.4	56	11.5	176	23.2
Secondary	76	28.1	185	38.0	261	34.5
Tertiary	12	4.4	179	36.8	191	25.2
Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Marital Status						
Single	15	5.6	18	3.7	33	4.4
Married	248	91.9	468	96.1	716	94.6
Widow	5	1.9	1	0.2	6	0.8
Divorced	2	0.7	0	0.0	2	0.3

Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Household Type						
Head	191	70.7	264	54.2	455	60.1
Spouse	70	25.9	200	41.1	270	35.7
Others	9	3.3	23	4.7	32	4.2
Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Household Size						
< 5	200	74.1	279	57.3	479	63.3
5-10	64	23.7	117	36.3	241	31.8
11-15	6	2.2	25	5.1	31	4.1
>15	-	0	6	1.2	6	0.8
Total	270	100	487	100	757	100
Mean	6		5		5	
Farm Size(acres)						
Less or equal to 1	24	12.1	5	1.2	29	4.7
1.01-5	125	62.8	119	28.1	244	39.2
5.01-10	25	12.6	144	34.0	169	27.2
10.01-15	14	7.0	64	15.1	78	12.5
15.01-20	0	0.0	20	4.7	20	3.2
Greater than 20	11	5.8	71	16.8	82	13.2
Total	199	100	423	100	622	
Mean	10		8		4	
Type of illness						
Malaria	116	89.9	156	71.9	272	78.6
Typhoid fever	5	3.9	22	10.1	27	7.8
Guinea worm/schistomiasis	0	0.0	16	7.4	16	4.6
Diarrhoea	0	0.0	2	0.9	2	0.6
Dysentery/pile	0	0.0	3	1.4	3	0.9
Cough	0	0.0	3	1.4	3	0.9
Cold/catarrh	4	3.1	8	3.7	12	3.5
Measles	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.3
Farm injuries	1	0.8	1	0.5	2	0.6
River blindness	2	1.6	0	0.0	2	0.9
Others	1	0.8	5	2.3	6	1.7

Source: *Field Survey, 2017*

It is expected that household members will serve as readily available source of farm labour to the farmers and this is expected to enhance efficiency. The mean household size in both states is 6 and 5 people respectively in Ogun and Oyo States. This shows that the two states sampled have access to family labour which is the cheapest form of farm labour supply and make use of hired labour in case of shortfall in the supply of family labour.

Land is the most important input for agricultural production but it is generally believed to be abundant relative to other inputs. Nigerian farms are classified into small scale, medium scale and large scale. According to Upton (1972) farm sizes classification of less than 5ha should be classified as small, between 5ha and 10ha as medium, and more than 10ha as large scale.

The household heads in the two states sampled are operating on an average farm size of 10 acres (4.05 ha) and 8 acres (3.24ha). Going by the classification of Upton (1972), all farm holdings by the respondents in the study area was classified as small scale farms. This corroborates the widely reported view that small-scale farmers constitute the nerve-centre of food production in Nigeria (Olayide and Heady, 1998).

Table 1 also showed the details of the frequencies of occurrence of different disease among farming households in the two states considered. There were a total of one hundred and twenty-nine (129) illness episodes among the Ogun State farming households sampled within the last production seasons. One hundred and sixteen (89.9 percent) of the total illness episodes were due to malaria, 5(3.9 percent) were typhoid fever while 4(3.1 percent) were due to cold/catarrh. Other illness such as farm injuries, river blindness and others occurred less frequently. Meanwhile, among the Oyo State farming household, there were 217 episodes of illness out of which 156 (about 71.9 percent) were malaria, 10.1 percent were typhoid fever while 7.4 percent were guinea worm and other diseases that occurred less frequently. Egan (2001) posited that repeated bouts of malaria in agrarian households cause a decline in output, farm income, food security and poverty. He also added that because malaria strikes during rainy/harvest season, when workers productivity is at its highest leading to reduced agricultural production activities. According to Oladepo (2010), malaria-afflicted farmers harvest only 40% of their crops compared with 100% of their malaria- non afflicted counterparts. Therefore, malaria constitutes a great burden on the already depressed Nigerian economy through its severe impact on the agricultural sector.

3.2 Data Envelopment Analysis for Production Efficiency

The result in Table 2 shows that technical efficiency among the respondents varied substantially ranging between 0.51 and 1.00, with a mean technical efficiency of 0.76. This result suggests that farm households are not utilizing their production resources efficiently, indicating that they are not obtaining maximal output from their given quantum of inputs. In other words, technical efficiency among the respondents can be increased by 24% i.e. (1.00-0.76) through better use of available production resources, given the current state of technology and health. This would enable the farmers to obtain maximum output from their given quantum of inputs, and hence increase their farm incomes thereby reducing poverty. This validates claim by Asogwa *et al.* (2011) that Nigerian rural farmers do not obtain maximum output from their given quantity of inputs.

Table 2: Data envelopment analysis for production efficiency in Ogun and Oyo states of South Western Nigeria

	Ogun State		**Oyo State**		**Total**	
	Freq	**%**	**Freq**	**%**	**Freq**	**%**
Technical efficiency						
0.51-0.60	23	8.5	32	6.6	55	7.3
0.61-0.70	54	20	147	30.2	201	26.6
0.71-0.80	83	30.7	159	32.6	242	32
0.81-0.90	70	40	98	20.1	168	22.2
>0.90	40	14.8	51	10.5	91	12
Mean	0.77(0.0074)		0.74(0.0050)		0.76(0.0042)	
Mimimum	0.51		0.51		0.51	
Maximum	1		1		1	
Allocative efficiency						
0.41-0.50	0	0	8	1.6	8	1.1
0.51-0.60	10	3.7	59	12.1	69	9.1
0.61-0.70	82	30.4	208	42.7	290	38.3
0.71-0.80	111	41.1	174	35.7	285	37.6
0.81-0.90	61	22.6	36	7.4	97	12.8
>0.90	6	2.2	2	0.4	8	1.1
Mean	0.73(0.0051)		0.69(0.0037)		0.71(0.0031)	
Minimum	0.52		0.47		0.47	
Maximum	1		0.91		1	
Economic efficiency						
0.31-0.40	3	1.1	9	1.8	12	1.6
0.41-0.50	52	19.3	228	46.8	280	37
0.51-0.60	138	51.1	198	40.7	336	44.4
0.61-0.70	55	20.4	48	9.9	103	13.6
>0.71	22	8.1	4	0.8	26	3.4
Mean	0.56(0.0059)		0.51(0.0032)		0.53(0.0031)	
Minimum	0.38		0.36		0.37	
Maximum	1		0.83		1	

Source: *Computed from Field Survey, 2017*

3.3 Allocative Efficiency

The allocative efficiency of farm households in the study area ranges from 0.47 to 1 with a mean allocative efficiency of 0.71. The implication of this is that if an average farmer in the study area was to achieve the allocative efficiency level of its most efficient counterpart, then the average farmer could realize a 39 percent cost saving (1-0.71), in the same vein, for the most allocatively inefficient farmer reveals cost savings of 53percent(i.e., 1- 0.47).

3.4 Economic efficiency

The combined effect of technical and allocative factors shows the average economic efficiency level. In the study area, the average economic efficiency is 0.53 with a minimum of 0.37 and maximum value of 1.

3.5 Socioeconomic Factors affecting Efficiency of Farmers

Since the efficiency level generally ranges between limits of 0 and 1, the two limit Tobit model was used to analyze the effects of various socio-economic characteristics of the farm households on the production efficiency.

3.6 Technical efficiency

The result of the tobit regression result in Table 3 revealed that age ($p<0.01$), sex ($p<0.01$), years of education ($p<0.01$), years of experience ($p<0.01$), household size($p<0.05$), credit access ($p<0.10$), economic cost of illness ($p<0.05$), type of illness ($p<0.01$), days loss to illness ($p<0.01$) and calorie intake ($p<0.01$) were the significant factors affecting technical efficiency of farmers in the study area. This study shows a negative relationship between time cost of illness and efficiency. Increasing the time cost of illness by one naira decreased the level of technical efficiency by 11.4%. As the number of day's loss due to ill-health increases, farming households tend to be less efficient technically. This further revealed that as farm households' losses more work days to illness, technical efficiency decreases. Also, a positive relationship existed between financial cost of illness and efficiency. This implies that as farmers spends more on their health; technical efficiency increases probably due to the fact that farmers spend more on their health so as to reduce the number of day loss to illness. Age of household head was significant and positive.

3.7 Allocative efficiency

The age of the household head increases significantly with a decrease in allocative efficiency. Female headed households are more cost efficient than their male counterparts. Increase in years of experience and education of household head also increases their efficiency. Alternatively, increase in household size decreases the efficiency level of farmers. Increase in protein intake and economic cost of illness significantly influences allocative efficiency of farmers in the study area.

Table 3: Determinant of Production Efficiency of Farm Households in Ogun and Oyo States

	Technical efficiency	Allocative efficiency	Economic efficiency
State (dummy)	0.3205**	1.6452***	1.4623***
	(2.7655)	(13.412)	(11.760)
Age	0.0421***	-0.0362***	-0.01004*
	(8.8170)	(-7.229)	(-1.9626)
Gender (dummy)	-1.6473***	0.41694***	-0.44826***
	(-17.702)	(4.9085)	(-4.9313)
Years of education	-0.12623***	0.0364***	-0.0205**
	(-13.519)	(4.1620)	(-2.2193)
Farming experience	-0.14782***	0.0655***	-0.0055
	(-25.449)	(13.941)	(-1.1923)
Household size	0.00219	-0.21136***	-0.2299***
	(0.1498)	(-11.217)	(-10.405)
Credit (dummy)	-1.2911***	-1.2558***	-1.5675***
	(-11.462)	(-11.349)	(-13.285)
Economic cost of illness	-0.000208***	0.00012***	0.00003
	(-7.4641)	(4.654)	(1.1698)
Type of illness	-0.85743***	-0.23555**	-0.5872***
	(-9.4314)	(-2.5891)	(-6.099)
Days loss to illness	0.14525***	-0.00286	0.0450***
	(18.698)	(-0.4140)	(6.0270)
Episode of illness	-0.008711	-0.028***	-0.0245***
	(-0.1215)	(-3.7983)	(-3.0324)
Total calorie	0.00065***	-0.00033***	-0.00019**
	(7.2796)	(-3.7555)	(-2.0801)
Total protein	-0.0266**	0.0897***	0.056***
	(-2.0509)	(6.7634)	(3.9917)
Constant	56.514***	24.245***	18.558***
	(30.244)	(23.894)	(20.803)
Log likelihood function	1244.09	837.12	646.15
Mean square error	0.00032	0.00063	0.00064

Figures in parenthesis are t-ratios

3.8 Economic efficiency

Sex ($p<0.05$), household size ($p<0.01$), credit access ($p<0.01$), economic cost of illness ($p<0.10$), type of illness ($p<0.05$), days loss to illness ($p<0.05$), episode of illness ($p<0.05$) and protein intake ($p<0.05$) were the significant factors affecting economic efficiency of farmers in the study area. The age of the household head increases significantly with a decrease in economic efficiency. Female headed households are more economic efficient than their male counterparts. Increase in years of experience and education of household head also increases their economic efficiency. Alternatively, increase in household size decreases the economic efficiency of farmers.

4. Conclusion

More days were generally lost to malaria and typhoid fever in the study area. The costs spent on illness in the household negatively affect production efficiency due to a break in farming activities during illness and also taking care of sick person. Farmers spends more on their health; technical efficiency increases probably due to the fact that farmers spend more on their health so as to reduce the number of day loss to illness. The data envelopment analysis revealed that inefficiencies exist among farming households hence there is need to improve the output of farmers.

The study therefore concludes that production efficiency of farm household is significantly impaired by ill health, most especially the incidence of malaria. Based on the findings, the study recommends the following:

- Farmers should be advised to improve the nutrition quality for both calorie and protein intake in order to meet up with the recommended daily allowance and also to enhance efficiency.
- Primary health care needs to be developed further and made accessible to the rural farmers. At the same time, the burden of disease can be lowered if the prevalence of disease is reduced with carefully planned agricultural development thereby reducing the number of days of forgone production activities due to ill-health.

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Political Development of Women in Nigeria, 1985-2019

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Abstract. After decades of the ratification of the Convention for Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), an international treaty which Nigeria signed on 23rd April, 1984 and ratified on 13th_June 1985, the number of women elected to the three-tiers of government in the Federal Republic of Nigeria was very insignificant during the 2015 election. This paper, therefore, examines the impact of CEDAW on the political development of Women in Nigeria from 1985 when Nigeria ratified it to 2019 when the last election was held. The methodology adopted involves the use of phenomenology, primary and secondary sources for this research. The findings reveal that the twelve key critical areas of CEDAW served as stimulus for women to agitate for non-discrimination, state obligation and substantive gender equality, it however, did not improve their lot. Therefore, the way forward is that women should advocate and lobby for legislation in the domestication of CEDAW before the next election in 2023.

Keywords: Rights, International Treaty, Non-Discrimination, Legislation, Domestication.

1. Introduction

Nigeria got independence from the British Colonial Government in 1960 and became a republic nation in 1963. With the British legacy to the Nigerian government after independence, the Victorian concept policy was based on single sex-role political system. This system de-emphasizes gender equality as it sees women as the weaker sex due to her biological sex differentiation from the male sex. From the first republic to the end of civil war in 1970, the constitutional democracy adopted did not emphasize gender equality in the five basic ideas of the constitution as noted below:

> Political participation, meaning that "democracy is a rule by the people i.e. the rights to choose their government, to elect leaders and to express their opinions;
>
> Social Equality, i.e. "equal participation and equality of the rights of individual members of the society (which was never carried out);
>
> Public welfare, stipulating "that the government should provide for the needs, rights and infrastructures;
>
> Limited government, characterized by 'a rule by the representatives of the people subject to (a) limitation on the extent of the powers, and (b) the rules of procedure for exercising powers"; and
>
> An ethic of democratic behavior, which demands a way of life in which both the rulers and the followers are expected to develop the habit of treating the constitution of the land with a great deal of respect. (Olugbemi ,2007:281),

According to Olugbemi (2007:281-282) the imbalance between the regions which brought about the case of the minority areas, the constitution democracy did not make adequate provision for the equality of sexes in Nigeria. This was because the British home policies always influence Nigeria's policy; Nigeria, "instead of fashioning theories of democracy to suit the diverse and heterogeneous nature of the country, decided to put into practice the theories of democracy as known in Britain". (2007:282) In the constitution, item 2 was not carried out as there was no provision in the electoral act which stipulates equal rights for men and women, the old and the youth to be voted into the various political offices in Nigeria. The blanket provision in the constitution and the electoral laws had and still, is an obstacle on the realization of gender parity in Nigeria today.

2. Conceptual Clarifications of Terms

Rights according to MaryC (2020) is defined as social, ethical, and moral principles, legislation, rules, entitlement or guidelines that empower optimum health, human rights, democracy, right to life…peace, prosperity and freedom of human beings and animals. In the same manner, Rights are defined as fundamental normative rules about what is allowed of people according to some legal system, social conventions or ethical theory (Editor, "The Civil Rights
Movement Made Great Changes Throughout Society" submitted to Editor, British National Corpus on 4th April, 2020). This paper takes a cue from both definitions that the 'rights' of women should be in terms of fundamental normative rules, entitlements and freedom which empowers her to the best means of participating in all the aspects of government on equal basis with men through legislation. The legislation without doubt would eliminate every form of inhibition to gender equality in Nigeria thereby fulfilling the international treaty.

2.1 International Treaty is an agreement or conventions or protocols etc between countries that is legally binding on the nations involved in it under international law, when it is signed by representatives of the countries involved after negotiation and ratification. International treaties are of two types, namely, Bilateral and Multilateral. The term Bilateral treaty is used when it is between two countries, while Multilateral is used when many countries are involved in the treaty, to be bound by their provisions'. According to Yubaraj Sangroula (2010) the importance of international treaty among others is to enlarge and institutionalize the 'universality' of human rights using 'the treaty mechanism' to enforce obligation under the treaty. The implication is that each of the parties have the treaty obligation to implement the agreement under the international law. He enunciated further that "while treaties create obligation for the parties, the moral perspective they generate for community of states and people as well is tremendous…as the enforcement of the treaty is thus backed by the 'legal as well as moral sanction'. The concern of this paper therefore is to assess the extent to which the international treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979 as a bill of rights for women has helped to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women in Nigeria as a signatory to it on 24th April,1981 and with the ratification of the multilateral agreement on the 13th June, 1985. The Fourth World Women Conference at Beijing in China which held between 4th and 15th September, 1995 was a Platform on Action for the actualization of the Convention for Elimination of Forms of Discrimination Against Women. The treaty has empowered women across the World to demand for at least 35% Affirmative Action to actualize the treaty.

2.2 Non-Discrimination simply means equal, fairness, equitable and unbiased treatment of different categories of people. Non-discrimination is a basic principle of international human rights law (https://minorityrights.org-law). It is a means of working in a way which respects the views, rights and behaviour of people from minority groups and which celebrates their diversity. The principle of non-discrimination guarantees equal treatment of an individual or group irrespective of their biological sex, physique, looks, race, religion, language or nationality. According to Humanium, equality is a deep-rooted principle in human morality and protected by the principle of non-discrimination, which is a recurring and dominant principle in multiple international human rights law treaties. Thus, the Article1Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Racial, Discrimination (CERD) says we have the right to be equally treated, regardless of our race, colour, sex, nationality, language, religion or ethnical, national or social origin.(Humanium:Principleofnon-discrimination-https://www.humanium.org>non-discrimination)
Globally, women had been marginalized and discriminated against until women across the world started to agitate through confrontation, hunger strike actions, and collective actions to break the barrier of discrimination against women. Sadly, after decades of the ratification of the Convention for Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) by Nigeria on 13th June, 1985, it is yet to be domesticated, in spite of the fact that Nigerian women through confrontation, diplomacy and the use of Western acquired education organized seminars, workshop, and conferences in the twelve critical areas highlighted in CEDAW to gain political rights i.e., power to vote and be voted for on equal basis with men. Though, the efforts only yielded result in the area of the education of the girl-child, female inheritance, female genital mutilation, in the

remaining critical areas of human rights, women in power and decision making, women in the economy, ending violence against women, women and arms conflicts, women and the media, women and the environment, maternal mortality and institutional mechanism are yet to yield the desirable result. Furthermore, the declaration of 'Women's Rights is expected to contribute immensely to the political development of women in Nigeria, however, thirty-six years after the bill has been established, Nigeria women are not yet on equal pedestal with their menfolk either in social, economic and political areas chiefly because it was not backed up by legislation.

2.3 Legislation according to different authors simply means law which has been promulgated by a legislature or other governing body or the process of making it in form of a bill either by local, state or national legislature in a country or bodies. It is usually laws that are related to government activities. For examples, in Nigeria, the Councilors makes law at the Local government level as they are the legislative arm of the Council, the House Assembly forms the legislative arm at the state level while Senate and the House of Representatives are the legislative arms at the Federal level. The primary source of legislation is constitution, statutes, amendment, legal cases, and judicial decisions. (.https.//www. en.m.wikipedia) According to Austin (6th June, 2019), legislation means "the making of law by a supreme or a sovereign authority which must be followed by people of every stratum of the society backed by sanctions". By Austin's definition of legislation, the United Nations General Assembly made the treaty to be signed and ratified as a form of statement for moral and political intent of a contractual force under international law. And it provided both normative policy framework and a treaty based reporting procedure (as well as the individual communications and inquiry procedure in the Optimal Protocol (OP) so that either or both may influence development at the domestic level in order to forge ahead the path of equality (The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equality, Andrew Byrnes(2012) University of Press Electronic New South Wales, Faculty of Law Research series, paper 7, published by The Berkeley :Marsha Freeman.) but there should be a synergy between the international human rights and domestic institution for the full implementation of 'rights of women' with a sanction for defaulting nation.

2.4 Diplomacy according to White (2001) is a process of communications and negotiation between states and other international actors, while Charles Calvo defines "diplomacy as the science of relations between different countries resulting from mutual interests, and on the principles of public international law and the provisions of treaties and conventions" (https:// www.ukessays.com>essays). On a general term, diplomacy is the established method of influencing the decisions and behavior of foreign governments and peoples through dialogue, negotiation, and other measures (https.//www.britannica.com). Thus, diplomacy became the instrument used for the real emancipation of women by global action to enforce the United Nations Declaration of 1967, as stipulated in Article three that: "All appropriate measure should be taken to educate public opinion and direct national aspirations toward the eradication of prejudice and the abolition of customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of inferiority of women". Thereafter, the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) set up an amendment of a law adopted after the review by the CEDAW COMMITTEE of a State party's report that corresponds to specific recommendations made by the committee (and in relation to which CEDAW-consistency has been invoked by the government and or advocacy group as the reason for the change), (Andrew Byrnes& M. Freeman,2012) The Impact,,p.3) By 6th October,1999,UNGA adopted an Optional Protocol to the Convention(OP). (United Nations, Treaty, vol.2131, p.83 in The Impact, p.6), which contains a procedure for consideration by the committee on CEDAW committee on individuals' complaints of violation of their convention's rights as well as a procedure under which the committee may undertake an inquiry into " grave or systematic' violation of Convention rights as a State party. The OP entered into force on 22nd December, 2000, following the receipt of the necessary ten ratifications or accessions by State parties, (p.6). As of 31st December, 2010 OP., there were 100 States parties to the OP.... (Ghana ratified the OP on 3rd February,2011 and the Seychelles on 1st March,2011).(Andrew Byrnes& M. Freeman,(2012),The Impact p.6) It states that any state which became parties to the Convention accept wide-ranging obligations to eliminate direct and indirect discrimination against women and promote formal and de facto equality of women and men in all fields of life in the public and private spheres. Subsequently, Women in Nigeria continued to use non-governmental organizations such Women in Nigeria

(WIN), Women in Empowerment and Development Organization (WEDO) and National Council of Women Societies
(NCWS)- the umbrella body for all women organizations to advocate and lobby the government for women's right. Women leaders did not relent in their bid to increase women's political awareness. Thereafter, Nigeria women stepped up agitation for full participation in politics during the first and second republics. (see Olugbemi V.K.,2007:291)

3. Developments After Nigeria Signed in 1984 and Ratified CEDAW in 1985

The military intervention on 23rd December, 1983 did a deadly blow to the aspiration of women for gender equality as military rule is an aberration. They could not resolve the national question, i.e. the Nigerian entity as a nation, because the question of unity, peace and stability still persisted. That notwithstanding, the impact of CEDAW on Nigerian women, made them to see themselves at the receiving end of the military rule as mothers, wives and daughter thereby struggled further in their bid to acquire equal political status with men. Women continued to agitate for equality with men and it became more pronounced in the Third and the Fourth Republics across the length and breadth of Nigeria through conferences, seminars and workshops. The geographical spread was an indication that women in Nigeria had actually spread the gospel of active participation in politics to fellow womenfolk.

Nigerian women did not relent in their efforts to develop on equal terms with men, especially in the political field. In an attempt to sensitize and attract more women to the political field, women adopted slogans such as "what a man can do, a woman can do better" and "behind every successful man, there is a woman" was substituted by "beside every successful man there is a woman". These set the pace for the emancipation of women from patriarchal inhibitions against gender equality in preparatory for more inclusive participation in policy and decision making process. Henceforth, Nigerian women as a result of the impact of CEDAW realized that they need to strategize further through lobbying and advocacy for the education of the girl-child; kicking against childhood marriage, violence against women and the rights of women to own properties, which were inhibiting factors for women's participation in politics. They cried and lobbied for a national policy on women from the successive governments through women in nongovernmental organizations, individuals, national and concerned international bodies who were highly interested in gender issues. Some notable women professional associations like Federation of Women Accountants, Federation of Women Lawyers, and other National Association
As a follow up to Nigeria's ratification of CEDAW in 1985, the first lady, Mrs. Mariam Babangida, wife of the General
Ibrahim Bademosi Babaginda, the military president of Nigeria in September, 1987, initiated and inaugurated the "Better life Programme for Rural Dwellers" as a wakeup call for women in the rural areas in 774 local government areas of Nigeria for political participation in future. Later, the Better Life Programme for Rural Women' was changed to 'Better Life for the Urban Dwellers to include all women in all strata of the society. Consequently, through the activities of the Better Life Programme, the Federal Military Government (FMG) made it mandatory for Military Administrators at the state level to at least appoint a female Commissioner. For instance, in Ondo state Mrs. Iluyemi, Funke Egunjobi, and Bosede Apara were appointed as commissioners while Alhaja Latifa Okunnu became a deputy governor in Lagos State under a military governor.

Later, FMG created the Ministry of Women Affairs to cater for the interest of women nationwide. At the grassroots, rural, illiterate women were appointed to serve as caretaker committee members and councilors in the local government areas. The resultant effect was that it actually encouraged many women's full participation in politics. On 13th January, 1987, the FMG set up a political bureau to conduct a national dialogue on the political future of Nigeria under the Chairmanship of Doctor S.J, Cookey which submitted a detailed report which was applauded as logic, profound in research, factual in representation, and impartial in analysis of our historical and political development, together with recommendations on the way forward" of 256 pages in March, 1987. (https:// DAWODU.COM. -Mamser, 2015). Even though the term of reference did not cover the issue of gender parity, women
Non-Governmental Organizations such as Women in Nigeria(WIN), Women's Consortium of Nigeria (WOCON), Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN), started to sensitize women both rural and urban for political participation. In the same vein, Better Life Programme (BLP) intensified effort in what seemed to mobilize women for political participation. However, the main purpose of the founder, the First Lady, Mrs. Maryam Babaginda came into limelight that her focus was on the

mobilization of rural women for empowerment when the Federal Military Government (FMG) established a National Commission for Women Affairs in compliance with the UN Directive in 1989,under decree30, with a view to address the issue of gender equality, under the leadership of an erudite scholar and CEDAW advocate, Professor Bolanle Awe whose focus centred on the empowerment of women both in the rural and urban in order to emancipate them economically, educationally and politically.

3. 2 Development during the Third Republic

For transition to the third republic, between 1990 and 1993 President Ibrahim Babangida set up transitional time table to civilian rule, initially made National Electoral Commission (NEC) to register thirteen political parties which were later deregistered and established two political parties: National Republican Convention (NRC) and Social Democratic Party (SDP). Politicians both men and women went into the race, for example, Mrs. Sarah Jubril contested as candidate among a total of thirteen presidential candidates - the first of its kind in the history of Nigeria Chief (Mrs.) Titi Ajanaku, a nurse by profession, floored all the male contestants to emerge as the Chairman of Ake Local Government in Ogun State. She contested and won on the platform of Social Democratic Party. Mrs Bola Ogunbo ran as a Vicepresidential candidate to Alhaji Yusuf. Women were so involved that many were appointed to government parastatals, and commissions. Mrs Osinatu Ojikutu was picked as Deputy Governor of Lagos State while Prof Mrs Abba Sagoe became the Secretary to Government under Governor Michael Otedola in Lagos State. (Eyewitness Account)

Within the two political parties (NRC &SDP), for the first time in the political history of Nigeria, women were fully involved in the electoral process and in the governance in the states controlled by them. For example, Mrs Olugbemi Kikelomo (The Writer of this paper) served in Bauchi State as Gubernatorial Election Chairperson for NRC. Similarly, Alhaja Fati Muazu was made Secretary to Government in Bauchi State. Regrettably, the 1993 presidential election that was acclaimed the freest and fairest election was annulled by President Ibrahim Babaginda thereby aborted the third republic.

The annulment of 12th June, 1993 election and Chief M.K.Abiola death in detention when he tried to declare himself as the winner of the election scuttled the transition programme to the third Civilian rule. After national protest, General Ibrahim Bademasi Babaginda "stepped aside" as the president, and handed over to Chief Ernest Shonekan, a civilian as the head of Interim Government on 26th August, 1993 and by17th November,1993, he was ousted in a military coup led by General Sani Abacha. In spite of aborted third republic in 1993, Nigerian women became more determined to participate fully in politics.

Another impetus was the September,1995 International Conference of Women in Beijing, and Platform of Action attended by government of different countries, sought to advance the goals of equality, development and peace for all women. The governments of 189 countries including Nigeria, unanimously adopted the 12 objectives and actions for gender equality in critical areas and then became a turning point for Nigerian women who are now conscious of CEDAW. However, the year 1996 witnessed a tornado of political assassinations of prominent Nigeria citizens, notable women in politics were also victims of these assassinations. On 4th June, 1996, Alhaja Kudirat Abiola, wife of Chief Moshood Abiola was assassinated at Ikeja, Chief (Mrs) Bisoye Tejuoso, the Iyalode of Egbaland was murdered in Abeokuta on 19th September, 1996 while Alhaja Suliat Adedeji, National Republican Convention (NRC) was also murdered in Ibadan on 14th November, 1996. (TELL Magazine, No,6, February,5,1996 titled A harvest of Architecture of Assassinations and The Guardian on Sunday, December 22,1996) In spite of these assassinations, women continued in their struggles for gender equality.

3.3 Development during the Fourth Republic1999-2015

The death of General Sani Abacha 8th June, 1998 ushered in General Abdulsalam Abubakar succeeded Abacha as the Military President on 9th June, 1998, he promised to return Nigeria to a democratic Civilian government within a year (https:// World History Archives, The Military Under General Abdulsalami Abubakar (June 1998-May, 1999>) set up electoral body known as Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) under the leadership of Justice Ephraim Akpata. Shortly after the inauguration, it commenced the conduct of election to the local government areas on 5th December, 1998, followed by State Assemblies and Governorship on 9th January, 1999, then National Assemblies on 20th February, 1999 and finally the President on 27th February, 1999.

3.3.1 Result of Election into Various Levels from 1999-2015

In spite of the fact that many women contested and that 49.36% of the total population were women in 1999 (World Bank Reprt,2012), only 1.1% won elections into to Local Government as Councillors while there was no woman Chairperson. For other elections, women only won 24 out of 991 members which is 3% into the State Assemblies,1 Deputy Governor,3 (2.8%) Senate, 12 (3.3%) House of Representatives and none into the Presidency. (Statistics of National Electoral Commission, Abuja in Okpeh Ochayi Okpeh & Dung Pam Sha,(2007) Gender, Power and Politics in Nigeria. Makurdi: Aboki Publishers, p.135)
In the general elections in 2003, for the first time in the history of Nigeria, a female speaker emerged at the House of Representatives in the person of Honourable Patricia Olubunmi Ette. In the House Assembly election in 2003, only 12 female members were elected into 990 House of Assembly across the country, 3 Senators emerged out of 109 members and 13 female members won election into the House of Representatives out 360 members. At the774 Local Government Areas, only 9 female members were elected as Chairman while 143 members were Councillors. (Ibid. 136)

Apart from election into public offices, Nigerian women have received other dividends of democracy as the Obasanjoled government assented to the bill on 'Policy on Women'. The policy, if fully implemented according to the United Nation's specifications, will give 30% of parliamentary seats to women. This is a step forward for women's development in the areas of politics. Nigerian women participated in this civilian government than ever before. During 1999 to 2003, under the leadership of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, 6 female ministers were appointed as against one or two that had been in practice.

At the state and local government levels, women were not left behind. Between 1999"and 2003, in Ondo State, for example, had three female commissioners appointed by the Adefarati government. They were Chief Mrs. Lydia Olafunmiloye, Mrs-. Jurnoke Anifowoshe and Mrs. Sanni. The number of female councillors increased than it has ever been witnessed and more women contested elections into various offices in the 2003 elections, and among them 'were two presidential candidates- Mrs. Sarah Jubril contested on the platform of Progressive Action Congress (P.A.C) and Mrs. Moji Obasanjo on the platform of Grassroots Movement of Nigeria. There were also female vice presidential candidates among the thirty political parties but none of them won the election. Twelve women in Ondo State alone contested for election into the House of Assembly, only one emerged. (Olugbemi, 2007:293)

In the fourth republic, Mrs Obada as the Deputy Governor in Osun State, and many women senators, legislators and house of assembly members emerged. From the foregoing enumerated facts, it is true that women in Nigeria have come a long way in politics. However, despite the efforts of individual women, societies, NGOs, national and International Organisations (United Nations inclusive) and even various governmental efforts, the level of women participation is still relatively low. Though, the result of the 2003 elections seemed to improve over 1999 elections as women came out to contest, only Erelu Obada of Osun, Pauline Tallen in Plateau State, and Alhaja Salimat Badru in Ogun State while Otunba Grace Titi Laoye-Tomori won elections as Governors. (Mrs Oloyede Olayemi, Monitoring of Women In Politics in Nigeria, A paper presented to National Bureau of Statistics (NBS)Abuja, Nigeria), In a twist of event, Her Excellency, Dame Virginia Ngozi Etiaba became the first female Governor in Nigeria (2nd November, 2006- 13th June, 2007) when Governor Obi was impeached in 2006 to 2007 before the impeachment was nullified. For the State Assembly election across Nigeria, only 40 females emerged as state House of Assembly members,4 female Senators, and 21 female members to the House of Representatives. In 2007, there were 68 female members elected into the Houses of Assembly across Nigeria while deputy governors emerged in Lagos state again in the person of Her Excellences, Omoba Sarah Adebisi Sosan, Late Mrs OlufunmilayoAdunni Olayinka in Ekiti state (2003-2010 and was succeeded by Professor (Mrs) Modupe Adelabu(2010-2013) while a female Speaker, Hon. Titi Oseni in Ogun state House of Assembly also emerged. In the National Assemblies, 25 females were elected into the House of Representatives while 9 females were elected into the Senate.

In 2011, there were decline in the number of women elected into various political class, 57 women were elected into Houses of Assembly, 26 female won into the House of Representatives and 7 female members to the Senate. There were two Deputy Governors in Lagos State and Anambra State in the person of Her

Excellences Adejoke Orelope Adefulire, Lady Barr. Valerie Ebe in Akwa Ibom,and Otunba (Mrs) Grace Titilayo Tomori (2010-2015) (Daily Trust Newspaper, Saturday, June 13, 2016)

According to INEC, the result of the 2015 elections reveal that out of 919 seat contested into the House of Assembly, only 46 females were elected, only 14 females were elected into the House of Representatives and 8 females to the Senate (Ibid.). In 2015, Dr. Ipalibo Gogo Banigo became the Deputy Governor of Rivers State, in Lagos state, Dr Idiat Oluranti Adebule was elected the Deputy Governor, Mrs Yetunde Onanuga, elected a female Deputy Governor in Ogun, Hon. Cecilia Ezeilo was also elected as the female Deputy Governor of Enugu State (Ibid.).

From the above, it is obvious, that women tried to overcome all obstacles against CEDAW such as religion, culture, male chauvinism, patriarchy etc yet, only few women gained access to both political and appointive office. Various reasons that could be adduced for the gradual decrease in the number of women elected into various level of political hierarchy in Nigeria. First, was the waning influence of Beijing Conference, because women in politics were more concerned with their political party meetings in preparatory for second term in office of Governors as the wives of the governors were more concerned the with the pet projects that would muster support for their husbands. Hence, they concentrated on programmes that will mobilize support for their spouses as the central focus instead of agitation for gender equality. They therefore, jettisoned the planning of seminars and workshops on political education for women. Only few NGOs like Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN) were doing so. Majority of the NGOs became subsumed by the ruling political party (PDP). Apart from that, male opponents of women who contested during the elections were moneybags and would not spare any amount to ensure they were elected into offices. Nigerian women were not yet bold enough to challenge election malpractices in this country. Daylight manipulation of' election results in favour of the highest bidder is one of the factors militating against women's full integration into politics.

As mothers, women cannot risk anybody's life for election victory, which the men in Nigerian politics care less about. Thirdly, there was more solidarity among men than we have among women. Fourthly, women are yet to learn the tricks and intricacies of the political game. As a way to overcome these inhibiting factors, women in leadership position must embark on mentoring of other yet to be empowered and politically motivated for equal participation with men is to be realized.

4. Conclusion

Women are nation builders in Nigeria as elsewhere in the world. The involvement of women in politics and in policymaking will usher in a new period of peace and stability which has eluded the country. The dictum says "You train a woman; you have trained the nation"; because they can easily influence both their husband, children, friends and relations, women without doubt are good managers of their homes and of nations. In essence, Nigeria must stop paying lip service to gender equality through the 30% Affirmation, the Federal Government should take a bold step to enforce the Bill of Rights in CEDAW through legislation 50% like other countries such as Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Spain, Rwanda, Germany, New Zealand etc for the realization of gender equality in Nigeria.

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Technological Advancement: Issues, Challenges and Perspectives for Human Resource Practice in Nigeria

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Abstract. The adoption of modern technology in the 21st century poses considerable threat to most developing countries such as the environmental factors like economic system and level of development as the bane affecting domestic organisation. This has shaped human resource management and employment relations in most organisations in Nigeria. The study adopted System Theory by Talcott Parsons which sees organization as sub-system that interacts within a given environment (products, services and information) on how human resource practitioners are seen as the link to have requisite personnel experts in handling the operations of the organisations. The paper revealed that human resource management is challenged with effective performance, diversity in employees' values, federal character and economic downturn. However, for effective and efficient human resource management in the 21st century, the paper recommended that the human resource practitioners should upgrade the human resource professional skills, provision of requisite expertise of personnel in handling affairs of the organisations as well as utilisation of information technology.

Keywords: Human Resource Management, Human Resource Practitioners, Organisations, Technology, 21st Century

1. Introduction

It is indisputably lucid that the organisational growth and development, be it public or private enterprise is hinged solely on the quality of the personnel that constitutes the workforce. Human resource management has evolved to become an indispensable academic field of study as well as an important function in the management of organisations. Armstrong (2006) conceives the concept human resource management as a strategic and logical approach to the management of an institution most valued assets (referring to the personnel who works within an organization, as individuals or a group of people with the priority of achieving the set-goals of such firm). Arising from this conception, the human resource department of an organization is saddled with the responsibility to utilize workers potentials in delivering the services to meet the strategic goals of the management (Johanson, 2009). Human resource unit is basically concerned with how people are managed within organisations with great emphasis on the systems, policies and structure (Collins and Wood, 2009). The human resource department is seen as the heartbeat of any organisation because it is generally responsible for a number of functions which include job advertisements, recruitment, selection and placement of employees, policy formulation, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation and remuneration like managing pay and benefits of emolument for employees (Paauwe and Boon, 2009). It is worthy of noting that human resource unit is concerned with industrial and employment relations in maintaining a balance of organisational practices with regulations that arise from collective bargaining, negotiations and governmental laws (Klerck, 2009).

The 21st century organisations and businesses are growing both in size and shape at a very rapid rate which is hinged on technology, globalisation and the competitive environment of numerous businesses. Today's organizations must be dynamic, proactive and responsive to its immediate environment and face challenges in order to survive in the volatile labour market. It is of immense importance to the management to invest in its recruits or its workforce so as to improve individuals' competencies which could invariably lead to corporate capacity that can become real and flexible source of competitive advantage for organisation to position itself strategically. Be that as it may, in doing this, there are some major resources used to manage organisation which include human resources, materials, machines, (facilities and energy), money and information. Thomas, (2007), and Bawalla and Adegbite, (2019) asserts that for organisation to achieve its desired goals in this epoch there is a great need for management to have efficient and effective operations, good financial base, managing people as well as managing information and more importantly, must be very conversant with latest advancement of technology in the 21^{st} century. The personnel of an organisation are often considered the most important resources because it takes people to get anything done in the organisation, on whatever the assignment. Thus, the workforce is often seen as the most vital aspect of corporations.

The primary aim of human resource management in this era of modern technology is to ensure that the personnel making up the workforce are well-utilised and managed effectively. More so, the personnel officers carryout the duty to formulate and implement policies, and design programs to ensure manpower development and improve the entire performance of the organisation. Globally, there is need for human resource practitioners and professionals to have a well-equipped workforce and so as to be able to respond to the increased competition of mobile talents, changes in both workforce attitudes and composition, routine in management and employees relations as well as the rapid development in human resource technology. The modern technological advancement had contributed immensely for technical knowledge, expertise, skills and abilities which requires the human resource practitioners to deal with the accelerating pace and unforeseeable dynamic events within the global context in various organisations (Fajana, Owoyemi, Elegbede and Gbajum-Sheriff, 2011). This could be seen as a barrier in achieving efficiency and effectiveness on human resource management. Some of the issues paved way for low priority of the management, short-term view of addressing human resource management issues, lack of requisite skills and technical savvy to match this era of globalisation and also, in implementing human resource management policies and practices, lack of guidance of human resource programmes to achieve long-term impacts for human resource initiatives and lack of strategic human resource management. For effectiveness and efficiency as well as for organisation to position itself strategically, there is need for human resource practitioners to address how to add value to their workforce; type of personnel needed for service delivery at a particular time of employment; how to develop and train these personnel; how the mangers are capable of knowledge dissemination; the application of innovation and inventions of new technology in the workplace as well as ensure that the management representatives in the positions of authority fascinate workers involvement and commitment in a turbulence period, most especially what is being encountered arising from the upgrading of most organisation to digital base.

However, it is apparent that the era of 21^{st} century has shaped industrial relations, employment relations and more importantly, human resource management with a lot of enormous herculean tasks before human resource practitioners, professionals and managers which pose as a threat to the production of products, personnel, goods and service in workplace and society at large. It is against this backdrop that the study sought to focus on the issues and challenges of human resource management in the 21^{st} century in Nigeria.

2. Objective of the Study

The objective of the study is to look into the issues and challenges of human resource management in 21^{st} century in Nigeria. The main aim of doing this is to examine the perspectives of system theory by Talcott Parsons (1951) on the premise that an organization are perceived as sub-system that interact with it is environment in order to survive and such that the system are interrelated and interdependent of different part that are natural or man-made. This would obviously enhance our understanding and knowledge on various shapes and dimension in which human resource management in organisation are managed and some bottlenecks encountered based on some environmental factors that are beyond the management control due to advancement of new technology in 21^{st} century.

3. Theoretical Exposition: Systems Theory (Talcott Parsons, 1951)

The study is anchored on structural functionalism theory which is derived from ideas of cause and effect, part-whole and necessary requirement for institutions to work together. Talcott Parsons (1951) explained how order or equilibrium was maintained among the various elements were considered to be mutually supportive and tending toward a dynamic equilibrium.

The structure of the society is seen as the sum total of social relationships governed by norms, values and culture, educational system, health and political system among others. Thus, an institution is seen as a structure made up of interconnected parts which play different roles towards achieving the main aim. On the reverse, Parson's identified the essential mechanism for the achievement of social order as common value integration, that is, system integration through the value consensus. These prerequisites can be refers to as challenges that the system must proffer solution in order to survive. These include the imperatives of Adaptation, Goal Attainment, Integration and Latency or Pattern Maintenance (popularly known as AGIL functions).The answer to the prerequisites above must be institutionalized if society is to continue in existence. In other words, the solutions must be organized in the form of ordered or patterned social relationship, that is, institutions that persist through time.

Organisations depends on their social settings to survive and in terms of the available resources like clients/customers who buy goods and services, suppliers of materials and resources, labour power in terms of workers that provide labour or management, investors and shareholders and regulations of government policies. However, the open-system approach was first applied to organisation by Katz and Kahn (1966), and this was based on Theory of Organisation Behaviour. This implies the identification of organizational behaviour in terms of operations of input, output and feedback between an organisation and its external environment. One of the shortcomings of System Theory is measurement and on the issue of whether the means by which organisation survives really matters or not. Robbins (1990), describes measuring as a means of process of an organisation which can be difficult when compared to measuring specific end goals of the goal attainment approach of the organisation.

Applying this to study in perspective, organisations often interact with their immediate environment, the interaction such as products, goods, services and exchanging of information goes a long way in shaping the mode of operations that exist within the organisation and environment. The human resource practitioners, managers and officers are often seen here as the bridge builder or link in ensuring that right people are put in the place to manage the affairs of organisation most especially, in this present era of the 21st century. It is presumed or perhaps assumed that this present epoch has shaped employment relations and industrial relations matters in such a way that the human resource practitioners and mangers must keep abreast on the advancement of new technology and globalisation so as to be able to strategically position the organisation for any turbulence or future occurrence of any issues that poses as a threat to organisation and its immediate environment.

4. The Historical antecedents of Human Resource Management

The historical antecedent of human resource management can vividly be trailed on the need of proper management of workers in an organisation, which is of necessity to the productivity and success of the organisation. In the beginning of the last century, scholars in the field of industrial management such as Fredrick W. Taylor, Henry Mayol and Max Weber established the fact that employee productivity, proper organisation and supervision in the workplace are very central to the overall performance to organisation productivity. Subsequently, in the mid-1950s, Mary parker came up with the idea of the need to pay attention to workers needs and interests in organisation. This later metamophsied into the study of motivation and job satisfaction by scholars such as Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg who were able to establish that there is need to consider the employees' needs and personal interest so as to motivate employees towards actualization of organisational goals and objectives.

In view of this, there is need for human relations movement emphasizing on ‘‘human welfare’’ for workers in organisation. The administrators meant for these roles were tag “welfare secretaries” and were later confirmed and known as “personal administrators”. Arising from this, the workers in the organisation adopted collective bargaining as a means to collect better pay, allowances and better working conditions. After the Second World War, personnel management was regarded as administrative function which is solely related with operational matters relating to job advertisement, recruitment, selection, placement, training, development and performance appraisal were directed towards individual employee while the industrial relations on the other hand were regarded as to focus on trade unions, and handling of grievances and disputes which were concerned with collective labour issues.

However, the growth of human resource management is attributed to collective bargaining, industrial relations which are adopted globally as the most important method of determining employees' remuneration (pay packet) and the conditions of employment. Attention moved away from individual employee to the polices of human resource management as specified by the organisation in which the management began to see industrial relations as an area of strategic initiative in terms of the fact that collective bargaining is seen as the rule making process to resolve issues based on key procedural and substantive rules governing the employment relations. This brought about a plus that it encourages workers to shape the decisions affecting them, the democratic activity that exists between the trade unions. The new development by the human resource management paved way for shift for employees, as employees are regarded as the vital asset of in the organisation, this affirmed the fact that employees should be valued at their workplace, together with the issues of how they are managed as well as the capability of employees for transforming the organisation of which they are part. It is equally crucial for organisation to train and develop workers on the basis that they are seen as the physical assets of the organisation and also, ensure that ideal employees are recruited to facilitate organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

5. The Advancement of Technology and Human Resource Management Issues

In this 21st century, it is no doubt that advancement of new technology is assumed to be interconnected globally. Technologies are often regarded as the process of making economy dominated by capitalist models. However, for effective and efficient service delivery within the workforce due to the fact that today’s businesses are transacted on both international and national scale which involves the movement of goods and services, technology, capital, managerial knowledge and trade across the national boundaries. Also, globalisation has turned the universe to a global village through the fast communication network. The global economies have become increasingly integrated due to the advancement of technology (Bhaqwatti, 2004). The success of modern organisations across the globe could be attributed to quality of human resource that runs the affairs of the management as well as the competitiveness within the environment. This can be measured based on information, knowledge, engineering and technology at its disposal. The internet has made communication networks to be very flexible and easy and this encourages marketing to take place with all activities of work transactions are done on one’s desk without moving out. The acceptance of management to be involve global market means such organisation is internationally accepted for its goods and services. Besides, it is important for human resource practitioners to adapt to the basic requirements for international needs in terms of aligning the peoples, good and service produces, ideas and information needed to meet the local needs.

The factors such as the regional range to be covered, diverse culture, distinctive in social and legal practices and cross-border migration of funds, products (goods and services), and people that foreign organisation faces add a need for competency and sensitivity that is not found in the local firm (Vance and Paik, 2006). In so doing, human resource officers in this epoch are geared to strive, to balance, and to think outside box (globally) and act locally. For organisation in Nigeria to adapt to human resource management in line with advanced technology (globalisation), there are some environmental factors that often pose threat that affect the domestic organisation in running effectively as identified in this 21st century by (Anyim, Ikemefun and Mbah, 2011). These factors are in most cases beyond or outside the organisation to control. These include:

Economic system and the level of economic development (capitalist; economic system based on competition between businesses, mixed economy in terms of government intervention or mixture of capitalism and socialism. On the level of economic development can be viewed in the aspect of the country or nations’ economies in terms of developed, developing and underdeveloped).

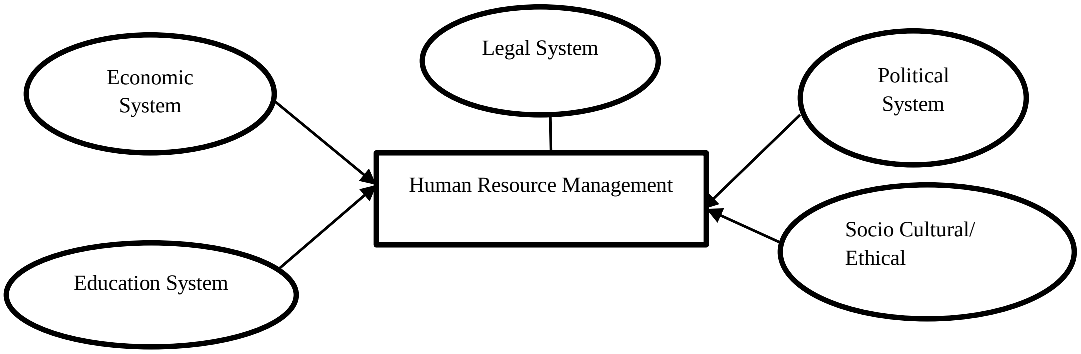
Legal system (the legal systems is often a constraint with strict or unfavourable statutory laws, regulations and administrative policies. These statutory laws are in most cases seen as hindrance to most organisations as human resource officers are bent on complying to these stipulated legal system environments.

Political system (the political environment entails the power play, ideologies, government policies and regulations on industrial relations matters which deal with affairs and management of human resource management in the organisations.

Educational and Language (the educational system and language vary from one country to another and this often constitute barriers to trade or transact business across the border.

Socio-cultural and Ethical environment(the social-cultural and ethical environment are often related to the values, norms, customs and traditions of organisation and perhaps the way the system operates in terms of reward system or management as well as other factors associated with the organisational culture and structure.

5.1 Factors Influencing Human Resource Management in the 21st Century



Source: *Anyim, Ikemefun and Mbah, (2011)*

5.2 Challenges of Human Resource Management in Nigeria

Employees are most difficult set of people to manage in any organisation. The human resource management department faced a lot of challenges and bottleneck in ensuring that organisations were strategically positioned so as to accomplish the organizational goals. The human resource management specifically dealt with recruitment, selection, training and development, employees' relations, performance and so on. Due to this complexity associated with human resource management, the human resource officers and practitioners were faced with some challenges and some these issues are discussed below as adduced by Anyim, Ikemefun and Mbah, (2011)

Lack of Effective Performance: The outcome of good performance invariably leads to improvement in productivity. Deficiency in productivity often paved way for labour turnover, decline in standard of living and economic downturn. In light of this, human resource practitioners were geared to ensure that right personnel are put in the right places so as to achieve the organisational goals for the betterment of employment relations. The human resource practitioners perform significant functions to improve the quality of products and greater outputs performance for organisations.

Labour Matters and Social Legislation: The various new policies of benefits and fringe allowances, Health Insurance Scheme (NIS), new pension reforms, gratuity schemes and National Housing funds etc. could be seen that it has added to organisational budget cost in which the management (employer) will have to play the role of recruitment and selection of applicants and most importantly, in maintaining and disposing of their workers.

Differences in Employees' Values: The difference in employees' values has to do with work ethics in organisations. Organisations strive to hire and keep employees who work in a manner compatible with their own corporate culture and behaviour to create an emotional sense of belonging to the institutions. Employees are to comply with management directives on work ethics such as punctuality, honesty, diligence etc. By and large, in recent times, there was great decline in work ethics in workplace such as corruption, maladministration, moonlighting, absenteeism, and late coming to work. This phenomenon has become so worrisome that the human resource practitioners were faced with in this turbulent period of economic recession and the harsh environment in this 21st century. This had paved way for corrupt practices, lack of transparency, indiscipline and wasteful spending.

Quota System and Federal Character: The term quota system simply means an even distribution of resources and personnel in organisation or area or at the regional level. Although, it is often associated with public organisations where the government investments and businesses were expected to abide to the principle of federal character in employment related matters. The human resource practitioners were faced with enormous tasks in ensuring that employment procedures were strictly complied with the principle of federal character and ensuring such appointments or employment procedures were based on merits and standards.

Labour/Employees Dissatisfaction in Workplace: Human resource management is also challenged with the high rate of unionism of workers, poor morale and disinterest of employees in organization. The depletion of human resource personnel (brain drain), poor attitudes to work, industrial disputes and conflicts and strikes have also been on rampant in the workplace.

Corporate Social Responsibilities by the Management: It has always been the case that enterprises or organisations operating within the social environment made life unpleasant for the host communities with diverse forms of contamination via environmental or water as well as destruction of other natural resources, it was expected that such organisations payback to the host communities in terms contributing to the social, well-being and development of social amenities back to the communities. For instance, the corporate social responsibilities can be in form of educational development to young ones, sporting activities and other social amenities that would be of relevance to the host communities and most importantly, its contributions to the major sector of the economy.

Role of Government in Industrial Relations Matters: Over the years, government was seen an umpire in industrial relations in Nigeria, It set out the stipulated and statutory procedures for employment relations practices which was being tagged as "guided democracy". The government enacts various legislations and laws from time to time and as such situations compiled with the directives of International Labour organisation (ILO). The issue here is that, human resource practitioners were expected to be vigilant and keep abreast of employment legislations on a regular basis.

Internal Environmental Factors on the part of Employer: It is obvious that there were competitive pressures in the 21st century, so organisations were faced with challenges of internal factors such as technological advancement of inventions and innovations. This was however seen as a contributing factor to human resource management and planning, for most organisations in the aspect of supply and demand of manpower for resources.

Economic Downturn: A downturn in economic as to do with a decline in economic activities which invariably paved way for shortage of industrial production and as such led to unemployment. This tended to pose threat to industrial relations institutions and thus affected the external environment factor in negotiation as well as collective bargaining process. This had an adverse on human resource practitioners as it affected not only the productivity of organisations but human resource suffered most here as they would be the ones at the receiving end, on the basis of the rise in inflation of goods and commodities.

Reform of Public Service by Government: By reform, it means the amendment and improvement that government agencies and businesses are transparent, open and economic and devoid of unnecessary favoritism and corrupt practices that will undermine government institutions. It basically involves the re-orientation, re-positioning and re-organisation in order to ensure effective and open system of economic and financial management of government resources. The human resource practitioners were enjoined to be in forefront in this 21st century for recognition and respect of human resource management on related issues of employment relations.

Casualisation of Workers: Casualisation became prominent in the 21st century in Nigeria unlike in the 70s, 80s and 90s when it was not all that in existence. However, the decline or low productivity for most organisations was to minimise costs and profits which paved way for contract staff in manufacturing, construction and more importantly, in the banking sector. It is vital to note that permanent workers earn more than the contract workers and invariably, put the casualissation of workers to be at the receiving end due to the fact that this category of workers were not entitled to allowances, pension and gratuity. This act gave employers the liberty to sack and employ casual workers would earn little and this had generated a lot of controversies between the unions and management. The human resource managers were expected to wade in by providing guidance and advising the management on the needful.

Privatization of Human Resource: Privatization of human resource department in most organizations in Nigeria has become a trending issue. Majority of the organization consult outsourcing firms to perform the functions of human resource in their organization. Thus, the functions of the outsourcing firms in terms of recruitment, selection, training and development, remuneration, performance appraisal, workers motivation, employee engagement etc., in most cases does not conform to the standard of industrial relation practices.

Work-life Balance: Over times, this has been a trending issue in the world of work and has pose serious challenge for human resource managers. The level of globalization and the competitive environment of numerous businesses increase the workloads on daily basis which pose various problems in terms of stress and fatigue, psychological disorder, health issues among others to the workforce. In most cases, workers leave their occupation when they cannot maintain equal balance between their personal lives and their expected obligations.

From the foregoing, the main aim for human resource practitioners and mangers of human resource in this 21st century was the urgency to manage the drastic change in advancement of technology on how to adapt promptly within the context of human resource management on the appropriate competencies required. The constraints as identified had a great potential for disputes and conflicts. Hence, there was need for human resource officers to develop social and diplomatic skills to avert any future occurrence of such conflicts. The issues like diversity, employment equity, reputation of organisations as well as the work/corporate ethics among others must be identified as the main factors for human resource professional's roles and capabilities.

5.3 Possible Solutions to Human Resource Management in Nigeria

Every business environment is bound to experience challenges and also competitive pressures faced in 21st century could be attributed to globalisation and liberalisation and this would result in future demand for organizational excellence. The complex world of multi-national businesses required a new strategic focus and new capabilities of human resource management. For human resource to be successful and make way, the human resource should not be defined by what it did but perhaps by service delivery in terms of oriented results based on organisation value to customers, investors and employees. Also, in within the global context and new roles there was the need to focus on staffing and compensation of employees. The following are the possible ways to human resource management in Nigeria and these include:

Heterogeneity of Workforce: This talks about workers being different from one another and also, made up of parts. Specifically, it focused on individual discrepancies in the place of work which consist different departments. Human resource managers were geared to ensure that employees were of equal value and no workers should be given preference over one another. While doing this, the personnel officers must also give attention to job satisfaction and commitment, and ensure that the creative performance of the workers is maximised due to the diversity requirements of employees' individual differences.

Diversity of Technical Savvy: The advancement of technology in the 21st century paved way for human resource practitioners to be diverse and multi-skilled. Human resource practitioners were enjoined to be more committed and devoted to the main strategic issues of management of human resource in organisations and society at large. The diversity of human resource brought about human capital development, skills and capabilities to management effectively the challenges of 21st century that were being encountered by human resource practitioners.

The Influence of Information Technology: With the internet facilities everywhere, it had made world a global village for connectivity of people, goods and services. There was free flow of information on ideas. With the interconnectivity, the human resource managers were expected to explore these ideas and information to shape the face of the management in the production of goods and service so as to ensure the actualisation of organisational goals and objectives. The information gathered brought about the positioning the organisations strategically in terms of new innovations and inventions in the 21st century.

Transformation/Innovation of Human Resource Practitioners: The need for human resource professionals to adopt transformation of new advancement of technology in the 21st century in order to remain relevant in this present epoch on human resource management related matters such as employment relations, industrial relations and management of trade and industrial unions. The changes in technology enable human resource practitioners to become agents of continuous transformation, involvement in processes, culture and values that help organization to achieve their mission and vision and more importantly, the change in capacity of organisation. Although change is inevitable and it always generates resistance in some cases, so human resource managers played a vital role in changed process of organisations.

Interference of Political Authority: The political interference in democratic settings often affected the formation of employment relations and other industrial relations matters. The human resource professionals helped in providing pieces of advice to the political authority so as to enable democratic optimal and enhance stability within the political structures of the country. A nation with crisis is expected to experience reduction in economic activities and this will affects the modus operandi of organisations. Thus, it was the duty of human resource practitioners to contribute immensely to the political structure of the country.

Provision of Requisite Expertise for Human Resource in Workplace: In order to explore and design the means of implementing human resource management functions in a more proactive, efficient and effective ways to reduce costs, the human resource practitioners were expected to be seasoned administrators and professionals with requisite knowledge on management of personnel in the workplace. The efficiency, effectiveness and quality of personnel had to be maintained and retained for prompt service delivery of activities in the workplace and could be attributed to the provision of expertise of human resource management.

Elevation of Human Resource Professional Skills: It is no doubt that there are enormous challenges for not human resource practitioners but also for organisations and societies in general. However, for human resource professional to deal with this global issue and remain relevant in this 21st century, there was need for quality of human resource personnel needs to be improved. Personnel that managed and coordinated the workforce effectively showed they had integrity and such talents were encouraged for additional training and development to sharpen their skills. Frequent elevation and upgrading of human resource professionals' skills were also of robust necessity in development and management of organisations in this contemporary epoch.

Maintaining work-life balance: The needs to maintain work-life balance is an herculean tasks that must be embrace by human resource managers, professionals and managers in relation to good service delivery. It is the responsibility of the human resource managersto maintains moderate level of work-life balance among the workforce by creating a segregating line between work and leisure activities. Hence the manager has to work to avoid such scenario and they need to help employees in finding right work-life balance (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)

6. Conclusion and Recommendation

This paper concluded that there were enormous challenges for human resource management practitioners and professional in the 21st century which had shaped human resource management unlike what we had in the 70s, 80s and perhaps 90s. The reasons for this could be attributed to the advancement of new technology in the new millennium which shaped the models of products, information, goods and services and more importantly, the people that performed the ultimate tasks in the workplace. Furthermore, there had been some complexity associated with the issues bordering on human resource management in Nigeria, in terms of lack of effectiveness in performance, poor labour matters and social legislations, differences in employees values, the issues of quota system and federal character, role of government in industrial relations matters and perhaps the inefficient or misplaced priority of corporate social responsibilities by the management of some organisations to the host communities.

This paper focused on the main issues and challenges encountered in the 21st century being experienced by human resource practitioners in Nigeria. However, in the light of these challenges identified, there are some possible ways for the improvement of human resource practitioners and professionals, among these are the heterogeneity of workplace in which the human resource should give preference and attention to the job commitment of personnel, the diversity of technical savvy of human resource practitioners in order to bring about human capital development, skills and capabilities of personnel. Similarly, the influence of information technology which had shaped the world to be a global village via connectivity of people, resources and services, the innovations of human resource practitioners as an agent of continuous transformation of change process for the actualisation of goals in the workplace. There is also the need for requisite expertise of human resource managers to be proactive, effective and efficient in-service delivery and more importantly is upgrading of human resource professional skills in discharging of duties appropriately.

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Curbing Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea for Improved Maritime Security: Prospects for Nigeria

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Introduction

Since the evolution of piracy, from the Cilician, Greek, Chinese, Barbary and Caribbean pirates to Somali, Malacca Straits, South China sea and the present pirate situation in West Africa, they had operated or still operates in the absence of state authorities or sometimes in collisions with the state authority. However, in modern times, the presence of pirates could be primarily tracked to the Straits of Malacca in the South China Sea, off the coast of Somalia and in the Gulf of Guinea, the latter which forms the basis of this paper. Pirates attacks in the Gulf of Guinea is and has taken a worrisome trend, in so much that, unlike the Somali pirates, the Gulf of Guinea pirates attack cargoes especially the oil loaded ones thus, hurting maritime security in the coastal states located in the Gulf.

With regards to the above assertion, various efforts have been put in place to combat pirate activities in the Gulf of Guinea, of such efforts includes initiatives such as the MICC, the Zone E MMCC, strategic management of maritime space, the need for better co-ordination of legal efforts between Nigeria and the regions which are acknowledged in the Memorandum of Understanding between ECCAS, ECOWAS and the Gulf of Guinea Commission, efforts by the Nigerian government in building up its capacity and also those around the Gulf of Guinea, among others.

Despite the various efforts to curb piracy in the Gulf of Guinea for improved maritime security, numerous challenges have posed a threat to that possibility such as the ease at which the pirates can disappear along the coastlines after an attack, this is because the Gulf of Guinea is characterized by an ideal shipping and fishing venue which makes it favourable for that; limited patrol capacity to police the coast. These and many more tend to stall opportunities and efforts in countering piracy in the Gulf of Guinea. In as much as there are continuing challenges, close at hand are prospects and the way forward in curbing piracy in the Gulf of Guinea for improved maritime security. The Gulf of Guinea requires more effective measures; this can be done through the advancement of more collaboration with international partners and the African governments covering the Gulf of Guinea, also, targeted economic development in the regions that surround the Gulf of Guinea, for example, the situation in the Niger Delta represents a widespread of poverty in the region which in turn serve as an encouraging factor to piracy.

It is against this backdrop that the paper is brings into limelight piracy and maritime security in the Gulf of Guinea with its challenges and prospects with specification to Nigeria. This paper would hence, be of significance to policymakers in evolving strategies to counter piracy in the Gulf of Guinea.

Setting the Context: Maritime Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea

With over five oil producing or potentially endowed States, piracy in the Gulf of Guinea (GG) have distinct peculiarities, though, with few similar circumstances in relation to piracy in the Gulf of Eden, or off the coast of Somalia. The GG recorded more criminal activities in comparisonto those crime activities perpetuated in the horn of Africa. Furthermore, the GG is considered as one of the deadliest places on earth due to the numerous criminal activities, insomuch that in 2011, the GG was classified as “a war risk zone for shipping”. The GG is characterise by frequent crime activities around its geographical sphere of influence. there are indeed, increase in the number of attacks which are frequently carried out in the GG. An investigation by FBI shows the increase in the frequency of attacks in the GG. Of these figures provided by, Nigeria dominates with 22 out of a total number of 29 incidents in regards to attacks and severity of maritime piracy the 2013 report observes.

Maritime insecurity in the Gulf of Guinea is a regional problem that encompasses many transnational organized crimes, including piracy and armed robbery at sea, money laundering, illegal arms and drugs trafficking, illegal oil bunkering, crude oil theft, human trafficking and smuggling, maritime pollution, illegal, unregulated, and unreported fishing, illegal dumping of toxic waste, maritime terrorism and hostage-taking, and vandalization of offshore oil infrastructure. West Africa's strategic location as a route between the Americas and Europe, coupled with its natural resources and lack of full governance capacity in the maritime domain, create an environment in which these maritime crimes can flourish.

Furthermore, piracy in the GG is somewhat different from other places. For instance, unlike in the Somalia, the pirate activities in the GG are carried out both in the territorial waters and in the international waters. However, some conditions influence the diversity in crimes activities in the GG. One of these conditions is that the region in view has several active ports which are involved in both local and international trade. More so, vessels not only transit through the region but sail into the ports to either load or unload products. This therefore provides an opportunity for the pirates to attack ships that are either on transit anchored and waiting to berth. Another condition that needs to be stated here is the accessibility and interception to some intelligent information from ashore in attempts made by establishments to describe their products and also routes to maritime regimes. More so, unlike the piracy in Somalia and elsewhere where their pirate activities are characterised by mostly kidnappings, and ransom taking.

On the other hand, the West African pirates operations can be grouped and characterise into three dynamics models; armed robbery, Kidnapping and ransom taking, and oil theft. Also, according to researchers and evidences that compound, the rate at which the pirates in the Gulf of Guinea are sophisticated is a further explanation of the knitted relationship between the West African pirate and other transnational organised criminal networks. Unlike the Somalian pirates, the pirates in the Gulf of Guinea are deathlier, they are often in possession of high calibre automatic rifles and Rocket Propel Grenades (RPGs). Additionally, they are often times more to use it than not, they are not frightened or anxious to use those weapons in the face of any threat or danger to them especially the one posed by the coast guards. What is more complicating is the proliferation of light arms thus making it complex to deal with and making it an enduring epidemic which is not unconnected to the global energy crisis of the crash in the international oil market. This situation stresses the notion that there are different consequences as a result of the piracy in Gulf of Guinea. Aside from the loss of lives and injuries, there is also the economic perspective to which results to impairments on an economy. To corroborate with the preceding assertions, one could consider an Instance of Cotonou where 80% of government revenue is derived from the country is gotten the port in Cotonou was drastically reduced to 28% in 2013.

At the echelon of the surge in piracy within the Gulf of Guinea is the role played by Nigerian pirates and their fusion with rebel agenda. To illustrate this, some rebel groups like that of the MEND, and the Bakassi Strike force not also forgetting the Avengers. At first approach, these pirate organisations start with a lucrative business and also as an extension of their political agender offshore which is further moved by a combination of greed and grievances. This situation has additionally compounded the dynamic nature of piracy manifestation in this region. This is linked with the argument that most of these countries are characterised by political instability, underdevelopment, intractable conflicts, weak and corrupt government and more so, are failing states. This and more had made it a challenge in efforts to curb piracy in the Gulf of Guinea. Indeed, prior to the increase of piracy activities in the Gulf of Guinea. Nigeria and Angola were the only states who appeared to have the semblance of maritime security, although these were not as effective as it should have been.

2. Causes of Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea

There are several direct and remote causes linked to the prevalent piracy in the Gulf of Guinea. Indeed, countries in the Gulf of Guinea have access to resources which serve as wealth creation such as their vast oil wealth. Despite this privilege, most of these countries are left in abject poverty primarily as a result of corrupt governance. Countries in this region lack access to basic societal services and needs such as health facilities, access to education, and decent job opportunities. That is to say, with the abundance of these resources which are an avenue for wealth creation, most of the countries in the region find themselves having hard time making use and accessing these resources to develop their states. For instance, Nigeria which is regarded one of the largest oil producers have for decades being struggling to have its own refinery, vested interests and entrenched corruption have left the nation's refineries moribund, making it a net importer of refined petroleum products, with a growing black market for stolen oil.

Indeed, Nigeria derives a lot of revenue from the sale of its petroleum products however, the income from the sale of crude had in most occasions circulated only in the hands of a selected few predominantly in the central government, Oil companies, and local elites in the country, leaving majority of Nigerians acquiring little or no access to those revenues. This had adversely led to. chronic opportunism and offshore criminality in the form of armed robbery and piracy. This has led to a drastic decline of opportunities needed for legitimate and comfortable living. As an antecedent, the youths in the country are, with little or no efforts, drafted into offshore and onshore criminal activities.

Enticed by the possibility of making quick and easy money, DUE to facing stiff competition from foreign vessels, many fishermen in the region often times abandon their fishing occupation and sell their boats to pirates and sometimes, convert to pirates themselves. It is worth mentioning that piracy always tends out to be a profitable and well-paid crime. Thus, the lucrative character of piracy makes it a delectable opportunity for the youths, more so, considering the enormous amount of money they can get a hold as their own percentage often times arising from ransom or payment as their share of the booty.

Another reason for the prevalence of piracy in the Gulf of Guinea is the frequency of offshore criminal activities in the countries around the Gulf of Guinea such as the Nigerian waters, these criminal activities which are predominantly oil bunkering and poaching among many other offshore crime activities had encouraged and sustained the growth of piracy. According to research carried out, ships that are into oil bunkering or with intends of it do come to the shores with large sums of money in which it usually exchanges with stolen crude oils from oil facilities in the Niger Delta. Furthermore, some persons who aware of, or are part of these criminal activities sometimes alarm their friends and allies of the possibility of a large sum of money on board such vessels. With access to this information, pirates often times than not, attack such vessels or tankers for the possibility of cash as tipped off by their friends or allies.

More so, the payment of ransom to free hostages is equally a contributing factor to the rise of piracy. As noted earlier, crimes such as kidnappings are lucrative with easy access to huge amount in less times. On a global degree, piracy is estimated to cost about $13 and $16 billion annually. The money given to those pirate's help facilitate their activities which in turn makes it difficult to counter pirate activities in the Niger Delta region. In as much as there are numerous denials by the government officials, ship owners, and oil companies, as to whether they pay ransoms for the release of hostages. However, studies had shown that often times, kidnapped hostages are only freed when a certain level of agreement must have been reached mostly in regards to the amount of money as proposed by the pirates. When such demands are met, the antecedent of it is that it generates apparent short-term benefits but the long-term cause is a heavy one as compared to the short-term causes.

More so, when these ransoms are paid, it helps the and provide those pirates with additional finances to facilitate their activities such as the procurement of sophisticated arms and the latest high-tech gadgetry, which influences in no small measure the intensity of their attacks, expand their activities to cover more grounds, that is to explore more geographical spaces for their operations, and finally, it determines how successful their raids would be. At the major cause of these conflicts is the, somewhat, uncontrollable cycle of arms proliferation in the country, since the pirates makes use of the various tools at their disposal. One could see that the obvious benefit of reaching these agreements are the eventually release of the victims. Nevertheless, it only serves as an encouragement and motivation to other criminal organisations and also the restless youths who are largely unemployed. Subsequently, the individuals who are heads of those criminal establishment could grow up to take powerful political appointments and also tend to be a powerful voice to reckon on in the social, political, and economic life of the state at the community, sub-national, and national levels.

3. Efforts at Countering Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea

There are several efforts towards effectively countering piracy in the Gulf of Guinea, these initiatives are championed most times by regional associations. According to Kuppen, these organisations are: The Gulf of Guinea Commission (GCC) created in 2001 but only operational in March 2007 when its Executive Secretariat was set up in Luanda; The Economic

Community of West African States (ECOWAS); The Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS), and the; Maritime Organization of West and Central Africa (MOWCA) established to ensure a cost-effective shipping service for sub-regional countries focusing on safety and combating pollution.

With regards to the efforts carried out by ECCAS, the organisation had developed an Incorporated Strategy for Maritime Security (ISMS) in 2008 to call for a common regional framework to be able to deal with the threat of pirate activities off Central Africa. Subsequently in 2009, it enthused the Regional Coordination Centre for Maritime Security in Central Africa (CRESMAC) in Pointe-Noire, Republic of Congo. Under the ISMS initiative, CRESMAC is saddled with the responsibility for coordinating three centres for multinational coordination (CMCs). The main goal for this initiative is to make necessary and effective use of information sharing and also authorisation of protocols which is required for the tracking of vessels across the maritime border which appear to be suspicious vessels across maritime border.

The Nigerian Maritime and Safety Agency, (NIMASA) with the Nigerian Navy had established the Maritime Guard Command for the frequent patrol of coast guards, while on the hand, the marine Police were responsible for inland waterways. Not only is NIMASA partnering with the Nigerian Navy, it also Furthermore, aside NIMASA's collaborations with the Nigeria Navy, also partners with the Nigerian Airforce in order to establish a maritime air unit in Benin to carry out air surveillances. In 2010, the eventual amelioration between the Nigeran navy and NIMASA has significant benefits in the fight against maritime piracy as it has lowered the frequent attacks as seen around the Lagos harbour. Under the auspices of the cooperation between the Nigerian Navy and NIMASA, jointly manned vessels leading law enforcement and antipiracy patrols backed with electronic surveillance assets, especially within the territorial seas and harbour approaches.

Additionally, the Secure Anchorage Area (SAA) was created and launched by the Nigerian Navy with assistance and partnerships of two special maritime companies. Under this innovation, security was further extended to some vessels to a specified area off Lagos Port. The SAA innovation presents armed preservation for vessels wishing to either anchor or carry out ship-to-ship transmit operations offshore. In other strands of cooperation between the Nigerian Navy and NIMASA and this time, with the Nigerian Airforce, a Satellite Surveillance Centre (SSC) was unveiled in 2014 which would enable the tracking of all vessels inasmuch as it is in the countries' boundaries or territories, not only does it track it down, it can recognise and identify a vessels IMO number. This initiative sequel the existing array of sensors installed along Nigeria's coastline under the Regional Maritime Awareness Capability (RMAC) program confirmed by the United States and the United Kingdom. Different other regional and international partners also adopted supportive resolutions and programs, including the African Union, United Nations, European Union, IMO, and G8. Ghana also, in view to keep up to date on the fight against piracy, has made efforts to set up an electronic vessel traffic management and information system (VTMIS) to sequel its sea and air patrols.

The Maritime Trade Information Sharing Centre for the Gulf of Guinea (MTISC-GOG) was innovated by the shipping industry with its headquarters at the Regional Maritime University in Accra, Ghana with the sole aim of being a central point for the reception of incident reporting, information sharing, and the in recent times, the maritime security guidance. More so, participating ships have a privilege of 24 hours per day security reportage. Nonetheless, not only does it provide services to participating ships, it could also provide vital information to national maritime operational basis and the Interpol.

Other efforts to curb the activities of pirates in the Gulf of Guinea, the Yaoundé Declaration was promulgated in June 2013 as a result of the permanent shift in the nature of threats posed by the pirates. The Yaoundé Declaration was an agreement between the various head of states which formed the ECOWAS and ECCAS. It was agreed in the meeting that the declaration was to establish and create a Maritime Inter-Regional Coordination Centre (MICC) which is going to be situated at Yaoundé, Cameroun. Furthermore, as an antecedent of the meeting, a "Code of Conduct Concerning the Repression of Piracy, Armed Robbery against Ships, and Illicit Maritime Activity in West and Central Africa" was implemented for the furtherance of collective efforts on information sharing, interdiction, prosecution, and support to victims. However, according to Osinowo, the enforcement of the code of conduct has been slow in its implementation stage.

4. Continuing Challenges to Curbing Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea

Indeed, there are numerous challenges encountered in efforts to curb pirates' activities in the Gulf of

Guinea. These challenges are limiting the various efforts embarked on by the respective states bordering the Gulf of Guinea. One of such is the highly adaptive nature of piracy networks in the Gulf of Guinea. A close look at the Gulf of Aden whereby the gains of the multinational antipiracy effort off the coast of Somalia metamorphosed into lengthened threats to other places in the Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean, one could see a reflection of the same instance in the Gulf of Guinea. However, in finding a resolution to this situation, while a single state approach may be able to reach temporal rewards, these approaches are very insufficient in efforts to curb the fluid strategies put in place by the various pirate groups. Also, measures on concentration only on transit vulnerabilities may appear to be inadequate as it is proven that pirates continuously adapt to naval counter measures. Thus, there is the need for to properly address the important issues on how to effectively manage maritime space and to counter what motivates pirates and their support structures on land.

Human beings live on lands and not the sea. Thus, it has become easy for pirates and robbers to get away along the coastline after an attack. This uncovers another huge challenge the region faces. Indeed, surveillance intelligence and community policing are limited in most of the coastal areas surrounding the GG, more so, youth restiveness owing much to joblessness has further accrued the situation and serve as drivers of piracy in these regions. Evidently, in the Niger Delta for instance, there was the introduction of the amnesty programme for the ex-militants in 2009, this programme has evidently reduced piracy activities I the region. However, its resurgence in 2013 is owed to the lack of employment opportunities and joblessness of the youths in the Niger Delta. 17

One of the challenges which needs the attention and enforcement measures of the government is against the growing number of pirate networks located on land. A perfect example of such is the presence of illicit markets where pirate goods are sold, these markets are largely without hindrance from security agencies and the government.

1. Perspective from the Nigerian Standpoint

Having looked at the challenges and threats piracy poses, it is only justifiable for the researcher to bring into light some measures that if properly implemented would be a step forward in the fight against piracy in the Gulf of Guinea. In order to curb pirates' activities in the Gulf of Guinea and also deter armed attacks in vessels in the GG, there needs to be more effective measures put in place. Reducing the level of pirate activities in the GG correspondingly requires deliberate efforts by Nigeria, these efforts in turn have to incorporate preventive, deterrent, and collaborative measures by the country In Collaboration with national and regional stakeholders.

For a start, in order to improve security, there needs to be more efforts tailored towards the strategic management of maritime space than it is about naval fleets and patrol craft by Nigeria. The country must put in efforts to outline corridors meant for transit purposes and also anchorage sites for the safeguard of commercial vessels.

Furthermore, to advance the regional management of the maritime space, deliberate effective measure has to be promulgated to quicken the activation process of the MICC and in addition, the pilot zone E mechanisms. When effectively carried out, it would ensure that information is efficaciously shared among various relevant law enforcement agencies, commercial stakeholders, and also international partners. Specifically, if the Maritime Operational Centres (MOCs) are created, it would further serve as solutions to some difficulties as a result of interagency cooperation between the navies and flag state control authorities.

The restricted number of piracy-related trails accentuate the need for better co-ordination of legal efforts between Nigeria and the regions which are acknowledged in the Memorandum of Understanding between ECCAS, ECOWAS and the Gulf of Guinea Commission. In order to deal with this challenge, there should be efforts deliberate aimed at prosecuting pirates, this can be done through an extensive review of the legal framework in each country's which is located in the GG to make it relevant. More so, there should be measures put in place to quicken the extraditions of suspects into Nigeria and from Nigeria to other states. More so, the coordination penalties for the crimes at sea across jurisdictions would avert the pirates from getting a more compassionate penalty and treatments when outside Nigeria and across coastal boundaries. Appending to the preceding assertion, the relevant authorities in Nigeria needs to embark on efforts which should be undertaken to effectively train members of the judiciary, this should be done with coordination by maritime enforcement agencies in order to fast track the process of evidence collection and its preservation. If done, it would efficiently make possible fair trials of culprits. In order to reduce the challenges of delays in trials, additional courts can be established devoted to treating piracy and cases of sea robberies prosecutions.

It could be argued that the background and prevalence growth of piracy stems from a lack of good governance and the security backwardness in Nigeria. Therefore, the Nigerian government needs to make efforts in building up its capacity and also those around the Gulf of Guinea. This could be in collaboration with countries with superior manpower like the USA, Britain etc.

The Nigerian government should go into more cooperation with international partners and also the African governments in the international waters around the Gulf of Guinea. It is contended that efforts at enhancing security is much more placed on the strategic management of the maritime space and not all about naval fleets and also and patrol craft. More so, the Nigerian maritime authorities must define clearer transit corridors and anchorage sites for protection of merchant vessels in their territorial waters and Exclusive Economic Zones. This would be similar to the Internationally Recommended Transit Corridor that has functioned well in the Gulf of Aden and has been replicated as a Voluntary Reporting Area in the Gulf of Guinea by the MTISC-GOG.

A close look at the situations in Niger Delta which is often characterise by numerous poor communities stresses the need for combined infrastructural development and also providing employment opportunities for the youths and also the preservation of the coastal areas' environments. Appending to that, the socioeconomic effects of illegal fishing, pollution and environmental mortification cannot be overemphasized, and so there's the need for the state and local government across these regions in Nigeria to place a priority on policy formulation and implementation which would be of immediate benefit to the coastal areas. These could be through the enforcement of laws that governs foreign intrastate shipping, appropriate implementation of environmental laws, and developing shipbuilding, fishing, and other industries where considerable production shortcomings still found. More so, the Nigeria's petroleum Industry which establish measures, aimed at deepening responsible exploitation, improving local community participation, and benefitting host communities with economic, social, and infrastructural development could also assure enhanced economic chances in coastal zones.

2. Conclusions

Indeed, the interrogations in this study reveal that the countries in the Gulf of Guinea depend to a large extent on the seas for economic prosperity. However, there is a constant attack on this source of revenue for the coastal countries on shipping with transnational dimensions which calls for multilateral remedies. However, the study concentrates and emphasises on the possible prospects and way forwards to be embarked on by the Nigerian government, and in some instances with collaborations with other countries located in the Gulf of Guinea. Such as remedies, for instance, Fast-tracking initiatives such as the MICC, the Zone E MMCC, strategic management of maritime space, the need for better co-ordination of legal efforts between Nigeria and the regions which are acknowledged in the Memorandum of Understanding between ECCAS, ECOWAS and the Gulf of Guinea Commission, efforts by the Nigerian government in building up its capacity and also those around the Gulf of Guinea among others. Thus, the study concludes that none of these remedies would be effective as to be sustaining until there is a shift in paradigm from the operational to the ministerial level where the financial resources are held. Pending the conscious political will in Nigeria and other countries bordering the Gulf of Guinea to safeguard the waters, the Gulf of Guinea will remain a challenged security space.

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Demographic Changes and Economic Growth of Sub-Sahara Africa: A System GMM Approach

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Abstract. Empirical evidences show that the relationship between demographic dynamics and economic growth is mixed and controversial. This study investigates the impact of demographic changes on economic growth of sub-Sahara African (SSA) countries using annual data between 1980 and 2019. The results based on System Generalized Method of Moments (SGMM) estimation technique revealed that urbanization rate and aging-population (65 + years) have positive and significant impact on economic growth of SSA countries, while unemployment rate exerts a significant negative impact. The study concludes that urbanization is very significant in reducing unemployment in the rural areas and promoting economic growth, therefore its importance should not be exaggerated. The study recommends that SSA countries should put urbanization at the heart of their socio-economic policies and programmes so that it can extend economic opportunities and potentials to the rural areas, which will serve as impetus for rapid economic growth of the SSA countries.

Keywords: Demographic change, Economic growth, SGMM, Sub-Sahara Africa

1. Introduction

The regions and countries of the world have continued to experience dramatic demographic changes over the years, and their effects on economic growth rates have continued to vary as well. Demographic change results from the combined effects of fertility, mortality, and migration flows. The development of these three variables determines a nation's age composition and population size (Barras & Groth, n.d). The majority of the countries with the highest population growth rates are relatively poor countries and regions of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa registered highest growth rate while Europe is the lowest. Sub-Saharan Africa changed from 7.4% of world population in 1950 to 12.4% in 2010, while Europe declined from 22% to 11% in the same time period (Gene, Wang & Yan-Lin, 2017). Africa's youth population is expected to continue to grow throughout the remainder of the 21st century, more than doubling from current levels by 2055 (United Nations, 2015). More so, sub-Saharan Africa's working-age population is projected to more than triple, and by 2050 it will be the only major region in the world with a growing working-age population. According to The Economist (2020), sub-Saharan Africa's population is growing at 2.7% a year, which is more than twice as fast as South Asia (1.2%) and Latin America (0.9%). That means Africa is adding the population of France (or Thailand) every two years. . In 2020, the total population of sub-Saharan Africa amounted to approximately 1.14 billion inhabitants (O'Neil, 2021).

As noted by Lam, Leibbrandt and Allen (2019), these striking demographic trends present both an opportunity and a challenge to African policymakers and stakeholders. For instance, although monetary policy cannot affect the growth rate of potential output or the long-run natural rate of unemployment, it would take demographic changes into account as part of the economic environment, and would consider the downward pressure demographics put on both relative to their historical levels (Mester, 2017). Changes in demographics could also affect the transmission mechanism of monetary policy to the economy, in particular, the strength of wealth effects versus income effects. Older people tend to hold more assets than the young and tend to be creditors while drawing down their assets to fund their consumption during retirement. As the share of the population shifts from young to old, the propagation of an interest rate change through the economy is likely to change. Demographic change may mean that wealth effects become a more important channel through which monetary policy affects the economy (Bean, 2004; Imam, 2013). Again, older people tend to save less because once people reach retirement age, they need to draw down their savings and perhaps sell assets to fund their retirement. This countervailing effect from dissaving, as well as public spending on retiree benefits, would tend to put upward pressure on interest rates (Mester, 2017). Goodhart and Pradhan (2017) argue that demographic change will lead to increases in the equilibrium interest rate.

SSA countries have a unique trend of demography which contrasts sharply to what is obtainable across the globe. Africa is experiencing a slow and in several cases, stalling demographic transition. This makes Africa's population the most rapidly increasing in the world currently with an estimated population of 1.13 billion as at 2020 (World Bank, 2020). Consequently, the population is presumed to impede the rate of economic growth of SSA countries. However, this is just a mere conjecture as there are several countries with high population and high economic growth rates, such as Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS). It is obvious that the population structure of Africa is different in several aspects from those of other countries due to slow demographic transition- high dependencies, low life expectancies, high fertilities and mortalities. Perhaps this makes it difficult for Africa to benefit from the impact of changing age structures of the population on economic growth which results mainly from demographic transition (Schoch & Lakner, 2020).

Another concern about the demography of SSA is the increasing heterogeneity among countries of SSA. This makes the population dynamics of the region to be different from others. The growing heterogeneity is a result of the diversity in the pace of progress, it is equally related to social policies such as health, education and family planning, socio-political history, environment, as well as the level of economic development of each country in the region. In the 1950s, for instance, South Africa and Mauritius had a 100% infant mortality rates, which ranged from 240% in Mali, Gambia and Angola. However, nowadays, it ranges from 30% in Cape Verde, Sao Tome and Principe, to close to 180% in Sierra Leone with rates between 90% and 110% in many countries. The probability of dying between 0-5 years varies currently from around 40% in other countries to almost 300% in Niger republic for a ratio of 1 to 7 (Tibutin, 2004).

Extreme poverty rate around the globe is facing a slow decline principally because of slow progress in SSA countries. While about 40% of the world is living below the US $2.00 per day threshold, SSA accounts for about two-thirds of this figure (Schoch & Lakner, 2020). The poverty rate in SSA has not fallen at a rate that is fast enough to match the population growth rate of the region. Therefore, this study is set out to examine the impact of some demographic changes on economic growth of 48 SSA countries between 1980 and 2019 using System Generalized Method of Moments (SGMM) approach.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Empirical studies

Several studies have been conducted on the impact of demographic changes on economic growth. Prominent among these, are the studies of Bloom and Williamson (1998), Bloom, Canning and Sevilla (2001), Navaneetham (2002); Bloom, canning and Finlay (2010), Ven and Smits (2011), Sundman (2011), Aiyar and Mody (2011), Bloom, Canning and Rosenborg (2011), Porsse, Stampe, Portugal and Almeida (2012), Tobing (2012), Bloom, Humair, Rosenborg, Sevilla and Trusell (2013), Golley and Tyers (2013), Hyung, (2013); Fu (2013); Kim and Lee (2014), Ahmed, Cruz, Go, Maliszewska & Osorio-Rodarte (2014), Joe, Dash and Agrawal (2015), Kasnauskiene and Michenevic (2015); Khan, Ellahi, Sheikh and Sheikh (2016), Le and Park (2020), Hu, Lei and Zhao (2020), Munir and Shahid (2021; etc.).

In Bloom and Williamson's (1998) study of East Asia during the 1965- 1990s, it was found that: "an increase of 1 per cent in the growth rate of the working-age is associated with an increase of 1.46 per cent in the growth rate of GDP per capita. … an increase of 1 per cent in the growth rate of the overall population (effectively, the dependent population, since the empirical specification holds fixed the growth rate of the working-age population) is associated with a decrease of 1.03 per cent in the growth rate of GDP per capita." (p. 435). This means that demographic transition contributed significantly to East Asia's so-called economic miracle. Generally, the model by Bloom and Williamson (1998) shows that economic growth is lower (higher) when the working age population falls short (exceeds that) of the total population.

In a study of the Asian sub-regions from 1965-2015, Bloom et al. (2001) employed descriptive analysis and found that developing countries stand a chance to benefit from their youthful population. Ven and Smits (2011) found that the young and the old constitute burdens as opposed to the working age population who produce more than they consume. The study also found that a higher dependency ratio lowers savings and thereby investment and economic growth. An empirical report on the relationship between demographic change and economic growth in the European Union by Prskawetz and Lindh (2007) supported the argument that demographic factors matter for economic growth just as much as technological change, innovation and political/institutional explanations. The authors noted that population ageing is expected to put certain strains on social security expenditures such as pension, health and old-age care expenditures.

Using evidences from Indian states between 1961 and 2001, Aiyar and Mody (2011) found that the initial working age ratio and the growth of the working age ratio have positive impact on economic growth. In another study from South Asia, Bloom et al. (2011) found that for the period 1950 to 2010, the rate of variation in the demographic variables of the sub-region were different; likewise their impacts on the economic growth of the sub-region. In Japan, Sundman (2011) investigated the effects of the demographic transition on economic growth. The study found that the dependency ratio and life expectancy had significant negative effects on economic growth. The result confirmed that demographic change slows down economic growth in Japan and other rich countries where population ageing is faster than other developing countries.

Porsse, Stampe, Portugal and Almeida (2012) examined demographic change and regional economic growth in Brazil. The study adopted descriptive analysis, Pooled OLS and the fixed effects methods, and found that demographic changes determined regional income convergence in Brazil. Higher child dependency ratio lowered the per-capita income growth, while age dependency ratio led to the income growth. Also, Tobing (2012) investigated demography and cross-country differences in savings rate, using descriptive statistics and panel data regression analysis. The study found that demographic factors account for about 70% of the dispersion in the cross-country savings rates. Secondly, the fraction of income spent on child raising to a large extent determines the variation in savings.

Liu and Hu (2013) explained that theoretical model shows that the share of working-age population is positively correlated with economic growth, while birth rate has an adverse impact. Empirical evidence based on provincial panel data indicated that decrease in birth rate and increase of the share of the working-age population increased China's average annual per capita GDP growth rate by 1.19 and 0.73 percentage points, respectively. The two demographic changes contributed about 19.5% to economic growth in China between 1983 and 2008. In Asia, Song (2013) investigated demographic changes and economic growth using empirical evidences for the period 1965 to 2009. The study employed descriptive statistics and regression analysis, and found significant negative effect of total population growth on economic growth. On the contrary, the working age population was found to have a significant positive effect on economic growth in Asia. Both the young and aged populations were found to have negative effects on economic growth rates, however, the effects of the young population superseded the effect of the aging population.

In another study, Yoon, Kim, and Lee (2014) analyzed the Impact of demographic changes on inflation and the macro economy using a dataset covering 30 OECD countries for the period 1960 – 2013. The study found that population growth affected real economic variables on the negative side, though insignificant in many instances. The influence of population dynamics on fiscal policy variables was rather mixed. On the inflation side, population growth affected the inflation rate positively. Ahmed, Cruz, Go, Maliszewska and Osario- Rodarte (2014) investigated how significant was Africa's demographic dividend for its future growth and poverty reduction. The study was conducted empirically using the dynamic structural modeling framework, which allows for quantitative analysis of the possible magnitude of demographic effect under different assumptions. The study found that the contribution of the elderly dependency ratio to savings was constant over time for SSA, while that of the youth dependency ratio as a share of GDP was two to three times greater than that of the elderly. The study also found that the dividend from this could account for about 0.37 to 0.42 percentage points of average annual real GDP per capita growth between 2011 and 2030, which is equal to 11 to 15 percent of GDP volume growth. It estimated that this demographic dividend could also account for 40 to 60 million fewer poor by 2030.

Similarly, Joe, Dash and Agrawal (2015) investigated demographic transition, savings and economic growth in China and India, using the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model, The findings suggested that the contribution of the reduced dependency burden to overall per-capita GDP growth during the period of study was about 2 - 2.5% per annum for China and between 1-1.5% per annum for India. China was also found to have a significant association between savings and dependency ratio.

In their study of the European Union, Kasnauskiene and Michnevic (2015) examined the effects of demographic trends on economic growth from 1996 to 2013. Their study adopted descriptive statistics as well as the panel data estimation techniques – the fixed effects model. They found that if there is a 1% increase in the shares of the 30-34 age cohort of the population, the rate of real GDP growth will be 0.18%, while, an increase by 1% in the 80 -84 age cohort of the population decrease the growth rate of the real GDP by 0.36%. In yet another study on Pakistan, Khan, Ellahi, Sheikh and Sheikh (2016) investigated changing demographics and economic growth. The analysis of the data using times series estimation techniques revealed that total fertility and GDP contributed positively to increase in life expectancy, while labour force participation rate, population growth rate and gross fixed capital formation affected fertility in Pakistan.

Kim (2016) conducted a study on the effects of demographic change on GDP growth in OECD economies between 1951 and 2010. Using descriptive analysis, and panel data regression analysis. It was found that all things being equal, a 1 percentage point shift in the share of population aged between 40 and 64 to the age group 65 and above would reduce GDP growth by 0.47 percentage points compared to the world- wide growth estimates. The findings of the study revealed that demographic changes accounted for a significant portion of growth slowdown in several OECD countries in recent years.

Using the Difference Generalized Method of Moments (DGMM) on 67 developing economies across regions and income groups, Ahmad and Khan (2018) found that change in age-structure and human capital affected the regional and income groups of the economies by different magnitude and pace over the period of 1960-2014. Ogundari and Awokuse (2018) have also demonstrated that in SSA, the life expectancy as a measure of human capital augments the economic growth. The impact of age structures on the economic growth of fifty Three (53) African countries between 1980 and 2019 examined by Hassan, Akpansung and Amade (2020) using the dynamic panel estimation techniques of difference and system Generalized Method of Moments (GMM). The results based on the system GMM estimation techniques revealed that the young population and prevalence of HIV/AIDS on the working class had negative and significant impacts on economic growth. However, the working population, aging populations, life expectancy and fertility rates had positive impacts.

Le and Park (2020) used panel regression model and panel continuous threshold model to investigate the effects of demographic change on economic growth of OECD and non-OECD countries (consisting of 27 advanced economies and 44 emerging economies) over the period, 1981-2014. The result found a significant difference of impact of demographic change on the economic growth of OECD and non-OECD countries. In a study using a panel data of 172 countries for the period 1960 to 2019, Hu, Lei and Zhao (2020) found that aging population has a significant negative impact on economic growth. A one percentage point increase in the ratio of population aged 65 + can decrease economic growth rate by about 2.6 percentage points. In South Asian countries, findings from Munir and Shahid (2021) based on ARDL approach indicated that fertility rate and life expectancy affect economic growth positively, while increase in young dependency ratio reduces economic growth in the long-run. In the short-run, life expectancy was found to impact economic growth insignificantly, while young dependency ratio affected economic growth negatively and significantly.

The above empirical review have indicated that the impact of demographic structure and economic growth have been mixed. These mixed results might be due to differences in approaches of analysis, socioeconomic nature of the economies and stage of economic development.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The theory of demographic transition was developed by an American Demographer, Warren Thompson in 1929. The demographic transition theory is a generalized description of the changing pattern of principal demographic variables such as mortality, fertility and growth rates as societies move from one demographic regime to another. Basically, it implies a transition from trends of high birth and death rates to one of low birth and death rates. The transition from high birth and death rates is attributed to socio-economic advancement of a country or region from a

pre-industrial to an industrial setting (Woods, 2000; Caldwell, Bruce, Caldwell, Peter & Thomas, 2006).
The demographic transition model presents four stages or phases in which every country must pass through by proceeding from one stage to the other. The first stage is characterized by socio-economic backwardness, pre-industrial society, poor scientific advancement and technological inertia. The stage is characterized by high death rates and birth rates which are roughly in balance (Kirk, 1996)

In the second stage of the demographic transition, countries are characterized by socio-economic advancement and significant improvement in science and technology especially medical science. In this stage, there is a significant level of economic development. Death rates drop quickly due to improvements in food supply and sanitation, which increase life expectancies and reduce disease. The improvements specific to food supply typically include selective breeding and crop rotation and farming techniques (Galor, 2011; Kirk, 1996)

In the third stage of the demographic transition, the disequilibrium in the second stage due to declining mortality without a corresponding decline in fertility changes and the equilibrium is seemingly restored. In this stage of the transition, birth rates fall due to various fertility factors such as access to contraception. Other factors that may drive the fertility rates down include increases in wages, urbanization, a reduction in subsistence agriculture, an increase in the status and education of women, a reduction in the value of children's work, an increase in parental investment in the education of children and other social changes (Galor, 2011).
In the fourth and final stage of the demographic transition, there are both low birth rates and low death rates. Birth rates may drop to well below replacement level (being 2-3 children born by a woman) (Galor & Weil, 2000; Sachs, 2008)

3. Methodology

3.1 Data

The study employed panel data covering the period (1980 -2019). The data were obtained from the World Development indicators of the World Bank. The choice of the period of coverage in this study was subjective and solely decided by the data availability. The dependent variable is the Gross Domestic Product, the independent variables are demographic variables that determine economic growth, which include; fertility rate, life expectancy at birth, dependency ratio, urbanization rate, unemployment rate, young population (0-14 years); working population (16 – 64 years) and aging population (65 + years). The working age is also called economically active population (EAP).

3.2 Model and estimation techniques

The current paper aims at examining the impact of demographic changes on economic growth of SSA countries between 1980 and 2019. The model employed was adopted from Song (2013) with modifications. In Song's study, three multiple equations were specified. The first model captured the effects of workforce growth and total population growth, hence GDP per capita was regressed on growth rate of the total population, and growth rate of the working-age population. Following Bloom and Williamson (1998), the author inserted the growth rates of the young population and the elderly population to replace the growth rate of the total population. Thus, the second equation captured the effects of growth rates of all age groups on economic growth. The third estimatable model which followed Yu (2011) and Mody and Aiyar (2011), combined the growth rates of the total population and the working-age population into the growth rate of the ratio of the working-age population to the total population. The essence of the third specification was to further explore the effects of changes in age structure on economic growth. The control variables employed in the adopted model included: life expectancy (in years), domestic investment (as % GDP), openness, average years of secondary schooling (in years), proportion of land area within 100km of the ocean coastline (in %), proportion of land area within the geographic tropics (in %), and Quality of institution index (0-10). Both initial GDP per capita (as a ratio of US GDP), and initial ratio of working-age to total population were incorporated into each of the models.

Based on the peculiarity of the SSA countries and data availability, the adopted model was modified and specified as follows:

$$GDP_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GDP_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 FER_{i,t} + \beta_3 LEX_{i,t} + \beta_4 DEP_{i,t} + \beta_5 URB_{i,t} + \beta_6 UNP_{i,t} + \beta_7 YPOP_{i,t} + \beta_8 WPOP_{i,t} + \beta_9 APOP_{i,t} + \mu_{i,t} \quad (3.1)$$

Where, GDP is gross domestic product in local currencies (proxy for economic growth), FER is fertility rate, LEX denotes life expectancy at birth, DEP represents dependency ratio, URB is urbanization Rate, UNP denotes unemployment rate, YPOP stands for young population (0-14 years), WPOP connotes working population (15 -64Years), APOP is aging population (65 + years), $\beta_0 - \beta_9$ are the parameters to be estimated, µ is error term. The subscripts i and t denote country and time, respectively. The one period lagged endogenous variable ($GDP_{i,t-1}$) is introduced into the explanatory variables in order to test the effect of dynamic behavior and to control the convergence. The working population is incorporated as the economically active population, in order to estimate the impact of age-structural changes of population on economic performance of countries. All the modelled variables were log-transformed.

The specified model was estimated using the generalized method of moments (GMM) procedure as proposed by Arellano and Bond (1991), Blundel and Bond (1998). This approach appears superior to alternative panel data estimators (e.g., pooled ordinary least squares, fixed effect and difference GMM) as it could address the econometric problems caused by unobserved group-specific effects and endogeneity of the explanatory variables in lagged dependent variable models. Also, the system GMM estimator was proved consistent in parameter estimation and unbiased (Beck & Levine 2004; Baltagi, 2008; Hasan et al. 2009; Chu & Chu 2020). The consistency of the GMM estimator depends on the validity of the assumption that the error terms do not exhibit serial correlation and on the validity of the instruments. The validity of the instruments is tested using the standard Sargan tests of over- identifying restrictions.

Theoretically, it is expected that the coefficients of lagged endogenous variable (initial GDP), fertility rates, life expectancy, urbanization rate, the working and aging populations should be positive. In the case of the working-age population, people in that group are assumed to be more economically active in the sense that they work and save more than they consume (Higgins &Williamson, 1997; Bloom & Williamson, 1998). On the other hand, the coefficients of the young population, and dependency ratio are a priori expected to be negative. This group of the population are generally dependent and consume more than they produce and depends on the output and savings generated by the working-age population (Higgins &Williamson, 1997; Bloom & Williamson, 1998).

4. Results and Discussions

4.1. Empirical Results

The results of the System GMM presented in Table 4.1 show the one-step GMM result, the two-step GMM result, and the two-step with robust standard errors. The results of the post estimation tests associated with GMM analyses; which are the Sargan test of validity of instruments and the autocorrelation tests are also presented in the table.

Based on the result of the system GMM estimation for the effects of demographic changes on economic growth of SSA countries, the two step result is more efficient than the one step result as the Sargan test of validity of instruments suggests. As also noted by Blundell and Bond (1998) and Hasan et al. (2009) the two step procedure appears to be asymptotically more efficient. Based on the two step result summarized in Table 4.1, the lagged dependent variable (GDP_{t-1}) has a positive and statistically significant impact on economic growth of SSA countries. The positive coefficient of the lagged endogenous variable shows the dynamic behavior of the variable. Roodman (2009) suggests that if this coefficient is greater than 1, then System GMM is invalid. Here, it is 0.8470995 (< 1), so System GMM is valid. The coefficient of the lagged dependent variable being 0.8470995 suggests that the lagged values of the dependent variable accounts for about 84% increase in economic growth of SSA countries.

The coefficient of fertility rate (FER) being 0.3505709 suggests that a 1% increase in fertility rate of SSA countries will lead to a 35% increase in economic growth of SSA countries. The coefficient of life expectancy at birth (LEX) being -0.0646519 suggests that a 1% increase in life expectancy of SSA countries will lead to a 6% decrease in economic growth of SSA countries.

Table 4.1: Results of System GMM estimation

Variables	One step System GMM	Two step System GMM	Two step System GMM with robust standard errors
GDP_{t-1}	0.8455868***	0.8470995***	0.8470995
FER	0.3123928**	0.3505709	0.3505709
LEX	-0.1137239*	-0.0646519	-0.0646519
DEP	-0.3414785**	-0.1695829	-0.1695829

URB	0.6313975***	0.7002737**	0.7002737
UNP	-0.0794175***	-0.074488*	-0.074488
YPOP	-0.0464056	-0.2670561	-0.2670561
WPOP	-0.564467***	-0.4953549	-0.4953549
APOP	0.4593025***	0.4779138***	0.4779138
Sargan Test p-value	1496.271 (0.0000)	42.43162 (1.0000)	- -
AR (1) P value		-1.7169 (0.0860)	-0.75507 (0.4502)
AR(2) P-value		-0.62827 (0.5298)	-0.32672 (0.7439)
N	48	48	48
T	39	39	39

Source: Authors' computation using STATA 12, 2021.
***, ** and * indicate significance at 1%, 5% and 10% respectively.

The coefficient of dependency ratio (DEP) being -0.1695829 suggests that a 1% increase in dependency ratio of SSA countries will lead to a 16% decrease in economic growth of SSA countries. Urbanization rate (URB) has a positive and significant impact on growth. The coefficient of the variable being 0.7002737 suggests that a 1% increase in Urbanization rate of SSA countries will lead to a 70% increase in economic growth of SSA countries. Unemployment rate (UNP) has a significant impact on economic growth, the coefficient of the variable being -0.074488 suggests that a 1% increase in unemployment rate of SSA countries will lead to a 7% decrease in economic growth of SSA countries. The coefficient of young population (YPOP) being -0.2670561 suggests that a 1% increase in Young population will reduce economic growth by 26%. Similarly, the working population was found to have a negative impact on economic growth such that a 1% increase in working population will decrease economic growth by 49%. However, the aging population (APOP) has a significant positive impact on growth rate; the coefficient of the variable being 0.4779138 suggests that a 1% increase in aging population of SSA countries will lead to a 47% increase in economic growth of SSA countries.
The result of the validity of instruments (Sargan Test) being 42.43162 with a probability value of 1.0000 suggests that the instruments are valid. Similarly, the results of the autocorrelation tests AR (1) and AR (2) being -1.7169 (0.0860) and -0.62827 (0.5298) suggests that there is no autocorrelation among the residuals in the model.

4.2. Discussion of findings

The study found a positive but insignificant impact of fertility rate on economic growth of SSA countries. The signed coefficient conforms to a priori expectation, and contradicts Akintunde et al. (2013) which found that high fertility rate had a negative impact on economic growth in sub-Sahara Africa from 1970 to 2005. Life expectancy at birth was found to have a negative insignificant impact on economic growth of SSA, thereby violating the a priori expectation. However, the finding is consistent with the finding of Bloom et al. (2007) which found that low life expectancy has a negative impact on economic growth. Similarly, dependency ratio was found to have an expected negative impact, but coefficient is statistically insignificant. This finding conforms to the findings of Park and Shin (2011) and Porsse et al. (2012) which found that both old-age dependency and youth dependency had negative and significant impact on economic growth in their studies on Asia and Brazil respectfully.

Urbanization rate was found to have a positive and significant impact on economic growth of SSA countries, which is in line with the a priori expectation of this study. The study also found a significant negative impact of unemployment rate on economic growth of SSA. The result was as expected. The young and working population of SSA countries were found to have negative but insignificant impacts on economic growth. On the other hand, aging- population had a positive and significant impact on economic growth of SSA countries. The finding is however, not consistent with the finding of Kasnauskiene and Michenevic (2015), Bloom et al. (2010); Fu (2013); Hyung (2013) and Sundman (2011) which found negative linkages of the aging population on economic growth in their studies. However, Navaneetham (2002) found that the age grade 65 + has a differential impact on economic growth as it was found to have a negative impact in Singapore, but positive impact in Philippines. The positive impact of older population on economic growth implies a significant pressure on social security and medicare of the SSA countries. Government pension and healthcare funds will also be stressed, and this may likely compel governments to respond with some combination of increased borrowing, reduced benefits, increased taxes, program restructuring, and policies intended to stem the growth rate of healthcare costs (Mester, 2017).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Unemployment and rural-urban migration are very prevalent in SSA countries. While urbanization can reduce the rural-urban drift and enhance economic growth, it can also bring employment opportunities to the rural areas and thus reduce the unemployment rates. Urbanization will bring health facilities, education and other social amenities to the rural areas, all of which interact with each other to enhance economic growth. Therefore, the role of urbanization as a demographic variable responsible for promoting rapid economic growth in SSA countries cannot be exaggerated.

On the basis of the main findings, the study recommendations that: i) The government of various SSA countries should strengthen national and economic institutions through pragmatic programmes and policies such as innovative industrialization and mass employment in the services sector based on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to maximize the potential impact of its large and teeming population which is fast growing. ii) SSA countries should put urbanization at the heart of their socio-economic policies and programmes as it brings along economic opportunities and potentials to rural areas that will eventually serve as an impetus for rapid economic growth especially when these interact with demographic changes.

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Bakassi Population (IDPS) in Ekpiri-Ikang and the Right to Work

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Abstract. This study examined the right to opportunity to employment of the choice of Bakassi population (IDPs) in Ekpiri-Ikang in Cross River State, Nigeria. Research method is qualitative and the study adopted Human Needs Theory (HNT). The study revealed that the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are fishermen and fisherwomen and were practising the occupation in Bakassi Peninsula before they were resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang. It was also found that there is neither sea, nor river, creek, channel or stream within or nearby the Ekpiri-Ikang environment where the IDPs can practise their occupation. It was further discovered that Nigeria has neglected to secure to the IDPs right to access to other employments to enable them achieve adequate standard of living and live a life of dignity. That the neglect is a contravention of the socio-economic rights conferred on the IDPs by the Constitution for which they can seek redress before an appropriate High Court. And the failure has the tendency to raise dissident citizens from the population, activate structural conflict and make youths become willing hands for enlistment into violent crimes. It therefore recommended that Nigeria should train and equip the IDPs to engage in alternative or other related sources of economic activities to enable them achieve adequate standard of living.

Keywords: Work, Worker, Right to work, Social Security and Bakassi population in Ekpiri-Ikang.

1. Introduction

Work, whether paid or unpaid means the use of physical or mental energy or both in the performance or exchange of a duty or task for the production of goods and services that cater for human needs. Right to access to work is the right of every human being to the opportunity to gain his or her living by work freely chosen by him or her and to take the necessary measures to safeguard the work. It embraces a minimum of social security in the event of unemployment, employment injury, sickness, disability, old age, widowhood and other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond the control of the worker. Social security is a system adopted by a community or States to take primary responsibility of protecting and providing social or economic assistance to its population that are challenged by poverty, sickness, unemployment, employment injury, disability, widowhood or old age financed by the employer and employee’s assessment. Bakassi populations in Ekpiri-Ikang are Nigerians. Their main occupation is fishing. They were fishing in Bakassi peninsula now part of the territory of Cameroon. They were displaced by the forces and operations of the Judgment of International Court of Justice delivered in 10 October 2002, and Green Tree Agreement (GTA) of 12 June 2006. The populations as internally displaced persons (IDPS) were resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang in Cross River State in Nigeria in 2007. The displacement and resettlement of the population dislocated them from their fishing business. The Bakassi populations (IDPS) have equal and competing right with their fellow non-displaced citizens. The Ekpiri-Ikang, however, is landlocked, thus the IDPs cannot practise their fishing occupation in the area. They therefore have the right to be trained and equipped to engage in alternative sources of domestic economy or livelihood. It is the primary duty and responsibility of the Nigerian Government to provide the Bakassi population the forgoing right. Since 2007 till date Nigerian Government has failed and or neglected to train and equip the population to undertake other sources of livelihood or venture.

2. Statement of the Problem

From 2007 when the Bakassi population (IDPs) was resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang in Cross Rive State, Nigeria and dislocated from their fishing business, Nigerian government has till date neglected to train and equip them to undertake similar or other sources of livelihood. The neglect has its legal implication. It is a contravention of the economic right of the population which is a necessary component of right to life enshrined in section 33 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999. It has also severe social and economic consequences on the IDPs and Nigeria. It signifies that the Bakassi population has remained and will remain unemployed for a very long time. Unemployment breeds poverty, hunger, frustration, and dissident citizens. The unemployment will provoke structural or institutional conflict or violent extremism including terrorism. The deprivation will instill in the Bakassi population a sense of social, political, economic or historical wrong. This will propel the population, especially the youths, to embrace violent crimes, including terrorism, as a means to redress the injustice. When conflict is structural or rooted in institutional arrangement it is always difficult to curtail. Until the unmet employment and adequate food needs of Bakassi population are satisfied by the Nigerian government the population will remain a barrel of violent crimes waiting to explode. The population will one day seek redress to the wrong or injustice done to them by way of violent extremism. The impact of this will sound in human tragedy and property cost. It will also severely affect the peace, social order and stability of the country.

3. Objective Of The Study

The general objective of the study is to examine the rights of Bakassi population (IDPS) in Ekpiri-Ikang to gain their living by work freely chosen by them without discrimination.

The specific objectives include:

- to identify the various International, regional and local instruments that recognize the right of the IDPS in Ekpiri-Ikang to gain employment.
- to assess the obligation of Nigeria Government to ensure that the IDPS exercise their right to work freely chosen by them in the light of the various instruments.
- to evaluate the level of performance by the government of its duty to ensure that the IDPS exercise their right to Opportunity to employment.
- to determine the enforceability of Government obligation by means of judicial process.

4. Theoretical Framework

Many theories have been developed by scholars to explain the occurrence of conflict. Some of these theories are Frustration-aggression theory developed by John Dollard and his associates in 1939; the system theory propounded by David Easton in 1973 and Human needs theories. Of these theories the analysis and explanation of the right of Bakassi population (IDPS) in Ekpiri-Ikang to opportunity to employment of their choice without discrimination seems appropriate and justified under Human needs theory.

4.1 The Human Needs Theory

The assumption of human needs theory is that conflict and aggression are bound to occur in circumstances where primordial and inherent or universal basic human needs such as food, water, shelter, security, identity, recognition, development and distributive justice among others go unmet. The assumption of human needs theory is similar to that of frustration-aggression and Relative-deprivation theory. The denial or deprivation of these universal basic human needs no doubt is the root cause of intractable and protracted conflicts across the globe. Aggression and conflicts would become potent instruments of vendetta in the hands of groups or people who have a sense of denial or deprivation of their basic universal needs by the government and individuals. Feeling of injustice arising from basic needs denial is often expressed jointly by the victims. The neglect or failure by the Government or Authority concerned to redress the injustice will activate structural violent or conflict. (Shechan 2003: 119)

Human needs theory has been criticized on the basis that the theory is incapable of precise definition, cannot be priotized, parties to conflicts cannot collectively identify their needs and that the theory is inapplicable in violent situations and irrelevant in conflict management. (Ibid)

The Bakassi population (IDPs) were in 2007 resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang requiring Institutional arrangements to be made to provide them with means of livelihood. The human needs theory is thus adopted to explain and apply same to the institutional arrangement that should be made to address the employment needs of the IDPS. (Ibid)

5. Conceptual Clarification

For a profound understanding of this Work the following terms, Work, Worker, Social security, Right to work, and Bakassi Population in Ekpiri-Ikang will be conceptually clarified.

5.1 Work

The term "work" (or labour) means making efforts, using one's physical or mental energy or both, or engaging in the performance of a duty, task or the like in order to achieve a purpose other than leisure, entertainment and pleasure. On the right of a worker to his wage or compensation, "work" connotes physical or mental energy or both exerted by the worker as controlled or required by the employer primarily for the benefit of the employer and the business (Black: 1990: 1605). Whether paid or unpaid "work" means the use of physical or mental energy or both in the performance or discharge of a duty or task for the production of goods and services that cater for human needs. With regard to profession, vocation or occupation, "work" means the carrying out of a duty or obligation in exchange for wage or salary. In every culture or civilization the production and distribution of goods and services are carried out by certain institutions within an economic system, while work remains the central organ of the economy (Giddens and Sutton 2013: 259)

By section 34(1) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999, and Article 5 of African Chartar on Human and People's Rights 1981, "Work", "Labour" or "Employment" does not include subjecting any individual to any form of inhuman or degrading punishment and treatment, forced or compulsory labour, or being held in slavery or servitude.

5.2 Worker

The terms "worker", "workman", "employee" and "servant" are synonymous and often used interchangeably by Courts and in Nigerian statutes (Emiola 2000:13). The Courts have given different interpretations to the term "Worker" In Iyere v Bendel feed and floor mill ltd (2009: 1233) the Supreme Court of Nigeria defined an "employee" as follows:

… an employee, except where a different meaning is given in the employment, means an individual who has entered into or works under, or where the employment has ceased, worked under, a contract of employment….

In A.C.B ltd & ors v Apugo (1995:84) it was held that a servant is an agent who works under the supervision and direction of his employer. In Union Bank of Nigerian Ltd v Ajagu, (1990:328) Uwaifo J.C.A (as he then was) noted

A servant may be defined as any person employed by another to do work for him on the terms that he, the servant is to be subject to control and directions of his employer in respect of the manner in which his work is to be done…

And in Francis Dola v Cecilian John, (1973:58) the Court Stated that a servant is a person subject to the control of his employer as to the manner in which he shall do his work. It might thus be correct to state that absence of control or such power means the non-existence of the master and servant relationship. (Atedoghu v Alade 1957:185)

Section 2 of Labour Act Cap LI.L.FN 2004 defines a "Worker" as:

any person who has entered into or works under a contract with an employer, whether the contract is for manual labour or clerical work, or is expressed or implied or oral or written, and whether it is a contract of service or a contract personally to execute any work or labour…

This definition was adopted by the Supreme Court in the case of S.S.C ltd v Afropak (Nig) ltd, (2008:49) where the Court stated that:

Where the contract allows the contractor to work for people other than the employer, on the other hand, these are persons referred to as independent contractors or self-employed.

5.3 The Right to Work

The right to access to work is the right of every human being to the opportunity to gain his living by work freely chosen or accepted by him, to just and favourable conditions of work, to safe and healthy conditions of work, to protection against unemployment, and the right to form trade union and join trade union of his choice for the promotion and protection of his economic and social interests. The right includes equality of opportunity to promotion in employment and to rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, as well as remuneration for public holidays. And it include the right to technical and vocational guidance and training programmers, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development and full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding political and economic freedoms to the worker (ICESCR 1966, Art. 6), (UDHR 1948 Art. 23(2) 25 (1)), (Kalin 2008). In Olga Tellis & 2 Ors v Bombay Municipal Corporation & Ors (2007:262) the

Supreme Court of India defined the right to life guaranteed in Article 21 of Indian Constitution to include the right to work or to livelihood. This is because no man can live without the means of livelihood. The sweep of the right to life conferred by Article 21 is wide and far reaching. In **Francis Coralie v Union Territory of India, (1978.597)** the Supreme Court of India articulated that Socio-Economic rights are essential parts of the right to life conferred by Article 21 of the Constitution. The Court held:-

The right to life includes the right to live with human dignity and all that goes with it, namely the bare necessities of life such as adequate nutrition, clothing and shelter, … the magnitude and components of this right would depend upon the extent of economic development of the country, but it must, in any view of the matter, include the bare necessities of life …

It is submitted that by the above interpretation the Court has expanded the ambit of Article 21 of the Indian Constitution on the right to life to accommodate other connected, and essential rights such as Socio-Economic rights. (Fagbohun 2010: 243)

5.4 Social Security System

Social security is a system or measure adopted by a community or State to take primary responsibility of protecting and providing social or economic assistance or the means of sustenance to its population that is challenged by poverty, sickness, unemployment, employment- injury, disability, widowhood or old age financed by the employers and employees assessment (Mclean & MC Millan 2003)

5.5 Bakassi Population in Ekpiri-Ikang

The Bakassi Population resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang in Cross River State, Nigeria, are citizens of Nigeria. They were residing in Bakassi Peninsula (then forming part of the territory of Nigeria) as their ancestral homes and were engaged in fishing business as their major source of income in the peninsula. The population was displaced by two main events occurring consecutively, the judgment of International Court of Justice (ICJ) on the Bakassi case delivered 10 October 2002, and the Green Tree Agreement (GTA) of 12 June, 2006. (Ntui 2015). They were resettled by the Federal Government of Nigeria in 2007 (Ibid)

The Bakassi Population in Ekpiri-Ikang are internally displaced persons (IDPs). Internally displaced persons (IDPs) are defined by Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement 1998 (Introduction) as follow:- Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human- made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

The Bakassi people in Ekpiri-Ikang are IDPs in that as citizens of Nigeria they sought refuge within the internationally recognized border of Nigeria. The displacement and resettlement dislocated the population from their source of income – the fishing business and rendered them vulnerable (Ntui 2015).

6. Rights of the IDPs to the Opportunity to Works

The right to the opportunity to work is the right of every human being to be exercised without discrimination of any kind. The right is a component of the right to adequate standard of living. Every human being enjoys the right to the opportunity to adequate standard of living for the health and well – being of himself and his family and this includes, essential food, adequate clothing, basic shelter and adequate housing, essential medical services and necessary social services (ICESCR 1966, Art. 6), (UDHR 1948 Art. 23(2) 25 (1)), (Kalin 2008:103)

Citizens of Nigeria enjoy the right to the opportunity to engage in economic activity of their choice. This is because Nigeria as a State exists to provide basic or universal human needs to the fullest extent to her citizens. The State according to Aristotle “came about as a means of securing life itself, it continues in being to secure the good life” (Saynder 1981). The right to the opportunity to work enables human beings to achieve adequate standard of living for the health and well-being of themselves and their families(UDHR 1948.Art.25(1)) The right ranks as a fundamental or basic right in that it is intrinsically linked with the right to life or human survival. To deny a human being his source of livelihood is to arbitrarily deprive him of his life. This is because the right to life guaranteed in section 33 of the Constitution includes the right to work or means of livelihood.

The broad essence of the right to the opportunity to gain a living by work is to ensure that human beings and members of their families maintain existence worthy of human person and dignity and to promote social progress and better standard of living in larger freedom for all human beings in the society. The foregoing objectives gain harmony and credence from the content, tenor and detail of the Charter of the United Nations 1945. One of the purposes of the United Nations as articulated. in Article 1(3) is:

To achieve International co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion

The right to employment opportunities of the IDPs finds expression and recognition in several International, regional and municipal instruments. The provisions of these instruments are stated as follows:

International Instruments

Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 (UDHR)

Article 23

1. Everyone has the right to work to free choice of employment to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
2. Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
3. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, for other means of social protection.
4. Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights 1966 (ICESCR) in Articles 6 and 8: enjoins State parties to recognize the right to work which include the right to technical and vocational guidance and training and to form and join trade unions in Articles 6,

and 8

Other International instruments include the following:-

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1960 (ICCPR), Articles 3 and 8 (1) (2) (3) (a)

Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination 1965 (CERD), Articles 1(4), 2 (2) 5(e)(1)(11)

Convention on the Elimination of ALL Forms of Discrimination Against Women1979 (CEDAW), Articles 3,11(1)(a)

Convention on the Right of the Child 1989(CRC), Article 32

Regional Instruments

African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (I981) (This has been domesticated as part of the Laws of the Federation of Nigeria (LFN) by the (Ratification and Enforcement) Act Cap 10 LFRN 1990 now Cap A9 LFN 2004)

Article 15

Every individual shall have the right to work under equitable and satisfactory conditions, and shall receive equal pay for equal work.

Domestic Instruments

Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 provides as follows:-

Section 16(1) (d)

without prejudice to the right of any person to participate in areas of the economy within the major sector of the economy, protect the right of every citizen to engage in any economic activities outside the major sectors of the economy.

Section 16(2)(d)

The State shell shall direct its policy towards ensuring-

that suitable and adequate shelter, suitable and adequate food, reasonable national minimum living wage, old age care and pensions, and unemployment, sick benefits and welfare of the disabled are provided for all citizens.

Section 17 (3)

The State shall direct its policy towards ensuring that:

- all citizens, without discrimination on any group whatsoever, have the opportunity for securing adequate means of livelihood as well as adequate opportunity to secure suitable employment.
- conditions of work are just and humane, and that there are adequate facilities for leisure and for social, religious and cultural life;
- the health, safety and welfare of all persons in employment and safeguarded and not endangered or abused;
- there are adequate medical and health facilities for all persons;
- there is equal pay for equal work without discrimination on account of sex, or on any other ground whatsoever;
- children, young persons and the aged are protected against any exploitation whatsoever, and against moral and material neglect;

The provisions of the foregoing instruments avail both the non-displaced citizens as well as the internally displaced population (IDPs). They stand on the same pedestal in the exercise of the rights and freedoms under the international and municipal instruments. The IDPs are not to be treated with discrimination in the provision of the rights and freedoms on the basis that they are displaced persons. This assertion finds countenance in the various provisions of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (CFRN). Section 17 (2) (a) provides that ''every citizen shall have equality of rights, obligations and opportunities before the law '' Section 15 (2) provides:-

Accordingly, national integration shall be actively encouraged, whilst discrimination on the grounds of place of origin, sex, religion, status, ethnic or linguistic association or ties shall be prohibited.

The reason for the sub-section is to promote national integration or foster better relations within the country. Section 42 of the Constitution recognizes the inherent inequalities of citizens on the basis of their particular community, ethnic groups, places of origin, sex, religion, political opinion or by reason of circumstance of birth and thus gives them equality of rights, obligations and opportunities before the law in order to foster national integration. No citizen of Nigeria shall be subjected to discrimination on the foregoing grounds, but shall be accorded equal treatment with others. (Anzaku v Governor, Nassarawa State 2005:579)

Standing on the same platform by the IDPs with the non-displaced fellow citizens in the exercise of rights and freedoms is also supported by the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement 1998. This is an IDP specific legislation and provide in principles 1(1) and 22(b) as follows;

Principle 1(1) provides:

Internally displaced persons shall enjoy, in full equality, the same rights and freedoms under international and domestic law as do other persons in their country. They shall not be discriminated against in the enjoyment of any rights and freedoms on the ground that they are internally displaced.

Principle 22 (b) provides:

Internally displaced persons, whether or not they are living in camps, shall not be discriminated against as a result of their displacement in the enjoyment of the following rights….

The right to seek freely opportunities for employment and to participate in economic activities;

7. National Obligation

The right to work like all human rights imposes three categories of obligations on Nigeria towards the Bakassi Population in Ekpiri-Ikang. These are the obligation to respect, protect and fulfill. Nigeria has the obligation to respect the rights of the internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Ekpiri-Ikang with regard to work by refraining from interfering either directly or indirectly with the exercise. The obligation to protect the right requires Nigeria to take positive measures to prevent violations of the right or interference with the exercise by third or private parties. The obligation to fulfill means that it is incumbent on Nigeria to provide, facilitate and promote the enjoyment of the right. The obligation implicitly signifies that Nigeria should take appropriate legislative, administrative, judicial, budgetary and other necessary measures to ensure the full realization of the right (UNCESR General Comment No18 2006). The IDPs were in 2007 displaced from their ancestral homes in Bakassi peninsula and dislocated from their traditional fishing business. They were resettled in Ekpiri-Ikang in Cross River State, Nigeria. According to the IDPs, Ekpiri-Ikang is landlocked and this has made it impossible for them to practise their fishing business. The Nigeria government has neglected to train and equip them to engage in other or similar economic activities. (Etiyin et all 2020)

From the foregoing assertions the IDPs cannot practise their fishing business in Ekpiri-Ikang. Principle 3(1) of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement 1998 places on Nigeria the primary duty and responsibility to train and equip the IDPs to undertake or explore similar or other economic activities to enable them live.

An important obligation imposed on Nigeria towards the IDPs is to ensure that the rights of the IDPs as enshrined in the various instruments, in particular, in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966 (ICESCR) and the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement 1998 are exercised at minimum essential level. Within the context of Article 6 of the Covenant (ICESCR 1966) and principle 22 (b) of the Guiding Principles 1998, this includes the specific obligation to ensure that the rights of the IDPs to employment opportunities are protected at the basic minimum levels without discrimination on the basis that they are internally displaced or on any other ground. The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement 1998, Article 29 (1) provides:

Internally displaced persons who have returned to their homes or places of habitual residence or who have resettled in another part of the country shall not be discriminated against as a result of their having been displaced. They shall have the right to participate fully and equally in public affairs at all levels and have equal access to public services.

8. Discharge of National Obligations

From the assertion of the IDPs it is certain that the IDPs cannot and do not practise their fishing occupation in Ekpiri-Ikang because of environmental factors. It is the duty and responsibility of Nigeria to secure to the IDPs the right to access to other employments, especially to the men and women, and the disabled persons of employable age. Nigeria has neglected to discharge this obligation.

8.1 Implications of Default in Performance

The failure by Nigerian Government to provide opportunities for employment for the Bakassi population (IDPS) in Ekpiri-Ikang from 2007 till date has grave implications on the IDPS and on the South-South and South-East geographical zones of Nigeria and on Nigeria as a cooperate entity. It means that the population will remain unemployed for long time. Unemployment breeds poverty, hunger, disease, despondency, destitution, frustration and a feeling of vendetta against the government. In April 2018 Mr Asuquo Etim of the Bakassi Population in Ekpiri-Ikang had to appeal to the Cross-River State Government to provide him with casket to bury his wife (Mrs Eno Asuquo Etim) who lost her life during childbirth. He made the appeal on the footing that he had no source of livelihood. (Vanguard 2018).

The failure by the government to provide employment opportunities for Bakassi population will provoke structural or institutional conflict or terrorism. When conflict or terrorism is structural or rooted in institutional arrangement it will be difficult to curb. Unemployment and poverty though have no causal link with conflict and terrorism the interlaced phenomena provide favorable conditions for the growth of terrorism and other violent crimes in Nigeria (Saschan 2003:119)

9. Justiciability of Government obligation

Section 16 (1) (d), 16 (2) (d) and 17 (3) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria guarantee the IDPs as citizens of Nigeria social, economic rights. They impose on Nigerian government the obligation to secure to the citizens, including the IDPs, *"the opportunity for securing adequate means of livelihood as well as adequate opportunity to secure suitable employment."*

The right to livelihood (or right to work) and the right to live are interlaced. The duo are integrated and inter-dependent. It necessarily follows that to deprive a man of his work or source of livelihood is to put his life in jeopardy (i.e. to deprive him of his life). (Olga Tellis & ors v Bombay municipal Corpors. & ors 2007:256) In Baskey v Board of Regents, (1954:447) Douglas. J stated,

the right to work, I have assumed, was the most precious liberty that man possesses. Man has indeed, as much right to work, as he has to live, to be free and to own property. To work means to eat and it also means to live.

Also in Munn v Illinois. (1877:113) Field J. said:

"life means something more than mere animal existence and the inhibition against the deprivation of life extends to all those limits and faculties by which life is enjoyed"

Sub- section 6(6) (c) of the Constitution provides:

The Judicial powers vested in accordance with the foregoing provision of this section-shall not, except as otherwise provided by the Constitution, extend to any issue or question as to whether any law or any judicial decision is in conformity with fundamental act or omission by any authority or person or as to objectives and Directive principles of State policy set out in Chapter 11 of this Constitution.

From the clear provision of the sub-section, in particular the expression of the wording "expect as otherwise provided by the Constitution", it might be correct to state that the sub-section makes the fundamental objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy enshrined in Chapter 2 of the Constitution justiciable in certain or limited circumstances. The Directive principles are justiciable if read in conjunction with other sections of the constitution that declare Chapter 2 actionable. In the case of re Olafisoye (2004:152), the Supreme Court of Nigeria par Tobi J.S.C (as he then was) stated:

the non-justiciability of section 6(6)(c) of the Constitution provides a leeway by the use of words" except as otherwise provided by the Constitution" This means that if the Constitution otherwise provides in another section, which makes a section or sections of Chapter 11 justiciable it will be so interpreted by the Court.

The apex Court noted in the case that by the provision of section 6(6) (c) of the Constitution, section 15 (5) as it stands and on its face value, is not justiciable. Reliance should be placed on item 60 (a) of the Exclusive Legislative List of the Second Schedule to the Constitution that provides:

"The establishment and regulation of authorities for the Federation or any part thereof-

to promote and enforce the observance of the fundamental objectives and Directive Principles in this Constitution.

The Court held that a community reading of item 60 (a) and section 15 (5) makes Chapter 2 of the Constitution "clearly and obviously justiciable".

Section 16(1) (d), 16(2) (d) and 17 (3) of the Constitution provide for the Directive Principles of State policy. These principles standing alone are not justiciable before any Court in Nigeria. They, however, form the governance architecture in the country and serve as guide or aid in the understanding and interpretation of the meaning and content of the Constitution. The implication of the obligation imposed on Nigeria by Sections 16(1) (d), 16 (2) (d) and 17(3) of the Constitution is that Nigeria has corresponding duty to interpolate the right to livelihood or the right to work into the meaning and content of Fundamental Rights provisions in Chapter 4 of the Constitution. (Olga Tellis & 2 ors v Bombay Munipal corp. (2003:262)

The rights enshrined in sections 16(1) (d), 16(2) (d) and 17 (3) are socio-economic rights. It follows that the IDPs in Ekpiri-Ikang whose right to practise their fishing business have been violated can challenge the deprivation as a contravention of the right to life conferred by section 33 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 before any high Court of competent jurisdiction. They can also found their action under Article 15 of the African Charter on Human and People Rights (Ratification and Enforcement) Act Cap A9 LFN 2004. In Ukaegbu v A-G, Imo State, (1983:194) the Supreme Court of Nigeria Stated inter alia.

By virtue of subsections (1) and (2) of section 36 every subject of this federation has a right to establish an institution 'for the dissemination of information, ideas and opinions' and for this purpose any individual or private agency may establish a university, post-primary as well as primary schools.... The right of the subject to establish a university is guaranteed by the Constitution under section 36 aforesaid. No law can by its provisions validly take away this right unless it can be justified under section 41 of the 1979 Constitution.

Fagbohun (2010:276) has specifically stated thus:
It is worthy to note that notwithstanding its broad authority, the Court has over the years succeeded in developing a comprehensive jurisprudence that has properly incorporated the concerns of jurists who are opposed to justifiability of Directive Principles. The Court maintains an alternative social rights jurisprudence tempered by internalized justiciability concerns. The lesson from this is that Directive Principles can be made justiciable in a responsible and transformation oriented way.

10. Conclusion / Recommendations

The root cause of discrimination against the Bakassi Population (IDPS) in Ekpiri-Ikang stems from the displacement from their ancestral homes and dislocation from their fishing business which have rendered them vulnerable. Since Ekpiri-Ikang is landlocked the IDPs cannot practise their fishing business in the area. It thus behoves Nigerian Government to train and equip the IDPs to undertake similar or other means of livelihood. Nigeria has neglected to discharge this central obligation towards the IDPs in Ekpiri-Ikang. On the footing of the foregoing this study therefore recommends that:

- Nigerian government should relocate the IDPs to an area where they can practise their occupation. In the alternative organize skill acquisition programmes to train and equip the IDPs to undertake other sources of economic activities.
- Government should provide free primary, secondary and University education for the children of the IDPs so that they will grow to become responsible citizens of the Nigeria.
- Government should also adopt and execute a national employment programme that will ensure that the children of the IDPs, in particular, the youths, women, and the physically challenged, are employed after their secondary and university education.

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Part Two

Political Education

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Usage of Media Advocacy Education by the Independent National Electoral Commission on Voters' Turnout in Elections: A Study in Delta State, Nigeria

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Abstract: The study examines how the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) in Nigeria use media advocacy as a way to educate the electorates on election turnout in Delta state, Nigeria in the 2019 elections. The main objective of the study was to ascertain how media advocacy was used by INEC for voters' participation. The study was anchored on framing theory, which posits a social call for voters' turnout and behaviour. In order to ascertain the objectives of the study, a sample of 63 participants or electorates from the three senatorial districts in Delta state were administered with a questionnaire. Data collected and analysed showed that though media advocacy was capable of making voters to participate in election but it does not determines voter's behaviour during election. Media advocacy helped in voters' turnout, however, the level of age, level of education and political party affiliation, regionalism, money politics and ethnic group were strong factors for voters' turnout and behaviour during election. Consistent media advocacy education is required for voters' turnout and proper conducts during elections.. Media advocacy education is needed to influence positive ideas on a voter.

Keywords: Elections; Media advocacy education; Voters; Voters' turnout; Voter's behaviour

1. Introduction

Studies on media advocacy have largely been concerned with public health, public policy (Dorfman & Krasnow, 2014; Fayoyin, 2014), health development and social causes (Wallack, 1994), propaganda tool for political organizations (Waibord, 2006), as a tool for organizing a community through a strategic engagement of the media to promote the adoption of public policy (Eze, 2014), and campaign against tobacco smoking and alcohol control (US Department of Health, 1988). Studies in media advocacy have also been on child rights issues (Oyesomi; Oyero; & Okorie, 2014), participatory agriculture (Abga; Abang; & Ugor, 2017), climate change (Okaka & Nagasha, 2017), election, family planning, water development (Eze, 2014), environmental management and so on. As a tool for advancing and supporting community, organizing and policy advocacy, media advocacy draws on theories from political science, cognitive linguistics, sociology, and other fields concerned with how public opinion is formed and how political behaviour is influenced (Dorfman & Krasnow, 2014). Dorfman and Krasnow argued that the target of media advocacy were policymakers to transform the social and natural environment of the target individuals. However, Gibson (2010) argued that media advocacy focused on behaviour not policy. Fayoyin (2014) says media advocacy is part of the broader health promotion and development communication programme intended to shape media coverage and ultimately affect the public agenda.

A study on media advocacy for effective climate change policy in Africa was investigated by Okaka and Nagasha (2017). The authors' objectives were the assessment of climate change adaptation awareness communication policy; social responsibility of the media in climate change; and the role of media information campaigns in policy, project, or research monitoring and evaluation process. The results of the study showed that climate change policy awareness in many African countries is still very low, shallow, vague, and this had undermined behaviour change. These poor knowledge gaps were attributed to poor climate change communication policy, illiteracy, lack of research. The authors however, see poor media advocacy campaigns as the factor responsible for poor climate change communication policy among many African countries. Again, policy change was the centre theme of Dorfman's and Krasnow (2014), as well as Okaka and Nagasha (2017) studies on media advocacy.

However, none of the studies described above engaged media advocacy education on voters' turnout. Invariably, in every election, voter education is necessary to ensure that the electorates understand and know their rights, how to vote and understand the party's symbol. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2003), describes voter education as the dissemination of information, materials and programmes designed to inform voters about the specifics and mechanics of the voting process for a particular election. The goal of voter education, according to the UNDP, is to make information available and accessible to all constituents. Voters' education through media campaigns is not only necessary for voters' participation in the election but also to advocate for a better voting behaviour and to have elections that is free from violence and all kinds of electoral malpractices.

Despite series of media advocacy on election conducts from by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), independent bodies, election observers and monitoring groups, political parties and various stakeholders, voting is still characterized by so many problems. As noted by Ake (2001) as cited in Igiebor and Aihie (2016), the conduct of elections in Nigeria had always been characterised by pessimism, uncertainty and fears for the safety of lives and property. Delta State for example, elections are known to be violent because of some many factors. The state is a multi-ethnic state where the electorates vote according to their ethnic group and political party but really on the qualities or charisma of a candidate. Also, the two most contending political parties (The All Progressive Congress (APC) and the People's Democratic Party) are always struggling for the seat of power with violence, threats to life, arsons, betrayals and electoral malpractice and the use of fake security forces as well as guns during election.

Rather than serve as a means and a process of exercising legitimate political rights, elections in Nigeria since independence, as Igiebor and Aihie (2016) argued, have turned into charade causing serious political turmoil threatening the survival of not only democracy but also Nigeria's corporate existence. For example, in the 2011, 2015, 2019 presidential elections in Nigeria, there were widespread protests, violence, deaths, and displayed persons across the country. By implication, the electoral system has been exploited to the detriment of the interest of majority of the people (Popoola, 2011). Perhaps, there is need to have more enlightenment campaigns or media advocacy on voters' education.

Given the above features of elections background in Nigeria, media advocacy education, perhaps could be necessary for voters' education, to change attitude and to increase participation in election. Consequently, the objectives of this paper among others are to:

- Determine how the Independent National Electoral Commission uses media advocacy education to advocate for voters' turnout in the 2019 election in Delta State.
- Ascertain whether media advocacy education is significant for voters' turnout in election
- Determine the relationship between media advocacy education and the behaviour of the electorates in election.

2. Literature Review

The review focused on media advocacy education, voters' turnout and behavior. As a media concept that calls for social change since the late 1980s, media advocacy serves as propaganda tool for political organizations and as platform for press entrepreneurs with political ambition and a pathway for political activism for reporters (Waibord, 2006). It therefore serves as tool for media discourse. Fayoyin (2014) believes that media advocacy is generally recognised as a strategy to influence public debate by engaging with and putting pressure on the mass media to focus on specific social issues. In this respect, media advocacy is expected to help the electorates to change their attitude or conducts that do not conform to the electoral laws and practice and to have active turnout in election. Fayoyin implies that media advocacy is a pre-planned and predetermined approach to ensure that media gatekeepers and other practitioners buy into issues being advocated.

Media advocacy education is therefore a persistent enlightenment and sensitization programme to inform and impart knowledge and skills in order to change people's attitude and behaviour towards achieving specific goals or objectives. It is a campaign programme strategized to change attitude and behaviour on a social course. As Eze (2014) noted, strategic uses of news created through mass media (television, radio and newspapers) can promote public debate and generate community support for changes in community norms and policies. Eze held that attitudes, beliefs, norms, and practices are also shaped by media advocacy. This equally implies that media advocacy education can shape the electorates conducts in election. Media advocacy may be used for an ongoing campaign, perhaps to ensure voters' turnout better electorates conduct. For more than half a century, researchers have found that more educated citizens are more likely to vote in elections and participate in campaigns (Berinsky & Lenz, 2010). For some scholars, the reason for this relationship between education and voter turnout is clear. To them, education gives citizens the skills and resources needed to participate in politics (Berinsky & Lenz, 2010). Berinsky and Lenz believe that aside media advocacy, factors such as family background or cognitive skills may lead individuals to participate in election or voting.

Socio-demographic variables have been identified as factors for voters' turnout. Age, income and educational attainment are significant factors affecting voter's turnout (Berman, & Johnson, 2000). Educational attainment is perhaps the best predictor of voter's turnout while age difference is also associated with youth's voter turnout. For example, those holding advanced degrees were three times more likely to vote than those with less than high school education. Berman and Johnson's (2000) argument affirms age is an important factor in understanding voting behaviour. As strong political attitude may be considered one of the reasons behind voting and voter turnout, Pomante and Schraufnagel's (2014) research demonstrated that potential young voters are more willing to commit to vote when they see pictures of younger candidates running for elections/office or voting for other candidates. This implies that age is a factor for voting. Income level is another factor for voting behaviour. Those with higher income level tend to be more participatory in voting than lower income level (Harder & Krosnick (2008).

A study on gender gap in voter's turnout had been researched by Allen (2009). Allen found that female non-voters were more likely to cite general indifference to politics and ignorance or timidity regarding elections than male non-voters, and that female voters were less likely to cite fear of loss of business or wages. Disbelief in politicians was provided as reason for women gap in voting. Identifying the causal factors for voter behaviour in India, Akhter and Ah- Sheikh (2014) study showed that the behaviour of a voter is influenced by several factors namely religious, money or charismatic personality of a leader, language, policy or ideology, extent of franchise and the political parties affiliated to, mass illiteracy, poor electoral campaign, and a host of other irrational forces can have their definite influence on the minds of the voters. Media advocacy education is needed to influence positive ideas on a voter.

Further studies on elections and voters' turnout often focused on various 'campaign effects' (Settle et. al., 2016). Invariably, an increase exposure to political advertisements is predictive of higher levels of voter turnout. In the view of Gallego (2010, as cited in Settle et. al., 2016), voters' turnout is influenced by awareness of television news, radio, and social media trending. Watching television, listening to the radio, following social media on election are components of media advocacy education. This invariably means that media advocacy on election can influence voters' turnout. By implication, political rally meetings with the electorates are capable of influencing voters' decision on turnout and conduct. Sharing their views on voters' turnout, Berinsky and Lenz (2010) believe that voter turnout is one of the crucial indicators of how citizens participate in the governance of their country. To them, higher voter turnout is in most cases a sign of the vitality of democracy while lower turnout is usually associated with voter apathy and mistrust of the political process. Because of its importance, media advocates and civil society actors, as well as the democracy support community and many other stakeholders are concerned why some citizens do not turn out to vote. They are also keen to understand the reasons behind low turnouts.

3. Theoretical Support

The study rests on Media Framing Theory. The concept of framing was first posited by Gregory Bateson in 1972 (Arowolo, 2017) and later by Goffman in 1974, as 'Frame Analysis' (Dorfman, & Krasnow, 2014). According to Arowolo (2017), framing describes the practice of thinking about news items and story content within familiar context. Framing is related to the agenda-setting tradition but expands the research by focusing on the essence of the issues at hand rather than on a particular topic. The basis of framing theory is that the media focuses attention on certain events and then places them within a field of meaning. According to Dorfman and

Krasnow (2014), framing is the process of reconciling new information with one's existing understanding. In an unconscious and automatic process, people weigh new information against well-formed ideas that have been reinforced in their thinking overtime.

Media framing is an extension of agenda setting. It described how audience come to new information they see or hear with preformed ideas about the way the world works, why problems occur, and who is responsible for solving those problems (Lakoff, 1996). To Arowolo (2017), framing theory explains that the media create this frame by introducing news items with predefined and narrow contextualisation. Frames can be designed to enhance understanding or are used as cognitive shortcuts to link stories to the bigger picture.

3.1 Principles/Assumptions of Framing Theory

The theory holds among other things that:

- The media present something to the audience or called 'the frame' and it influences the choices people make about how to process that information. It deals with how the media formed ideas or issues to the audience by the way or manner the news or message is presented.
- Media framing draws audience attention to certain attributes of the objects or issues of the news coverage.
- Media framing helps individuals interpret data so that their experiences can be understood in a wider social context
- Media framing works to organize or structure message meaning or by helping audience make meaning from media message.

In the light of this study, media framing as a key component of media advocacy (Dorfman & Krasnow, 2014) deals with the process by which people extract meaning from content of all kinds, including words, pictures, or interactions. By news or media message framing by the news media on voters' turnout and behaviour, media advocacy calls for social and political change on the electorates.

Media framing and advocacy are strategic use of mass media to advance public concerns, debates and policy on national issues like voters' turnout, participation and electoral violence. Electoral issues can be framed by the media for public discourse that when consistently and persistently discussed it can become a working tool or framework for public policy. The basis of framing theory is that the media focused attention on certain issues and places importance on them. Peaceful, free and fair election as well as violent free election can also be tied to media framing and advocacy. Media framing and advocacy must be consistent to gain public acceptance. Consistent and persistent advocacy or campaigns are capable of influencing or inducing positive electorates change. Dorfman and Krasnow (2013) reasoned that media advocacy adopts approaches that are social, political and economic in nature in order to bring about social change. The authors also argued that media framing and advocacy are directed to personal behaviour. In their analysis for example, personal behaviour is the only part of what determines health status, and when media advocacy is directed towards health issues, it brings about the individual's understanding and knowledge of his/her health status. In the same vein, media framing and advocacy on elections matters can be directed towards behaviour of the electorates in order to achieve electoral behaviour as expected in election.

It is taken therefore in this theory that media framing and advocacy are communication approaches to advance electoral change. Voters' turnout is an agenda that should be set by the media advocating for peaceful elections.

4. Methodology

A survey of 75 voters from different local governments in Delta state was selected. Using the Krejcie Robert and Morgan Daryle determination of sample size of 1970, a sample size of 63 with 0.05 degree of accuracy and margin error was adopted from a population of 75 voters or respondents in the three Senatorial Districts in Delta State. The representation size (63) of the population was equally distributed to three local government secretariats in each of the three Senatorial Districts in Delta State. They were Oshimili South Local Government Council in Asaba, representing Delta North Senatorial District; Ethiope West Local Government Council, Oghara representing Delta Central Senatorial Districts and Warri South Local Government Council representing Delta South Senatorial Districts. Each one of these local government secretariats was administered with 21 copies of the questionnaire. The choice of the local government council secretariats for the administration of questionnaire was because it is one of the most appropriate places to contact civil servants in a matter of this nature (election as civil duty). Research assistants were hired for the purpose of administering the instrument in each of the secretariats mentioned above. Data collected in tables

1 to 4 were measured by the ‘yes or no’ options and analysed in percentage. Data in table 5 were measured using Likert scale following a response pattern of a 5-1 point (5 = I strong agree; 4 = I agree; 3 = 1 undecided; 2=1 strongly disagree and 1=1 disagree). The data in table 5 were analysed in mean and chi-square to test hypotheses.

5. Presentation of Results in Tables

Table 1: How Media Advocacy Education was used by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) to Promote Voters’ Turnout in Election Delta State

The followings could be sensitisation techniques used by INEC to promote voters’ turnout in election. Identify the one you know that was mostly used in the 2019 election in Delta state.

Options	Freg. (63)	(100 %)
Posters	10	15.8
Billboards on strategic places	15	23.8
Radio	08	12.6
Television	19	30.1
Newspaper	03	4.76
Social media	03	4.76
Town hall meeting	05	7.93
Town crier	00	00

Table 2: Most Understood Media Advocacy Education Technique

Which to you is the most effective media advocacy technique used by INEC for voters’ turnout in terms of easy understanding of the message?

Options	Freg. (63)	(100%)
Posters	15	23.8
Billboards on strategic places	11	17.4
Radio	09	14.3
Television	20	31.7
Newspaper	04	6.3
Social media	00	00
Town hall meeting	04	6.3
Town crier	00	00

Table 3: Most Persuasive Communication Strategy Use

Which one of these below is the most persuasive as media advocacy techniques used by INEC for voters’ turnout in the election?

Options	Freq. (63)	(100%)
Posters	05	7.93
Billboards on strategic places	07	11.1
Radio	10	15.8
Television	16	25.4
Newspaper	00	00
Social media	13	20.6
Town hall meeting	07	11.1
Town crier	05	7.93

Table 4: Rating INEC Performance on the Media Advocacy Strategies Use

Rate INEC performance in terms of the media advocacy strategies used for voters’ turnout and behaviour in the 2019 election in Delta state.

Options	Freq. (63)	(100%)
Very good	09	14.3
Good	22	34.9
Fairly good (average)	18	28.5
Poor	14	22.2
Very poor	00	00

Table 5: Determine whether media advocacy education is significant for voters' turnout in election and voter's behaviour

S/N	Items	Options SA	A	UD	SD	D	Mean
1	Attitude towards election is guided by level of age and level of education not media advocacy.	17	28	00	13	05	3.61
2.	Media advocacy education is essential for free and fair election.	11	31	00	16	5	3.42
3.	Voters' turnout in election is not tied to voter media advocacy education.	13	26	00	24	00	3.44
4.	Poor public enlightenment campaigns on election can be reason for low turnout in election.	09	11	03	51	00	3.17
5.	People turn out to vote not because of media advocacy education but because it is their civil duty.	13	33	02	13	02	3.66
6.	Media campaign on electoral conducts is not significant to the rate of voters' turnout but other factors like political party and ethnic group of the candidate.	10	03	00	43	07	2.46
7.	Money and vote buying is a strong influence on the electorate's behaviour.	14	27	08	14	00	3.65

Mean point/point of decision (3.00) and (n-63).

Data Tested

The first hypothesis was to ascertain if attitude towards election is guided by level of age and level of education and not media advocacy (item 1 in table 5)

The second hypothesis was to ascertain the relationship between media advocacy education and the behaviour of the electorates in election.

Data Results

	Attitude towards election is guided by level of age and level of education not media advocacy.	There is no relationship between media advocacy education and the behaviour of the electorates in election.
Chi-square	17.444	34.540
Df.	3	4

SPSS, Version 23

Where calculated χ^2 > critical χ^2 @ .05, an association exist between the variables, implying that attitude towards election was guided by level of age and level of education not media advocacy and there was no relationship between media advocacy education and the behaviour of the electorates in election.

Hypothesis 3: The third hypothesis was to ascertain if voters' turnout in election was due to media advocacy education.

Hypothesis 4: The fourth hypothesis was to ascertain the relationship between voters' turnout in election and voter media advocacy education.

	There is relationship between voters' turnout in election and voter media advocacy education.	There is a relationship between media advocacy education and free and fair election.
Chi-square	4.667	23.560
Df.	2	3

Where calculated χ^2 > critical χ^2 @ .05, data were statistically significant. An association exists between the variables, implying from the result of the third hypothesis that there exist a relationship between voters' turnout in election and media advocacy education. Media advocacy is therefore capable of making voters to participate in election. Also, media advocacy education can help to promote free and fair election.

6. Discussion of Results

The data collected were pooled and analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, percentage and chi-square. The sample size (n-63) consisted of 42 male respondents representing 66.6%'and 21 responses representing 33.3 % of the female respondents'. Issues of election and voting, males were always dominants. In the age ranges, ages between 18-27 were 9 responses representing 14.3% of the respondents; between 28-37 were 14 responses representing 22.2% of the respondents; those between 38- 47 were 36% of the respondents. Those respondents from 48 age and above were 17 representing 26.9%. Voting participation is always dominated by young people. The study showed that ages between 28 to 37 and above were active in voting participation and in most cases these age ranges formed the violent behaviour in elections. These are basically the active and violent age participation in elections. The participants or respondents that have secondary education were18 representing 28.5% and those with higher education were 45 representing 71.4%. On marital status, there were 20 respondents representing 31.7% that were not married while 43 respondents representing 86.3% were married. Election is a process where people chose someone to represent them. Election is casting for a better change. All the respondents were civil servants working in the local government council secretariats in the three Delta State Senatorial Districts.

Answers to objective one of the study were provided in Table 1. Objective one was to determine how the Independent National Electoral Commission uses media advocacy education to advocate voters' turnout in the 2019 election in Delta State. The Table showed that the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) used posters, billboards, radio jingles, television campaigns, newspaper advert, social media platforms, and town hall meeting as media advocacy education techniques in the 2019 election in Delta State. However, as obtained, television campaign was the most used media advocacy technique for voters' turnout in election. Television because of its features of sounds and images has the ability to influence change. Television is believed to make the most impact on the audience (Banjo, Adebambo & Dairo, 2009). This is because of its audio-visual advantage. It leaves a lasting impression in the minds of the audience. Television can reach diverse people simultaneously and provide opportunity for a message to be demonstrated in images or pictures. Banjo, Adebambo and Dairo (2009) showed that television is effective in creating awareness about public health and environmental issues. Television is often associated with their wide geographical coverage in contrast to the print media. Television and radio are effective media advocacy communication tools that could be used to raise public awareness and consciousness towards voters' turnout with a high degree of effectiveness.

Of all the advocacy or campaign techniques used by INEC to make eligible Nigerians to participate or turnout for election and avoid violent behaviour in election, the respondents' indicated television (31.7%) as the most understood; this was followed by posters (23.8%) and billboards (17.4%) in strategic locations. Television again has the ability to change perception through it clear demonstrated images illustrated. Posters and billboards are visual communication techniques that can be clearly used to demonstrate action or messages. Placed in strategic locations, posters and billboards captured the eyes and attention of the beholder. Messages are served or passed when the eyes raise obvious attention. The respondents were consistent in their answers as shown in the first two tables on the three media advocacy education techniques of television campaigns, billboards and posters used by INEC. Consistency of answers implied that the respondents not only understood the question presented to them but also they participated in the election. Since television campaign was the most understood media advocacy technique used by INEC for voters' turnout and to stop violent election, the result further showed that it was the most persuasive communication strategy used by INEC. This further explained the impact of television viewing on audience especially consistent audience.

The results obtained so far on the persuasive impact of television correspond with the theory of media framing. A regular television viewer especially on political and election matters is bound to be influenced by the way, manner and rate political or election news is framed in the media. It is instructive to know that the degree to which the broadcast media devote air time to election and political news also affect people's attitudes towards election participation. As it were, heavy dependency and exposure to the media tend to shape people's beliefs and perceptions about various issues of life. Aptly put, the degree of dependency on the media is a key variable that help to explain why audience's beliefs, feelings or behaviours are altered. In other words, news framing by the news media has a way of influencing our perception on the issue presented. The news media can raise an issue, make it a hot national debate and discourse over a period of time and also has the power to 'kill' the issue. This is media presentation, a postulation that holds the media have the 'raising and falling' power over an issue pertaining to public interest. Media framing is clearly media presentation of what the media interpret, see as important and present to us as news. Framing focus on how media draws the public's eye to specific topics and then it takes a step further to create a frame, through which the audience will comprehend such information. Creating frames for stories starts from the sources, reporters or editors, and to the audience. This is why media framing is media presentation. Media framing on elections over a time can form electoral behaviour.

Objective two of the study was to determine whether media advocacy education was significant for voters' turnout in election. Average mean and chi-square analyses were used to obtained results. At a point where calculated mean-point was 3.44 > 3.00, it was agreed that media advocacy education on elections was essential for free and fair election but voters' turnout in election was not tied to voter's media advocacy education (3.17 > 3.00). It can be taken that media advocacy on election was not significant for voters' rate of turnout. From the results of the average mean and chi-square analyses, media advocacy was capable of making voters to participate in election but not significant for voters' rate of turnout but other social factors can namely like political party affiliation, regionalism, money politics and ethnic group.

As a way of contribution to existing studies, the study showed that voters' behaviour was guided by level of age and level of education not really media advocacy education; and there was no relationship between media advocacy education and the behaviour of the electorates in election. The behaviour of the electorates during election was largely influenced by factors mentioned above. Though media advocacy was capable of making voters to participate in election as well as promote free and fair election but media advocacy education does not determines voter's attitude or behaviour during election. As ascertained, the factors that determine voters' behaviour were level of age, level of education and political party affiliation, regionalism, money politics, promise of big political appointment and ethnic group. These social factors are strong and influential forces in voters' turnout and behaviour in Nigeria. Media advocacy education is a reminder to vote and to follow the rules and voting guidelines.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

Election in Nigeria is very difficult and complex project that needs a lot of media advocacy and education to make the electorates not only to be informed or participate but to have the right behaviour or conduct during election. Media advocacy education is a social call to change. The various strategies adopted by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) namely posters, billboards, radio, television, social media and town hall meeting are capable of making voters to participate in election but these media advocacy education strategies do not determine voter's attitude and proper conducts during election. Basically, the level of age, level of education and political party affiliation, regionalism, money politics and ethnic group are strong determinants of a voter's turnout and conducts especially in violent elections. Obviously, the use of money, the power of religion and ethnic affiliations by politicians had often truncated media advocacy education for proper conducts in elections. It is appalling that these factors influenced voter's far more than that of media advocacy education used by INEC. Media sadvocacy should be consistently directed towards electoral behaviour or conducts as expected in a violent-free election. INEC should have regular meetings with all registered political parties prior to election to ensure free and fair election. The door-to-door campaign should be adopted to increase voters' turnout and participation in election.

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Voting Behavior amongst South-Western States in Nigeria: A Study of Oyo and Osun States (2015-2019)

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Abstract. The high degree of mistrust in the electoral process has affected the voting behaviour of voters during election in Nigeria. It is against this backdrop, that the study investigated the voting behavior among South-western states, using Oyo and Osun states respectively from 2015-2019. The study adopted quantitative method and employed survey research design. Data was generated through the administering of questionnaire. Data from journals, articles, books (published & unpublished), internet and documentaries complemented the major sources of data. Findings revealed that there are factors negating the voting behavior of electorates in South-western Nigeria. The study concluded that voting behaviour is an essential element in democratic system. However, in Nigeria, there is low level of participation of the electorates during elections because of high degree of mistrust in the electoral system. The study recommended that government should improve in areas of electoral process and be proactive by orientating citizens during elections.

Keywords: Voting, Behaviour, Voting behaviour, South-western, States

1. Introduction

The fact that majority of the world practices democracy, Nigeria inclusive, there is a need for the conduct of election in order to enable individuals choose their preferred candidates for political office. Democracy is a form of government in which the people rule themselves either directly or indirectly through their representatives. According to Erdmann (2004), the ability of an individual to vote his preference after deliberations without having his choices forcefully restricted by eternal forces is essential for any democracy. Elections and voting are essential part of democratic political systems and this is because it is a process through which people are elected into various offices and to represent them. Voting is a fundamental right incorporated into every constitution all over the world. For Nigeria, this right to vote can be found in section 39 of the 1999 Nigerian constitution.

Voting is a form of political participation and is regarded as the main form of political participation in liberal democratic societies. The patterns of the votes can be described as the voting behavior. The analysis of these patterns of behavior helps to explain the reasons why people vote and how they reach the decisions they make. Voting behavior is an act of aggregating individual preferences into collective decision in an election (Linberg and Morrison, 2007) When studying voting behavior, the main focus is to find out who votes and how they vote. Being able to understand voter's behavior would help to explain why electorates make their decisions the way they do and enable the prediction of the outcomes of elections. According to Bartel (2008), people vote according to their original political disposition, while some others vote because of the candidates' personal characteristics, qualities and abilities.

Nigeria at its inception was divided into two regions by the colonial masters which were the northern region the southern region .Today, Nigeria is divided six (6) geopolitical zones namely; The middle belt also known as north central (Benue, Kogi, Kwara. Nasarawa, Niger, Plateau, Federal Capital Territory), The North East (Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba, Yobe), The North West (Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Sokoto, Zamfara), The south East (Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu, Imo), The South-South(Akwa-Ibom, Cross River, Bayelsa, Rivers, Delta, Edo) and the South West (Ekiti, Lagos, Osun, Ogun, Oyo, Ondo). Oyo state is an inland state of the South-western region of Nigeria. It was created in 1976 and has its capital in Ibadan. It has 33 local government areas. Osun state was created out of Oyo state in 1991.Osun state has Osogbo as its capital. It has 30 local government areas with over 200 towns and is divided into three federal senatorial districts (The Punch, 2014).

Nigeria's electoral system has been seen as defective. Elections in Nigeria have been accompanied with rigging, violence, low turnout of citizens during election, vote buying just to mention a few. Elections in Nigeria since post-independence have been marked by sharp division and distrust and a zero sum attitude which manifest in electoral fraud, serious disputes and high level of violence (Odofin and Omojuwa, 2007). As a result of the political unrest, people in the South-western region have developed a non-participatory attitude when it comes to elections. It is against this backdrop that the study investigated the voting behavior in Oyo and Osun states in Nigeria from 2015-2019.

1.1 Research Objectives

The major objective of the study is to investigate the voting behavior of South-western states in Nigeria, using Oyo and Osun states. The specific ones are to:

- ascertain the major factors that influence the voting behavior in Oyo and Osun states between 2015 and 2019
- determine the political culture in Oyo and Osun states as a platform of voting behavioral pattern
- ascertain if electorates vote as a result of the political ideologies of political parties; and
- find out how voting behavior of electorates in Nigeria can be improved upon

1.3 Research Questions

- What are the factors affecting voting behavior in Oyo and Osun states?
- What is the political culture in Oyo and Osun states?
- Do electorates know the political ideologies of political parties?
- What can be done to improve the voting behavior in Nigeria?

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Conceptualizing Voting Behaviour

Voting has virtually become a universal means of collective decision making by individuals in order to elect their political representatives. Flannigan and Zingale (1998) admitted that the most common form of political participation is exercise of the right to vote. It is an essential act which a citizen is supposed to perform in order to ensure that government operates in the way that it is expected to.

Voting behaviour gives an inside looks into the minds of individuals who participate in politics through voting. The study of voting behaviour has been able to bring out the major differences in the political decisions of various age groups, religious groups, and ethnic groups and even among the sexes. The ability of political parties and pressure groups to summon religious and communal factors, influence of money or charismatic nature of a leader and other illogical forces have their influence on the minds of the voters. Voting behaviour is significant in political systems where the voter possesses some sort of choice, no matter how limited. The level in which voting decision is affected by internal processes and external influences changes the value of democratic decisions making.

2.1.1 Factors affecting Voting Behaviour

Various factors which include political and non-political have an effect on voting behaviour. The analysis of voting behaviour done by Bartel"s (2008) focuses on the dynamic forces that influence people to vote as they do and how they make the decisions they make. This implies that the behaviour of a voter is influenced by several factors. The determinants of voting behaviour are vast and wide-ranging, and differ from one person to another to a substantial level. Several factors that can affect voter's behaviour have been highlighted by various scholars. They could be internal or external, short-term or long-term, sociological or political factors (Antunes, 2010). Below are some of the factors affecting voting behaviour:

Age of Electorate / Candidate: The age of an individual determines to an extent the direction in which an individual may decide to vote. (Gills 2003, Sanbonmatsu, 2002) have shown that there is a higher rate of older voter turnout than younger age groups, and that voter turnout is lowest among young adults. There are also certain electorates who would not vote for a female candidate as a result of the ideology that electorate have.

Educational Status of Electorate: Education is an important determinant of voting behaviour. This is because education opens up people's minds to political processes and may also change an individual's perspective about the political process and spark an interest in the political process in such an individual

Gender of Electorate: There is a noticeable gender gap in electoral behaviour globally as well as in Nigeria (Ogbogu, 2012). There is usually low level of involvement by women in politics and to exercise their legal right to vote (Ogbogu, 2012). Gender provides a base for diversity. Women voters tend to be more indecisive about their purpose to vote than men are and are more easily influenced than their male counterparts.

Others are kinship ties of individuals, charisma of candidate, and interest of individual in political affairs, public opinion, and party loyalty. When an electorate is dedicated to or in support of a political party, he is more likely to come out to vote to ensure that the candidate that such an individual is rooting for is able to win. A party which is able to continually achieve its goals is more likely to retain its supporters as a result that such an individual would have developed confidence in the party.

2.2 Conceptualising political culture

Political culture is viewed by J.J Rousseau in terms of the morality, customs and public opinion of a particular people Hiping (2004). It basically describes the learned rules and communal opinion of a society. According to Heywood (1999), political culture is a pattern of orientations to political Objects such as parties, government, and the constitution expressed in beliefs, symbols and value. Silver and Dowley (2000) viewed political culture as a subjective mass phenomenon that entails orientations toward the main objects of the political system and to the role of it. It refers to distinguishing attitudes beliefs, behaviour patterns of a community.

According to (Almond and Verba, 1963); (Anifowoshe and Enemuo: 1999:217), the key elements of what constitutes a nation's political culture include among other things:

- the degree of social trust or mistrust which prevails in the society;
- the general attitude of tolerance and inter-personal cooperation permeating political relations among people;
- attachment and loyalty of citizens to the national political system;
- people's attitudes towards authority- degree of public recognition of what constitutes the legitimate authority; and
- People's sense of their right, powers and obligations. Do they feel that they can influence and participate in the decision making processes or is there widespread apathy and political alienation in the political system?

Political culture is not stagnant but may change overtime due to importation of new ideas, change in population density and various other factors. According to Olanrewaju (2015) the political culture of Nigeria is still embryonic and undeveloped. The political culture pattern of Nigeria can be said to be one characterised by political corruption, electioneering hooliganisms, ethnic bias and elite aloofness

2.3 Voting behaviour in South-Western States

The south-western art of Nigeria consists of six states namely; Oyo state, Osun state, Ondo state, Ogun state, Ekiti state, Lagos state all these states are categorised as Yoruba states. Gubernatorial elections were conducted in Ekiti and Osun state in 2014 and Lagos Ogun, Oyo and Ondo state in 2015. Given the history of political crisis in the former Western Region, the South-west geopolitical zone is seen as prone to the use of thugs and criminals employed by godfathers to win elections. For instance, according to Human Rights Watch, Chief Lamidi Adedibu has been involved in Oyo politics since the 1950s. His many critics alleged that he started as an organizer of political thugs for the Action Group Party of Chief Obafemi Awolowo. By the late 1980s, however, he arose as an influential political force through a combination of populist politics, patronage, violence and extortion'' (Albin-Lackey, 2007).

Prior to elections, voters usually given incentives in form of food stuff or money by candidates either directly or through agents in order to garner support from the populace. The term incentive here refers to the exchange of goods for political support. Many governorship candidates provided food stuffs and many other items to the people of the state during Christmas and New Year celebrations and in exchange for their votes (The Punch, 2014). In a country like Nigeria where the standard of living is low, it is not far-fetched that individuals would be willing to sell their votes to candidates who are willing to give them incentives (Adeleke, 2016).

2.3.1 Voting Behaviour in Oyo and Osun States

Oyo state is located in the South-western part of Nigeria. It is occupied by Yoruba's whose primary occupation is farming. The last gubernatorial election in Oyo state was held in 2015 where Senator Abiola Ajimobi emerged as the winner under the banner of the All Progressive Congress (APC). Politics in Oyo state is characterised by godfatherism. Certain individuals in the state are seen as the king makers and their support is usually sort after. Example of a godfather in Oyo state is Late Alhaji Lamidi Adedibu who controlled the outcome of elections in Oyo state. These godfathers usually serve as sponsors of candidates and if a godfather does not give approval of a candidate, such candidate may have slim chances of winning an election.

Post-election in Osun state witnessed a high presence of security agencies such as the military. This was claimed to have been a ploy by the People's Democratic Party to use in ensuring that their candidate obtained the post of governor in the state rather than the incumbent who was an All Progressive Congress candidate. The election was characterised by vote buying, stomach infrastructure gains such as food, money and what have you. Rather than vote for a responsible candidate that will provide a long term development for the country, people prefer the one who will offer material goods to electorates in order to garner support from them and Osun state was not excluded from this activity.

2.3.2 Rational Choice Theory

This is the theory employed to explain voting behaviour in this study. The theory uses the economic theory to explain voting behaviour. The theoretical background for the economic explanation of voting behaviour was given by Anthony Downs (1957) in his work "An Economic Theory of Democracy. The main theory of Downs work is that parties in democratic politics are equivalent to entrepreneurs in a profit-seeking economy. As a result, to attain their private ends they come up with policies which they believe can get them the most votes, as entrepreneurs produce whatsoever products they believe will gain the most profits.

The theory states that voters are rational when making their decisions and that they would want to achieve full utilisation of their votes. This theory also assumes that voters and political parties are presented with options which they can arrange in order of preference and those voters and political parties make their decisions in the direction which is likely to benefit them the most. This is evident in the fat that voters are able to be persuaded to vote in certain directions through the use of incentives which to them at that point is at the top of their list of needs. The operation of the model is based on three fundamental principles: that,

(1)All decisions voters and political parties make are rational, which means that the decisions are guided by self-interest and enforced in accordance with the principle of maximization of action's utility.
(2) The democratic political system implies a level of consistency that supports predictions about the consequences of decisions made by voters and political parties
(3) The democratic system assumes despite the consistency stated in the previous point a level of uncertainty, sufficiently important to allow different options.
This theory can be used to explain why people make the decisions they make because it states that people want to use their votes to its full utility for their own benefit. A large number of Nigerians refrain from voting and other political engagements as a result of the undemocratic practices such as election rigging, electoral violence, intimidation and, manipulation. These factors have decreased the level of trust of the citizenry in the government and its institutions.

3. Methodology

The study is on voting behaviour in South-western region in Nigeria, using specifically, Oyo and Osun states. The study adopted quantitative method and employed survey research design. Data was generated through the administering of questionnaire. Data from journals, articles, books (published & unpublished), internet and documentaries complemented the major sources of data. The population of this study was both male and female individuals within the voting age in Ibadan North in Oyo state and Ife Central in Osun state. The random sampling technique was used in this study. Sample size determination was based on Taro Yamane's framework. The estimation of the sample size will be made through the formula, Yamane $n = \frac{N}{[I + N(e)^2]}$

Where;
n is the sample size,
N is the population,
I (1) is a constant, and
e is the error limit (0.05).
For Osun state N=68,464
For Oyo state N=95,471
Total population= 163,935

$$n = \frac{N}{[I + N(e)^2]}$$

$$n = \frac{163,935}{[1+163,935(0.05)^2]}$$

$$n = \frac{163,935}{410.8375}$$

n = 399.02 approximately 399
Therefore, 399questionnaires would be distributed.

To find out the proportion of the questionnaire, Bowlers proportional allocation method would be used.

$$n_1 = \frac{n(N_1)}{N}$$

Where n is overall sample size

N_1 is population of each state

N is the total population

For Osun state

$$n_1 = \frac{399(68,464)}{163,935} = \frac{27,,385,600}{163,935} = 166.6$$ approximately 167

For Oyo state

$$n_1 = \frac{399(95,471)}{163,935} = \frac{38,188,400}{163,935} = 232.36$$ approximately 232

4. Presentation of Data and Analysis

4.1 Data Analysis

Table 1: Voting is an act of formal indication of one's choice of political candidate or political party at an election

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	274	74.9	74.9	74.9
	Agree	87	23.8	23.8	98.6
	Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	99.7
	Strongly Disagree	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020).*

The opinion of the respondent on whether voting is an act of formal indication of one's choice of political candidate or political party at an election or not. From the population under study, 361 respondents representing 98.7% strongly agreed and agreed while the remaining 5 respondents representing 1.4% strongly disagreed with the statement. Thus, the statement voting is an act of formal indication of one's choice of political candidate or political party at an election is upheld.

Table 2: Voting behavior is an aggregate of the decision made by a group of people during an election

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	112	30.6	30.6	30.6
	Agree	239	65.3	65.3	95.9
	Disagree	14	3.8	3.8	99.7
	Strongly Disagree	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

Respondent's opinions were considered on whether voting behavior is an aggregate of the decision made by a group of people during an election or not. From the population under study in table above, 351 respondents representing 95.9% strongly agreed and agreed that voting behavior is an aggregate of the decision made by a group of people during an election while the remaining 15 respondents representing 4.1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Therefore, the statement that states that voting behavior is an aggregate of the decision made by a group of people during an election is accepted.

Table 3: Voting is an integral part of political participation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	221	60.4	60.4	60.4
	Agree	112	30.6	30.6	91.0
	Disagree	29	7.9	7.9	98.9
	Strongly Disagree	4	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

Table 3 shows the distribution of the respondent's opinion on whether voting is an integral part of political participation or not. Analysis above shows that 333 respondents representing 91% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that voting is an integral part of political participation while another 33 representing 9.0% strongly disagreed and disagreed with the statement that voting is an integral part of political participation. The statistical analysis shown above upheld the opinion of the respondent that stated that voting is an integral part of political participation.

Table 4: I am aware of my right to vote and the implications of my voting decision

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	248	67.8	67.8	67.8
	Agree	100	27.3	27.3	95.1
	Disagree	13	3.6	3.6	98.6
	Strongly Disagree	5	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

With the analysis from table 4 above, respondent's opinion were made known on whether individual and eligible voters were aware of their right to vote and the implications of their voting decision. 348 respondents representing 95.1% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that they were aware of their right to vote and the implications of their voting decision. Another 18 respondents representing 5.0% were strongly disagreed and disagreed about the statement. The result shows that every eligible voter is aware of his voting rights or right to vote and the impending implications of their voting decision thereafter.

Table 5: I vote during elections

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	96	26.2	26.2	26.2
	Agree	153	41.8	41.8	68
	Disagree	107	29.2	29.2	97.2
	Strongly Disagree	10	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

249 respondents representing 68% of the population under study strongly agreed that they vote during elections while the remaining 117 respondents representing 31.9% strongly disagreed and disagreed about the statement. The result shows that majority of the respondents participated in performing their civic responsibility to vote and be voted for.

Table 6: The Nigerian voting system is a credible one

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	124	38.3	33.9	33.9
	Agree	62	16.9	16.9	50.8
	Disagree	122	29.0	33.3	84.1
	Strongly Disagree	58	15.8	15.8	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

The opinions of the respondents in table 6 were made known on whether the Nigerian voting system is a credible one or not. Out of the total population under study, 186 respondents representing 50.8% strongly agreed and agreed while another 180 respondents representing 49.1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Therefore, the percentage of those that agreed that Nigerian voting system is a credible one supersedes the former and thus it is upheld.

Table 7: Enticement is a normal practice during election

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	106	29.0	29.0	29.0
	Agree	143	39.1	39.1	68.0
	Disagree	88	24.0	24.0	92.1
	Strongly Disagree	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

Table 7 shows the distribution of the respondents' opinion on whether enticement is a normal practice during election or not. From the above analysis 249 respondents representing 68.1% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that enticement is a normal practice during election while another 117 respondent representing 31.9% strongly disagreed and disagreed about the statement. The analysis shows that the percentage of those that strongly agreed and agreed surpasses that of their counterpart that disagreed with the above statement.

Table 8: Credibility of voting results would encourage voting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	207	56.6	56.6	56.6
	Agree	116	31.7	31.7	88.3
	Disagree	34	9.3	9.3	97.6
	Strongly Disagree	9	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

The opinions of the respondents in table 8 were sought on whether credibility of voting results would encourage voting or not. Out of the total population under study, 323 respondents representing 88.3% strongly agreed and agreed while remaining 43 respondents representing 11.7% strongly disagreed with the statement that the credibility of voting would encourage voting. Therefore, from the analysis done, the credibility of voting results would encourage voting in the nearest future and that statement is accepted.

Table 9: Religious background is a determinant of my voting behavior

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	129	35.2	35.2	35.2
	Agree	67	18.3	18.3	53.6
	Disagree	93	25.4	25.4	79.0
	Strongly Disagree	77	21.0	21.0	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

Table 9 shows the distribution of the respondent's take on whether religious background is a determinant of voters voting behavior or not. From the analysis stated above, 196 respondents representing 53.5% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that religious background is a determinant factor of their voting behavior while another 170 respondents representing 46.4% strongly disagreed and disagreed with the statement. The analysis shows that the percentage of those that strongly agreed and agreed based on the fact that religious background is a determinant of voters voting behavior surpasses those that do not support the statement. Hence, the former statement with higher percentage 53.5% is upheld.

Table 10: I am an adherent of a particular party and vote based on preference for that particular party.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	83	22.7	22.7	22.7
	Agree	96	26.2	26.2	48.9
	Disagree	119	32.5	32.5	81.4
	Strongly Disagree	68	18.6	18.6	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

179 respondents representing 48.9% of the population under study strongly agree and agree that they are adherents of a particular party and vote based on preference for that particular party while the remaining 187 respondents representing 51.1% strongly disagreed and disagreed about the statement. The result shows that majority of the respondents are unaware of the political ideologies of political parties.

Table 11: The charisma of a candidate affects my voting Decision

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	175	47.8	47.8	47.8
	Agree	127	34.7	34.7	82.5
	Disagree	40	10.9	10.9	93.4
	Strongly Disagree	24	6.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	366	100.0	100.0	

Source: *Field Survey (2020)*

Analysis from table 11 shows the respondent's opinion on whether the charisma of a candidate affects individuals voting decision or not. 302 respondents representing 82.5% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that they were persuaded by the charisma of the candidate which affected their voting decision while another 64 respondents representing 17.5% strongly disagreed and disagreed that they were not affected by the charisma of the candidate. The result shows that most of the eligible voters were affected by the charisma of the candidates which in turn affected their decision making on voting exercise.

5. Discussion of Findings

The first research question which is "What are the factors affecting voting behavior of electorates?" this question was answered by the question Religious background is a determinant of my voting behavior where we have 53.5% of respondents strongly agreeing and agreeing and 46.4 % disagreeing and strongly disagreeing. There is also the question the charisma of a candidate affects my voting decision where 82.5% of respondents strongly agreed and agreed and 17.5% strongly disagreed and disagreed. This confirms that religion and charisma among other factors affect the voting behavior of electorates in South-Western Nigeria.

The second research question stated 'What is the political culture in Osun and Oyo States?" this is addressed by the question I vote during elections which has 68% of respondents agreeing and strongly agreeing and 31.9 % of respondents disagreeing and strongly disagreeing. It is also addressed by the question Enticement is a normal practice during elections which 68.1 % of respondents agree and strongly agree with and 31.9% disagree and strongly disagree with. Another question which addresses this is The Nigerian voting system is a credible one which 50.8 % of respondents agree and strongly agree with and 49.1% disagree and strongly disagree. Also, the question I am aware of my right to vote and the implications of my voting decision where we have 95.1% of respondents agreeing and strongly agreeing and 5.0% disagreeing and strongly disagreeing addresses the research question. This confirms that there is relatively low level of participation during elections and also a high level of mistrust of electorates in the electoral system.

The third research question which says "do electorates know the political ideologies of political parties?" which 48.9% of respondents agree and strongly agree with and 51.1% of respondents disagree and strongly disagree with. This confirms that a majority of electorates are unaware of the political ideologies which political parties have.

The fourth research question which says "What can be done to improve voting behavior of electorates in Osun and Oyo states?" is addressed by the question Credibility of voting results would encourage voting where 88.3% agree and strongly agree and 11.7% disagree and strongly disagree. This shows that electorates would be more likely to vote during elections if there is result credibility. The following observations were also made that:

- a majority of people in Oyo state and Osun state have their voting decision being influenced by the charisma and religious affiliation and background of candidates
- both Oyo state and Osun state have a majority of people voting but still have a high percentage of individuals who do not vote for a state that claims to be operating a participatory democratic system
- a majority of individuals are not aware of the political ideologies of political party's which is what these political party's stand for and to an extent can help electorates to be able to know the standing of candidates on various issues based on the party ideology and;
- a political system which is credible and trusted by members of the society would encourage other individuals to participate in the election process

6. Conclusion

Political participation and voting behaviour are crucial elements in any democratic system. However, in Nigeria, there is low level of participation of the electorates during elections because of high degree of mistrust in the electoral system. The issue of religion and charisma among other factors have also affected the voting behavior of electorates in Nigeria. The electorates come out in their numbers and are still biased to vote for the right candidate during election. Based on the findings and conclusion of this study, the following recommendations are considered that:

- The Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) should improve in the area of electoral process during elections.
- Government should create more awareness and be proactive in making citizens to be more conscious about their voting behaviour during election.
- There should be more proactive move to educate citizens of their right and obligation to participate and claim their one vote during election.
- Political parties should be encouraged to improve on their public images through the entrenchment of internal democracy when their candidates are elected into power.
- Political parties should make know to the public their ideologies. This will help the electorates know what political candidates actually represent and stand for.

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Political 'Harlotry': Interrogating the Implications of Party Defection in Consolidating Democracy in Nigeria

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Abstract. Nigeria's democracy, especially in the fourth Republic has been characterized by party defections and decamping of political gladiators to other parties. It has become a seasonal fad that peaks at election period. It is a habitual search for the 'right clime' to realize their dreams and ambitions. This paper examines the implications of this, on the sustainability of democracy in Nigeria. The elite theory is engaged in this discourse, while both primary and secondary sources of data are used. The study demonstrates that while party defections are an integral part of democratic processes, lack of party ideologies and internal party democracy, are the major factors responsible for the prevailing scenario in Nigeria's political system. The paper also observes that, since party defections are not driven by fundamental ideological considerations, the outcome is an unstable opposition which is unable to sustain and consolidate the gains of democracy. The paper recommends that party manifestoes be supreme with laws made to limit defections. Elected representatives should also lose their seats if they defect outside the procedure to be provided for in the electoral act,

Keywords: Defection, Democracy, Consolidation, Party

1. Introduction

The emergence of multi-party democracy in Nigeria since the return to democracy in 1999 has been regarded as a major breakthrough in the democratic process. However, the increasing wave of defections by political gladiators both at the national and state levels cannot be unnoticed and has become a major concern and challenge to the nation's nascent democracy. What democracy depicts in Nigeria continues to manifest clearly in individuals' quests for recognition and self-preservation rather than the greater purpose of nationalism and service to the people. This systemic behaviour by politicians in Nigeria has adversely affected the quality of opposition which is key in any democratic setting (Smith, 2012).

Nigerian democracy has witnessed series of Party defection which dates back to the First Republic, specifically in 1951 Udeuhele, (2015). He opines that the first celebrated cross-carpeting episode occurred in Nigeria in 1951. A scenario which robbed Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe the opportunity to lead the government of the western Nigeria.Mbah, (2011), opines that, the NCNC won 42 seats out of 80, but within 24 hours, 20 of them had cross- carpeted to AG, following the pressure that was exerted on them by Chief Awolowo – leader of the AG, a Yoruba man. In the same First Republic, another Premier in the same Western Region, Ladoke Akintola, left the AG in a crisis, rooted more in a personality clash but explained it as personal principles and his conviction to advance the Yoruba race into alliance with Northern People's Congress Nwanegbo, Odigbo, Nnorom, (2014). The subsequent republics were not exempted from party defections and cross-carpeting. This development which is generally referred to as cross-carpeting, party-switching, floor-crossing, canoe-jumping etc are employed to mean the same thing as party defection (Malthora, 2005; Mbah, 2011). This, Aziken (2009) refers to as 'political prostitution or harlotry.' This has become a permanent feature of Nigeria's democracy. The spate of defections and its implications on Nigeria's democracy therefore, raises a fundamental question of sustainability of democracy in Nigeria given this

experience. Consolidation of democracy has become the pride of all nations' even dictatorial regimes because of the legitimacy the system drives home. Thus, even the pursuit of individual or small elite group interest is hidden under the garment of democracy. These elite interest are often what leads to defections or harlotry. This study therefore, attempts to identify the factors that have accounted for the endless party defections in Nigeria in general and Benue State in particular, as well as to examine the implications of these defections on the sustainability of democracy in Nigeria.
Since Nigeria's return to democratic rule in 1999, party defections have continued to be a recurring decimal. The result of these defections at federal, State and Local Government levels have been variously discussed and documented in literature. As such the paper is a survey of past party defections. It makes use of secondary sources of date and key informant interviews which are analysed and conclusions drawn.

The study demonstrates that while party defections are an integral part of democratic processes, lack of party ideologies and internal party democracy, are the major factors responsible for the prevailing scenario in Nigeria's political system. The paper also observes that, since party defections are not driven by fundamental ideological considerations, the outcome is an unstable opposition which is unable to sustain and consolidate the gains of democracy.

This paper has six parts. The first part being the introduction/ background, also take care of the objectives and the methodology of the study. The second part looks at the conceptual and theoretical considerations of the paper; the third part is an overview of party defections in Benue State since 1999. The fourth part identifies the factors that account for party defections in Nigeria; the fifth part is on the implications of defections and defections on democratic consolidation in Benue state while the sixth part is conclusion and recommendations.

2. Conceptual and theoretical Considerations

2.1 Political Harlotry

Political harlotry describes the wanton, unprincipled and uncommitted movement of political actors from one political party to another usually to achieve their selfish ambitions. It also describes the switching of loyalty between different political parties. According to Awanen (2007), political defectors are usually regarded as 'political prostitutes' without political principle, morality, conscience and lacking ideology to champion the cause of leadership for the well-being of society and political development of any nation. Political harlotry is also synonymous with party defection, party switching, decamping and cross carpeting. Interparty defections or cross-carpeting according to Hoeane (2008) is believed to have taken place when an elected party representative within a legislative structure such as the parliament, embraces a different political or policy perspective that is incompatible with that of the party represented.

2.2 Party Defection

Defection could be referred to as an act of swapping. Party defection is thus, an act of switching from one party to another. According to Malhotra (2005), party defection is known by different nomenclatures such as "floor-crossing", "carpet-crossing", "party-hopping", "dispute" "canoe-jumping" and it is any change in political party affiliation of a partisan public figure, usually holding an elected office (cited in Mbah, 2011). Janada (2009), notes that defections usually occur in two ways; first, there is great movement of politicians from different political parties into the ruling party towards the time of the general elections with the idea of participating in party primaries of the ruling party. The second movement starts after the party primaries by those who lost in the party primaries. They move to other parties or form new ones under which they intend to contest the coming elections.

It is important to note that, indeed, party defection occurs in every political system. It is a global reality and an integral part of a political process (Nwanegbo, Odigbo and Nnorom, 2014). Malhotra (2005) however, notes that in some countries, party defections 'are a non-issue and not perceived as a problem', whereas in others, the practice threaten government stability and is taken as very seriously.

The increasing wave of incessant defections as well as the threat of instability arising from defections especially in emerging democracies, prompted enactment of anti-defection laws in some societies. For instance, India enacted various anti-defection laws in 1973, 1985 and most recently, the 2003 anti-defection law. The 2003 law according to Malhotra (2005) provides that a person can be disqualified from serving in parliament for voluntarily giving up the membership of his original party. Nwanegbo et al (2014) opine that, this legal provision appears to have reduced drastically, cases of defection in the polity since one finds it difficult to forfeit their position or face parliamentary expulsion.

A similar anti-defection law exists in Nigeria. However, it is marred with deficiencies and incongruence, especially in section 68 1(g) and 109(1). Although Section 68 (1(a)) states:
A member of the Senate or House of Representatives shall vacate his seat in the House of which he is a member if being a person whose election to the House was sponsored by a political party, he becomes a member of another political party before expiration of the period for which that House was elected. Provided that his membership of the latter political party is not as a result of a division in the political party of which he was previously a member or of a merger of two or more political parties or factions by one of which he was previously sponsored (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999:34).

The last part of the foregoing section has provided an escape route for politicians to cross-carpet since there are always divisions within the political parties. It provided the platform for several legislators and governors who defected to justify on grounds of division or crisis within their political parties since the 1999 constitution is not definitive of crisis or division that could cause defection. In 1999, three Alliance for Democracy AD) Senators, Wahab Dosunmu, Yemi Brimoh and Fidelis Okoro who defected to the People's Democratic Party (PDP), exploited the constitutional provision which grants an elected member of parliament the right to defect if there is a division in his party.

Again, the fluidity in formations, mergers and demergers including the orchestrations of internal party crisis, according to Nwanegbo et al (2014), has made that section difficult in application as the boundaries between mergers and demergers in Nigeria party politics appear too thin, thereby creating justification for parliamentary defections.

2.3 Democracy

Democracy on the other hand, though accepted as an appropriate form of governance, is one concept that lacks a universally accepted definition. Nnoli, (2003), defines democracy as a system of government usually involving freedom of individuals in various aspects of political life, equality among citizens and justice in the relations between the people and the government and the participation of the people in choosing those in government. According to Schumpeter (1990), democracy is an institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of a competitive struggle for the people's vote.

Dudley (1982), has defined democracy as a limited government which involves the process of electing leaders who will form a government of the people with the view to representing the interest of the generality of members of the society. It is aimed at realizing "the organization of people, by the people themselves, to attain the collectively self-denied, and ever improving, higher levels of civilization" (Asobie, 2007: 86). He also viewed democracy as a system of government where the people wield the governing power either directly or indirectly through representatives elected by the people from time to time. This view suggests that a state may be classified as democratic if it provides institutions for channeling the supremacy of the popular will through representatives. It is concerned with the generality of the people rather than the elite or few on basic questions of social direction and policy formulation.

Democracy does not function in isolation; it is about the people. And its success is dependent on the extent it has empowered people to surmount their basic needs and enjoy unrestrained participation in the policy process (Unah, 1993). In fact, what gives democracy meaning and substance, according to Nwanegbo et al (2015), is participation and authority of the people to determine who rules. The extent of involvement encompasses the power to decide who rules, what policy to support and decision which would benefit the greatest number of people.

2.4 Democratic Consolidation

Democratic consolidation is not just about how democratic structures, institutions and procedures are established. It is, as well, and more importantly, about how these democratic values and processes get embedded in the psyche of individuals and groups in society. This is so because, in the long run, whether or not democracy gets consolidated is reducible to the kind of attitude or behavior the political elite project and nurture (Schedler, 2001).

As a concept, democratic consolidation is essentially about regime maintenance, preventing its potential breakdown (Jega et.al, 2002)). Insight from these and other works all tend to associate the phenomenon with regime legitimation and absence of attitudinal and behavioral challenges capable of ruining the life of democratic regime. It is about regarding the "key political institutions as the only legitimate framework for political contestation, and adherence to the democratic rules of the game" (King and Benjamin, 1996).

From the above, it then becomes clear that the bottlenecks to continuous democratization are varied and will be discussed in the later part of this paper.

3. Theoretical Framework

This paper adopts the Elite Theory in analyzing the interplay of party politics and defections. Elite Theory as developed by Vilfredo Pareto, Roberto Michels, Gaetano Mosca and Jose Gassast, hinges on the fact that every society is composed of two classes of people (Varma 1975). The two classes of people are made of the minority group who rule and the majority who are ruled. More specifically, Roberto Michel's iron law of oligarchy dwells on element of organization, which exists in every kind of human society that strives for the attainment of a definite end (Varma 1975). In fact, Michels concluded that as a movement or party grows in size, more and more functions are to be delegated to an inner circle of leaders (elites), and in course of time, the members of the organization are rendered less competent to direct and control them.

The above postulations mirror clearly the state of the Nigerian political system. Arguably, the Nigerian elites appeared to have succeeded in rendering the majority incapable of controlling them through their perfected process of managing electoral frauds and heinous manipulation of state institutions. This is manifest in the total delusion of the basic electoral principles syntomic of the market democracy. Instead of opening up the democratic space genuinely for people to participate, they create the kind of politics which places in the hands of the minority elite the ultimate control of the political system, including institutions, political parties, electoral institutions and agencies, security agencies, judiciary etc. This, Ibeanu (2007), refers to as 'machine politics'. Control of these institutions by the members of the ruling class creates a lot of fierce contests, and crisis in the political system. Associated with machine politics is the control of the state economy by this minority group (elites) and indulgence in the act of buying support when corrupt mobilization becomes difficult. Fundamentally, such movements are prompted by feelings of dissatisfaction and discontent with former parties from where he/she decamps without the defection reflecting the ideological leaning.

4. Overview of Party Defections in Benue State Since 1999

Since Nigeria's return to democracy in 1999, the gale of defections in Benue state by political leaders has been on the increase. The 1999 elections brought Dr. George Akume to seat as governor of the state under the PDP with Prof. Daniel Saror, Joseph Waku and David Mark as Senators of the three Senatorial districts, all on the PDP platform. In the elections that followed thereafter, especially in 2007, political leaders who lost elections began to defect to other parties. For instance, Senator Daniel Saror who had served two terms as Senator, defected from PDP to UNPP and then to ANPP in order to run for governorship since he did not stand a chance of winning the ticket for the PDP in the primary elections. Gabriel Suswam, a protégé of George Akume became governor under the PDP. Dr. George Akumeon the other hand, won the Senatorial seat for Benue North West, also under the PDP, with Colonel Joseph Akaagerger (Rtd.) for Benue North East Senatorial district and David Mark was reelected for Benue South Senatorial district (Adom, 2017). By 2011, however, Senator Akume lost grounds in the PDP to contest for a second term in the senate. He therefore, defected to the ACN and later to the APC by 2015. Below is a catalogue of major political defections in Benue state since the 1999 General Elections.

Figure 1: Major Political Defections in Benue state since 1999 General Elections

Name of Political leader	Initial Party	Party Defected to	Present Party affiliation
George Akume (Former governor and Senator)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN)	All Progressive Congress (APC)
Barnabas Gemade(Former National Chairman of PDP and Senator)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC) and back to PDP	Social Democratic Party (SDP) after 8weeks of going back to PDP
Daniel Saror (Former Senator)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	United National People's Party (UNPP), then to All Nigerian Peoples Party (ANPP)	People's Redemption Party
Mike Mku (Gubernatorial aspirant since 1999)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	United National People's Party (UNPP)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)
Joseph Akaagerger (Former Senator)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Social Democratic Party (SDP)
OrkerJev(serving Senator)	Peoples Democratic Party	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Back to Peoples Democratic Party

	(PDP)		(PDP)
Samuel Ortom (Governor, Benue state)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Back to Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)
Emmanuel Udende (former member, House of Reps)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC)	All Progressive Grand Alliance (APGA)
Hassan Saleh (Member, house of Reps)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Back to Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)
Mark Gbillah (Member, House of Reps	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)
Dickson Tarkirgh (Former Member, House of Reps)	Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)	All Progressive Congress (APC)	Back to Peoples Democratic Party (PDP)

Source: *Author's compilation fromAdom, T. (2017) and www.dailytrust.com.ng*

5. Factors accountable for Party Defections in Nigeria

A very significant factor accounting for defection and cross-carpeting is the idea of political ideology. An ideology according to Van Dijik (2006), is the foundation of the social representations shared by a social group. As Omotola (2009) noted, ideology functions as a means of self-identification, as an instrument of conflict management, as a prescriptive formula and as a mobilizational and unifying force. The import of the above definition is to the extent that since ideology is a shared belief, it has the potency of binding people together regardless of their background. Nwanegbo et al (2014), opine that ideology engenders peace and reduces internal bickering thereby, promoting decorum, growth and development which extends to the larger polity.

Political parties in Nigeria however, are generally seen to lack party ideology which is a major cause of the increasing wave of defection and cross-carpeting. According to Olarenwaju (2019), Nigerian political parties seem to be suffering from ideological bareness unlike what is obtainable in advanced democracies. Similarly, Hatamleh (2018) opines that, political parties in Nigeria and in other parts of the African continent tend to lack ideologies and explicit messages that separate them from each other. Because of the country's ethnic, religious and geographic divide, political parties are driven by personalities as opposed to ideologies. In the United States for instance, according to Hatamleh, political parties are defined by their platforms, manifestoes as they are called in Nigeria. So that if, a Republican candidate comes knocking at your door, you have a sense of where he or she stands on the current critical issues. That is however, not the case in Nigeria. The lack of party ideology is manifested in the level and method of accepting membership without critical considerations, no priority for the needs of the citizens and people desperate to achieve political objectives rather than pursue and achieve ideology. In Olarenwaju's view (2019), unless leaders of political parties form and maintain political ideologies on their stand, cross-carpeting from one party to another will continue to be on the increase.

Closely related to the issue of ideology is lack of internal democracy of political parties. This has brought about the critical challenge of improving the governance mechanism of political parties in Nigeria and making a functional instrument for the development of country's nascent democracy. According to Mbah (2011), the basis of political parties and their activities as aspect of the guiding principle of political party organizational structure, democratic system and internal party democracy signifies the active participation of all-party members to contest any position both within the party and for public offices. Since 1999, when the 4th Republic was inaugurated, political parties have faced the problem of non-democratic practices. The expectation generally is that since the country has embraced democracy, its political parties must be democratic not only externally, in their goals but also democratic internally, in their organizational practices and behaviour.

As Mbah (2011:15) further argues that, "lack of internal democracy in Nigerian political parties has become a persistent threat to the country's nascent democracy. Party primaries throughout the country clearly show that Nigerian political parties are not operating within norms of democratic principles." This goes to say therefore that, virtually all political parties in Nigeria seem to have one internal crisis or the other including, lack of transparency, irregularities in primaries and imposition of candidates, impunity of leaders among others. Sometimes, these crisis snowball into full conflict leading to division, fractionalization and sometimes even murder of some members (Nwanegbo et'al, 2014).These internal party crises have also been responsible for the gale of defections. For instance, the defection of five (6) state governors (from Adamawa, Benue, Kano, Kwara, Rivers and Sokoto states) eleven (11) Senators, including Senator Barnabas Gemade of Benue state and thirty-seven (37) members of House of Representatives from the

PDP to APC in 2013, (www.punchng.com) was majorly as a result of the crisis within the PDP which went as far as fractionalizing the party.

Another factor that is accountable for party defection in Nigeria is political interest of politicians. Olarenwaju (2019), argues that defections in Nigerian politics are merely for selfish interests, not for common good. Otherwise, how do we explain the fact that these same politicians who were in the ruling PDP before the 2015 elections and merely decamped to APC at the last minute, seeing that APC will enable them win elections? This also explains why defections peak just at the period of elections. For instance, towards the 2019 general elections, there was another gale of defections owing primarily to the expectations of politicians that the PDP was going to return to power at the center. In a bid to win elections again in 2019, most of the same politicians who had defected from PDP to APC in 2013, defected again from APC back to PDP. There were 3 governors, 14 senators and 37 members of House of Representatives defected from APC back to PDP (punchng.com).

In 2014, when the present governor of Benue State, Dr. Samuel Ortom lost primaries under the PDP, he defected to APC and got the ticket to run on the platform of APC. He won the 2015 governorship elections in Benue State. Close to the period of primaries in 2018, Dr. Ortom defected again back to the PDP because he had a strong contender in the APC who had the support of the party. Olarenwaju (2019) argues that, as long as such defection is for self, it has no usefulness to Nigeria in the long run.

Another reason for party defections in Nigeria is to sustain the elite fight or struggle for the resources of the state. One of the key characteristics of elitism is to have control of the political and economic power of the state. This struggle does not recognize the interests of others in society, it is only the interest of the elite that is important. This is why they do not see any shame in defecting from a party they joined less than three years ago, as long as they achieve their goals. This desperation by political elite to win elections in order to control the resources of the state, is what Udeuhele (2015), refers to as political prostitution. Unfortunately, this elite fight is never for social interest, rather, it is for personal actualization.

6. Implications of party defections on Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria

Taking political development to be akin to democratic sustainability or consolidation is apparently helpful for measurability. In that wise it is defined Wikipedia (2009) as “the process by which a new democracy matures in a way that means it is unlikely to revert to authoritarianism without an external shock”. Linz and Stepan (1996:20) opine that “democracies can be considered consolidated when democracy becomes institutionalized behaviourally, attitudinally and constitutionally”. Behaviourally, a democracy is consolidated when no significant national, social, economic, political or institutional actors spend significant resources attempting to achieve their objectives by creating a non-democratic regime or by seceding from the state. Attitudinally, a democracy is consolidated when a strong majority of public opinion, even in the midst of major economic problems and deep dissatisfaction with the incumbent, holds the belief that democratic procedures and institutions are the most appropriate way to govern collective life, and when support for anti-system alternatives is quite small or isolated from pro-democratic forces. Constitutionally, a democracy is consolidated when governmental and non-governmental forces alike become subject to, and habituated to the resolution of conflict within the bounds of the specific laws, and produces institutions sanctioned by the new democratic process. The above factors are synonymous to political development.

One of the greatest elements of democratic consolidation is free, fair and credible elections for transition from one administration to another. The above seems to be absent in Nigeria. This is because it has not internalized democratic ideals and does not exhibit them behaviourally and constitutionally. The nature and the character of the neo-colonial state exhibit inhibitive characteristics that do not allow competitive elections to ensure liberty, responsiveness and rule of law. Political nomadism therefore, has negative impact in the process of consolidating democracy under unwarranted situations of myriad defections among legislators, governors, deputy governors, and other party members to the ruling party. This trend tends to make caricature of our politics and particularly nascent democracy and belittles the spirit of opposition parties and democratic consolidation in Nigeria. This is because there is a great movement of members of the opposition to the ruling party. The case of Bauchi state becomes illustrative at this juncture. Isa Yaguda who as the current governor of Bauchi state was elected in 2007 under the platform of the ANPP, but he defected to the PDP with a large number of his supporters including the members of the State House of Assembly. But in a dramatic twist, his deputy governor, Garba Gadi who adamantly refused to go the way of his governor by joining the PDP was impeached by the members of the State House of Assembly. Due to the unlawful impeachment, he went to court to contest his removal. The court eventually ruled in his favour, and he was reinstated as the deputy governor. The governor was a PDP member and his deputy an ANPP member. What a divided House? It is morally wrong for an aspirant to use one political platform to ascend power only to dump that platform at the least opportunity for another party.

Political defection could also lead to outright political instability if not checked. This is because in countries such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Malawi and Zambia, political party defection is regarded as sufficient threat to the stability of the political systems. Hoeane (2008:71) concurs to the above when he argues that "in extreme cases of floor-crossing, where the number of public representatives who have defected has been significantly high, such shifts of allegiance have led to the collapse of democratically elected governments, such as in Lesotho in 1997". Political harlotry or party defections of political office holders who do not resign the first platform for coming to political position do not add value to the process of democratic consolidation. In fact, these defections have hindered the evolution of virile political parties, both at the ruling level and the opposition which should serve as a check for the ruling party. This has also affected the institutionalization of democracy where elections are not free, fair and credible.

It must be acknowledged that existing literature and this paper has not considered the importance of interrogating the strengths and benefits of party defections to the growth and sustainability of democracy. However, we must acknowledge that though defections may not be based on ideological dissatisfaction but personal interests of the political elite, they may engender the quest for justice and fair play in the practice of democracy which will ultimately promote consolidation. This gap therefore calls for further research to focus on the merits of political harlotry in the practice of democracy in Nigeria.

Methodology:

This study is qualitative and exploratory, and it used textual analysis. Historical documented method of data collection with materials sourced from historical artifacts, journals, books and other public documents related to political history and development of political parties in Nigeria were used extensively while primary data derived from key informant interviews were also employed.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper makes bold reiterate that were the parties to be ideologically driven and the political class to be ideologically focused, the political process would have been better strengthened than it is presently, and our democratic governance would have been better for it, with ample evidence of democratic dividends for the people. Indeed, we are compelled, in this situation of lack of ideological focus of the political class, to call on the political parties to define their mission and vision, and to publicly present their ideology and manifestoes. This will to a large extent mitigate the unwholesome decamping, which, no doubt, is not helping our democracy. Based on the above, this paper also concludes that finding solution to the unending and persistent defection among party members would require adhering to the constitutional laws backing defection, the appropriate time for defection, and also preventing defectors from taking the office along with them when they defect to another party. Elected representatives should loose their seats if they defect outside the procedure provided for in the electoral act.

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A Normative Theoretical Discourse of Elite Self-Recruitment in Nigeria, 1960-2019

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Abstract. Since 1960, political succession, in Nigeria, has been grossly influenced by the manipulations and anti-democratic tendencies of the political elites. The elites, in their attempts to sustain their ruling hegemony, intentionally create room for their access to, and influence on, the allocation of the state's resources, thereby undermining the significance of the principle of periodic elections. The elites have often achieved this goal by fraudulently recruiting persons with whom they share consanguinity into positions of authority. Elite self-recruitment is one of the major impediments to the development of democracy in Nigeria, especially, given its supportive influence on rising incidents of corruption, mediocrity, stupendous wastage of scarce resources, bastardisation of the judiciary arm, leadership recycling, and political dominance of the oligarchic class. Consequently, the study seeks to explain the nature of the intrigues and strategies behind elite self-recruitment and its consequences for democratic consolidation and sustainable development in Nigeria. To achieve its objectives, the study interrogated relevant scholarly works and notable Nigerian newspaper publications. The finding shows that elite self-recruitment is, indeed, a strategy of corruption by the political elite in Nigeria to steal and loot the state's resources through the perpetual preservation of positions of state power and influence for themselves; that the practice has been a bane of the achievement of good governance and public good in the country. The study, therefore, concludes that there is need to demystify elite self-recruitment by addressing the challenges of representative democracy in a manner that the corrupt monopoly and domineering influence of the ruling political elite can be eradicated or reduced to the barest minimum, at least. This will, in turn, enhance an unhindered populist participation and positive chances of average citizens to ascend to leadership and political positions in Nigeria.

Keywords: Democracy, Democratic Consolidation, Election, Elite Self-Recruitment, Leadership Recycling.

1. Introduction

The Nigerian society, just like most other polities in Africa, has witnessed two major and directly opposite systems of government namely the authoritarian military dictatorship and democracy. While the former has been widely condemned, by scholars, in favour of the latter as "…the most acceptable system of government in our contemporary world" (Oche, 2004: 141), representative democracy in Nigeria, with respect to the process of electing leadership, has hitherto been enmeshed in selfishness and corruption through the overbearing manipulation of the political elite (Inokoba and Kumoko, 2011). Succinctly put, Seteolu (2005: 118) notes that "…the political terrain is filled with coalitions of accumulated resources being sought after by the political elite in an attempt to retain or expand followership in the context of power politics". Furthermore, Ekundayo (2017: 5) contends that "…the struggle characterising leadership succession processes in the Nigerian political space are purposely to gain access to wealth and political power hence, leadership recruitment and power ascendancy process is a state of emergency and perpetually, a warfare."

The seemingly wide acceptance of democracy and prejudice against military rule would have ideally suggest that the ills of the former would not be found with the latter. Unfortunately, since the migration to democratic rule in Nigeria, in 1999, the legacy of elite leadership recycling has been actively sustained through elite self-recruitment. This practice of imposing the election of relatives of the ruling elites on the society, at the expense of qualified, competent, and people-oriented candidates, to occupy elective positions, has been extremely critical to Nigeria's quest for democratic consolidation and development. In an attempt to resolve the teeming problems of governance and national development, many scholars and writers, including Ekundayo (2017), Herbert and Wilkinson (2007), and Ayoade (2006), have carried out series of investigations and have commented accordingly on the reasons for, as well as the processes, effects, and challenges of elite leadership recycling through self-recruitment in Nigeria. While many of the studies have examined electoral avenue as the central process of recruiting relatives of the political elite, there is dearth of literature on the use of intra-party screening mechanism, self-styled hegemony, and judiciary/political elite conspiracy process (the use of fictitious court litigations) in the recruitment of political godsons/daughters and relatives. This often neglected aspect is, therefore, the focus of this paper, with the objective to explain the nature of the intrigues and strategies behind elite leadership recycling achieved through self-recruitment and its consequences for democratic consolidation and sustainable development in Nigeria.

1.1 Research Methodology

The study adopted qualitative design, which made use of secondary data/information contained in relevant scholarly works and notable Nigerian newspaper publications. The mode of analysis involved a sort of analysis of the contents of these sources in order to explain their implications for this study.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

This paper adopts the Elite theory for explaining the nature of politics underpinning elite self-recruitment, its connection with leadership recycling, and its process of perpetuation in the Nigeria. According to Higley, 2010; Ogundiwin, 2015; Ekundayo, 2017, the etymology of elite theory is connected with the writings of scholars like Vilfredo Pareto (1848-1923), Gaetano Mosca (1858-1941), Robert Michels (1876-1936), James Burnham (1905-1987), Max Weber (1864-1920), Floyd Hunter (1912-1992), and Wright Mills (1916-1962). The assumptions of the theory are that: It is inevitable that the political affairs of a polity are best handled by a small subset of its members; the small subset consists of a minority, which determines major decisions that affect the society; the decisions made usually reflect the interests of the elite more than those of the majority; the elite owes its power to its internal organization through which they form a united and cohesive minority in the face of an unorganized and fragmented masses; since people are unequally endowed, the elite usually possess psychological and intellectual superiority which differentiate them from all other people; the composition of the elitist group undergoes changes with time, either through recruitment from lower strata or by a complete replacement by an evolving rival elite group through revolution; the society usually needs the elites to operate effectively (Maloy, 2018; Ekundayo, 2017; Higley, 2010).

Criticisms of elite theory include that: It is an anti-democracy theory which has the tendency to undermine development in the society; its anti-democratic stance makes the theory jettison the ideas of free and fair election, majority rule, accountability, and transformation; it majorly relies on self-appointment of political elite for perpetuation and maintenance of political power. Elite theory has also been accused of lending support to elite self-perpetuation and leadership re-cycling, which promote corruption and stealing of public wealth. It is believed that the theory supports selfish use of power and socio-political disequilibrium between the elite and the governed majority. This is very evident in Lagos State, Nigeria where only the Tinubu political dynasty has been in saddle since 1999. Lastly, elite theory has been criticised as more normative than empirical in content and intent; that it does not easily lend itself to empiricism and the science of politics (Priya, 2018; Ekundayo, 2017).

2. Conceptual Clarification

2.1 Democracy

Democracy is a familiar term in the social sciences, even though it suffers a universally accepted definition. It was coined from a Greek root word – demokratia – which literally means "rule of the people" (Noah, 2006). The popular view of democracy is the position of Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865), the 16th president of the United States of America, which states that democracy is 'government of the people, by the people, and for the people'. Thus, by this implication, democracy is, basically, the rule of the majority. Following these pioneering definitions, other scholars have defined democracy from more expansive and explicit, but related, perceptions incorporating some of the silent elements of the original views. For instance, Kolawole (1997: 8) defines democracy as "…a political system that allows the majority to choose their leaders and to decide when to change them". In order words, democracy is a system of government in which the majority of the citizens, through periodic elections, chooses representatives of the people, to govern the society. Harvey and Harvey (1989) further expanded the perception of democracy by stating that it is the process of running the affairs of the state in accordance with known rules of government, toleration of minority views, regular elections, freedom of speech, and the rule of law.

Contrary to popular perspective of the contemporary times, Kolawole (2004) believes that democracy can exist with both civilian and military rules. Kolawole argues that rather than being regime specific, democracy implies a situation where the ruling elites and institutions of state promote democratic values, norms and ethos in the process of their governance of the state. Thus, the effects of democracy must permeate all the strata of society and its governance. Furthermore, Franceschet (2009) defines democracy according to three basic experiences consisting of non-violence, political participation and control, and political equality. Diamond, Linz and Lipset (1990) preferred the phrase 'essential democracy', that is, a system of government that enhances popular participation and fundamental human rights. They suggested that democracy is a type of government that must involve meaningful and extensive competition between and among individual and groups like political parties, for positions of government power, at regular intervals, without the use of force or violence. Therefore, it must involve high level of inclusiveness in terms of selection of leaders and policy-making, and must involve regular and fair election. By default, it must also involve high levels of civil and political liberties and freedoms.

2.2 Democratic Consolidation

'Democratic consolidation' was originally coined to describe the process of making new democracies secure by extending their duration; the process of making new democracies immune to the threat of authoritarian regression. As in the case of democracy, scholars have expanded the implication of this coinage, with time, to include other sub-concepts/coinages as popular legitimation, diffusion of democratic values, neutralization of anti-system actors, civilian supremacy over the military, elimination of authoritarian enclaves, party building, organization of functional interests, stabilization of electoral rules, routinization of politics, decentralization of state power, introduction of mechanisms of direct democracy, judicial reform, poverty alleviation, and economic stabilization (Schedler, 1998). The following examples confirm the foregoing claim.

According to Iboi (2017), democratic consolidation begins to exist when all the leaders and the citizens of a country consider democracy to be the best system of government. Therefore, it is the deliberate political process of broadly legitimizing a polity with popular rule rather than any other realistic alternative like military rule, which could bring about breakdown of collective rule; it is the process of total reduction in the possibility of breakdown to the point that democracy will persist in a polity. Democratic consolidation is a component of transition from authoritarian rule to civil rule, which incorporates democratic systems for establishing and sustaining a stable, institutional, and enduring democracy (Iboi, 2017; Diamond, 1999). From the foregoing, then, the process of consolidating democracy requires nurturing of democratic values and ethos, as well as the related institutions, which can help prevent a reversal to authoritarian regime.

2.3 Election

Election is a popular term used to describe the process of choosing representatives of the people who are to serve in government for specific term in office. It is a basic requirement for the success of any democracy. It is also instrumental to the occurrence of the expected change in the administration of a polity.

2.4 The Concepts of Elite and Elitism

According to Meriam Webster Dictionary, the term 'elite' refers to 'the best of a class', 'the socially superior', 'a group of persons who by virtue of position or education exercise much power or influence'. Since, dictionary meanings are not usually adequate for such discourses as this, the following other definitions have been brought to bear. The International Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences describes 'elite' as 'a group of persons possessing certain fundamental features of life'. Therefore, its related words were 'choice' in the 14^{th} century and 'best of the best' in the 15^{th} century usages. Therefore, it was used make reference to standard of excellence and social superiority. Mahajan (2005) submits that the word 'elite' was derived from the Latin word eligere, which means to choose or pick. Its earliest use was in military administration, where the term implied a set of choice persons, whose selection is based on some special considerations and achievements, especially as regards career-related success. The usage of the diction gradually shifted from specific reference to Plato's and Aristotle's nobles of the Ancient world to the superior groups of the Medieval era, to people who possess uncommon qualities or have made distinctive achievements, beginning from the 19th century. Accordingly, Pareto (1935) conceives 'elite' in two ways: Individuals who are superior in any aspect of human endeavour (including intellectual, martial, musical, and political endeavours) and the minority who often occupy the top positions in the hierarchy of wealth and power as a result of their outstanding qualities. According to Lopez (2013), such elites have always ruled in all societies of the world, including modern democracies.

Elitism is a derivative of elite. According to Deresiewicz (2008), it is the belief or attitude that the elite, that is, a choice group of people who possess intrinsic quality, high intellect, wealth, special skills, or experience, are more likely to be constructive to society and should, therefore, exercise greater authority than other people in the society. The concept also implies a situation in which power is concentrated in the hands of a choice minority.

2.5 Elite Self-recruitment and Leadership Recycling

Elite self-recruitment is a system of actions through which individuals or groups gain political power. It is the metamorphosis of ordinary individuals and groups into politically influential entities. This process of self-transformation is termed as political elite recruitment. It becomes self-recruitment when the transformation is achieved through self-help. This process is well rooted in human history as well as in the history of all hitherto existing societies. It is found in all societies of the world (Oche, 2004). On the other hand, leadership recycling means the condition in which particular elite (persons or group) resume direct or indirect control of a polity, within certain spheres of influence in the society's governance, after its tenure had elapsed. Once achieved, elite self-recruitment can aid leadership recycling through the same self-help strategy that transformed the individual elite or groups. Accordingly, Mosca (1939) cited in Adefisoye and Oluwaleye (2018:23) asserts that elite leadership recycling is achieved through "…material, intellectual, or even moral superiority", which they possess. The elite out-organize and outwit the large majority of the society through these sometimes natural and mostly acquired endowments. These factors engender the perpetuation and preservation of elite self-recruitment and leadership recycling in the political space of every polity.

2.6 Political Elite Formation, Self-recruitment, and Leadership Recycling in Nigeria

Since Nigeria's political independence in 1960, the country has experienced many regime alternations, which were mostly authoritarian military rules until 1999, when Nigeria's Fourth Republic commenced. The domination of rule of law by rule of power within the Nigerian polity only came to a virtually foreseeable end in 1999. But, although democracy has been fairly successful in the country, it is obvious that the seven, consecutive, national elections that have taken place since 1999 have been fraught with fraudulent practices, thereby largely discrediting them.

The foregoing occurrence was deliberately perpetrated by the elites to maintain their political leadership recycling. It is interesting to note that from 1960 till date, it has been virtually the same ruling circles that have been in control of Nigeria at every regime that the country has experienced, as exemplified on Tables 1 and 2. Similarly, Kifordu (2011) had observed that despite the adoption of Weberian legal-rational approach to political elite change in Nigeria, the symptomatic practices such as ethnic manipulation, rent-seeking, patronage and corruption have continued to strengthen the politics of elitism in Nigeria. This has been in such a way that despite the many structural changes in the polity, individual members and groups of the elite have often been drawn from similar and exclusive backgrounds. For instance, Ogunjimi (2020: 9) rightly asserted that:

The leader of South South, Nigeria, Edwin Clark has been in saddle since the first republic between 1960 to 1966. One of his children…is the current Chairman of Burutu Local Government Area of Delta State. His wife…was a former Commissioner for Health in Ogun State. [Also]…Richard Akinjide…served as Nigeria's Ministers of Justice in Nigeria's first and second republics. Akinjie's Daughter, Oloye Jumoke has also served as Minister of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and she is one of the top power brokers in Oyo State at the moment. The Olusola Saraki dynasty has been in control of Kwara State…since 1979. When Olusola Saraki retired, Bukola, the first son of Olusola took over. Bukola served as Governor for eight years, senator for four years and Senate President of Nigeria for four years. Another Saraki, Gbemisola served as a member of the House of Representatives for four years, Senator for eight years, and she is currently a Minister of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The list is endless (emphasis is ours).

Table 1: Some Examples of Elite Self-Recruitment in Nigeria

Elite Recruiter	Relations	Post Held	Analysis	Source
Chief Olusegun Obasanjo	Dr. Iyabo Obasanjo	Commissioner for Health, Ogun State (2003-2007). Senator, Ogun Central (2007 – 2011)	Olusegun Obasanjo was a former Head of State and President of Nigeria. When he held on to power, he ensured that his first daughter, Iyabo, a trained Medical Doctor was appointed Commissioner and his elected Senator in Ogun State where he hails from	The Punch Newspaper
Late Oloye Olusola Saraki.	Bukola Saraki	Governor, Kwara-State (2003-2011 and Senator, Kwara Central 2011-2019).	Olusola Saraki was the late strong man of Kwara State Politics. He was the leader of Senate between 1979-1983. After having a running battle with his protégé, Mohammed Lawal whom he supported to be governor of Kwara- State in 1999, by 2003, he enthrone his first son, Bukola on the platform of PDP to succeed Lawal who was seeking for second term on the platform of ANPP.	The Punch, Nigerian Tribune, Vanguard.
Oloye Olusola Saraki	Gbemisola Saraki	Member, Ilorin West, East and Central, Federal House of Reps (1999-2003). Senator, Kwara Central (2003-2011).	After enthroning his son as Governor, Saraki enthroned his daughter, Gbemisola first as Member of National Assembly. She held on to power for 12 years.	The Nation , the Punch, Nigerian Tribune, This Day.
Oloye Olusola Saraki.	Olaloluwa Saraki	Special Adviser, Budget and Planning to the President (2003 -2007).	The Saraki snr also nominated his Son, Olaoluwa, a fresh graduate as Special Adviser to the President of Nigeria to fill the slot meant for kwara State.	The Punch, Nigerian Tribune.
Senator Bola Ahmed Tinubu	Oluremi Tinubu.	Senator, Lagos Central (2011-date).	Bola Ahmed Tinubu was governor of Lagos State between 1999-2007. He has continued to run the affairs of the state ever since through his godsons and associates. In 2011, Olorunibe Mamora, the Senator representing the state in national assembly was denied ticket to run for third term. He was replaced by Oluremi, the wife of Tinubu who was First Lady of Lagos state for eight years to replace the Mamora.	Nigerian tribune, Vanguard Newspaper, The Nations Newspaper, allafrica.com
Senator Abiola Ajimobi	Bisola Ajimobi	Personal Assistant (2011-2019).	Senator Abiola Ajimobi was Governor of Oyo State from 2011-2019. His daughter, Bisola served as his personal assistant for eight year he ruled the state. for those eight years, decisions taken by Bisola, according to media reports, are the alfa and omega.	Sahara Reporters, Premium Times, The Punch, Leadership.
Atiku Abubakar	Adamu Abubakar	Commissioner for Works and Energy Development (August 2019-date) Adamawa State.	Atiku Abubakar is the former Vice-President of Nigeria. He ran unsuccessfully o be President of Nigeria in 2007 and 2019. He is the current strong man of Adamawa State Politics. His son, Adamu is the current Commissioner for Works and Energy Development in the PDPadministration of Adamu Fintiri.	Daily Post, This Day, The Nation, Premium Times.
Alhaji Atiku Abubakar	Fatima-Atiku Abubakar	Commissioner for Health, Adamawa-State (2015-2019).	Atiku's Daughter, a trained Medical Doctor served the administration of Jubrilla Bindow as health Commissioner from 2015 to 2019. Even when Atiku defected to PDP to run for President, Fatima retained her position in Bindow government.	Premium Times, Sahara Reporters
Senator Ifeanyi Okowa	Marilyn Okowa	Special Assistant, Girl Child (July 2019 till date).	The Governor of Delta State, Ifeanyi Okowa appointed his daughter, Marilyn as Special Assistant on Girl Child to co-ordinate the policy of compulsory primary education in the oil rich state.	The Punch, Information Nigeria, The Nation.

Source: *Adapted from Nigerian national newspapers (2019)*

Table 1: Some Examples of Elite Self-Recruitment in Nigeria cont'd.

Rt. Hon. Femi Gbajabiamila	Fatima Ganduje	Special Assistant, NGO and Civil Society, office of the Speaker, House of Representatives.	Fatimah, the daughter of Kano State Governor, Abdulahi Umar Ganduje is among the list of aides sworn in August 2019 by the Speaker of the Federal House of Representatives, Rt. Hon. Femi Gbajabiamila.	The Cable
Dr. Kayode Fayemi	Mrs Monisola Oloro (Nee Fayemi).	Memeber, Federal Airport Authority (FAAN).	Monisola Oloro is the Elder Sister of Kayode Fayemi, the governor of Ekiti State. Oloro was among those appointed by the Buhari in year 2017 into federal boards	Daily Post
President Muhamad Buhari	Abdukarim Dauda, Sabiu Tunde Yusuf, Dauda Zeze Habu and Musa Haro.	Abdukarim Dauda, Personal Chief Security Officer (PCSO), Aso Villa; Sabiu Tunde Yusuf, Private Secretary, Aso Villa; Dauda Zeze Habiu, Senior Personal Assistant to Chief of Staff, Aso Villa; Musa Haro, Personal Assistant, Domestic Affairs to	Dauda is the Nephew of president Buhari, he co-ordinate the security of the President in Aso Villa; Yusuf is the son of Buhari's biological sister, Hajia Halima; Habu is Buhari's Nephew while Haro is the son of Buhari's younger sister, Hajia Kwalla.	Sahara Reporters.

		President, Aso Villa.		
Barr. Rotimi Akeredolu, SAN.	Dr. Teniola Akeredolu	Member, Ondo State Action for Control of Aids.	Teniola is a biological daughter of Rotimi Akeredolu, the governor of Ondo State.	Nigerian Tribune
Bola Ahmed Tinubu	Oyetunde Ojo	Member, House of Representatives, (2011-2015).	Oyetunde Ojo is married to Folashade, the first daughter of strong man of Lagos politics, Bola Tinubu. He was elected into House of Representatives in to represent Ekiti Central Federal Constituency 2 in 2011 on the platform of the defunct of ACN. Tinubu, his inlaw is the National leader of ACN.	Sahara Reporters
Otunba Adeniyi Adebayo	Oluwasola Adebayo, Angela Adebayo and Morrison Adebayo	Commissioner for Works, Ekiti State, Board Member, Oodua Group of Investemt Representing Ekiti State and Special Adviser, Wealth Creations; Ekiti State.	Otunba Adeniyi Adebayo was the governor of Ekiti State from 1999 to 2003. He is the currently Minister representing Ekiti State in Federal Executive Council. He is the Leader of the ruling APC in Ekiti State. His direct brither, Sola is the current Commissioner for Works in Ekiti State; his wife, Angela is the representative of Ekiti State in Oodua Board of Investment, a company owned by South West Governors while his 27 year old Son, Morrison is a cabinet member in Ekiti State.	The Nation, premium Times and Nigerian Tribune.

Source: *Adapted from Nigerian national newspapers (2019)*

Table 2: Corruption in Elite Self-recruitment

Elite	Relation	Element of corruption	Source
Oloye Olusola Saraki	Bukola Saraki	Bukola Saraki spent eight years as Governor and eight years in National Assembly. He became Senate President in 2015. Eight of his properties including his personal residence in Kwara State have been forfeited to Federal Government by the orders of the court for being proceeds of fraud	The Nation, Premium Times, The Punch.
Chief Olusegun Obasanjo	Dr. Iyabo Obasanjo	In 2009, while serving as Chairman of Senate Committee on Health, Dr. Iyabo Obasanjo, against the provisions of the Law allegedly received a bribe of #53million from the Minister of Health, Prof. Adenike Grange. The bribe, according to Obasanjo, was used to sponsor members of the senate committee on health to a workshop in Republic without appropriations.	The Nation, Sahara Reporters, The Punch.

Source: *Adapted from Nigerian national newspapers (2019)*

The occurrence of this experience in Nigeria under a period of liberal democracy is unfortunate, but not surprising. This is because of the nature of liberal democracy, which makes it gives power to the minority (i.e. the elite) to rule the majority without providing much room for popular participation, especially by its nature of eliminating direct participation of the majority in decision making unlike in ancient Greece (Adefisoye and Oluwaleye, 2018; Larok, 2011). It, therefore, supports elite hegemony, being merely a means to power without being an end for service to the people (Ake, 1996). This explains the basis for the comfortable dominance and perennial control of the political elites, who have continued to manipulate the Nigeria political process for their selfish gains and benefits, not minding the consequences.

3. Involvement of Political Parties in Elite Formation, Self-recruitment, and Leadership Recycling

According to Olasunkanmi (2010), the ills of elite formation, self-recruitment, and leadership recycling in Nigeria occur because of negligence of intra-party competition, overarching influence of godfatherism, and assorted elite manipulations. Whereas election is supposed to be the anchor of democracy, political parties have hardly encouraged the occurrence of free and fair elections in the country. The elites, in attempts to ensure self-recruitment and constant recycling of themselves in power, rather promote corruption, manipulations and mediocrity in place of fairness, meritocracy, and transparency (Hassan and Musa, 2014). Rather than allow candidates with credible credential and capacity to emerge from party congresses or primaries, the political elites resort to ploys such as monetization, violence and threats; such that it is only their imposed and preferred candidates, most of whom are their bloodlines, that would emerge from their political parties. Osumah (2010) notes that this intra-party occurrence, which often involves monetized and imposed political recruitment, takes place in virtually all the various states in Nigeria, even though it has been more prevalent in some states like Adamawa, Anambra, Benue, Borno, Edo, Enugu, Lagos, Kaduna, Kwara, Osun, Oyo and Rivers States. Thus, scholars like Ekundayo (2017) and Osumah (2010) have blamed the prevalence of violence, thuggery and election rigging on failed leadership recruitment pattern of the political parties in Nigeria. The elites often lure the political party administrations, with their evident capabilities, to continuously patronize them and subscribe to their biddings in the parties' recruitment process, which hardly allow for the selection of the best candidates for the parties. This is a major reason the political parties have often had to resort to struggling through dubious and fraudulent means of winning elections.

4. Implications of Elite Self-Recruitment and Leadership Recycling for Democratic Consolidation in Nigeria

While the political elite resort to all manner of fraudulent acts including political assassination of opponents, ballot box snatching and vote-buying during elections, and declaration of false elections results in the post-election period, in order to ensure that their imposed candidates emerge as the winners in elections (Inokoba & Kumokor, 2011), a major consequence of their manoeuvres is the creation of unpopular and anti-masses democracy, which only further empowers the ruling elites. Moreover, this practice discourages competitive political competition between the governing minority and the governed majority. In all, these paradoxes and contradictions have often constituted significant impediments to the effective operationalization and maximization of the gains and advantages of liberal democracy in Nigeria. The recycling of corrupt and undemocratic class of leaders, through elite self-recruitment, has not allowed the country to experience full democratic development and consolidation in Nigeria (Ogunjimi, 2020). Obviously, elite manipulations for self-recruitment and recycling of their leadership have been majorly responsible for the institutionalisation of corruption in Nigeria, especially in the Fourth Republic. In fact, corrupt practices like the continuous use of public funds for the settlement of political godfathers, party leaders and officials have often limited the achievement of development projects in the country (Ekundayo, 2017; Osumah, 2010).

5. Findings

Following from the above analysis, this study reveals that the Nigerian democracy is inescapably entrapped in the throes of elitism and that it cannot be separated or protected from the corrupt and selfish tendencies of Nigeria's political elite. Secondly, the classic leadership recruitment strategy adopted by the political elite in Nigeria, where non-related godsons are recruited and imposed on political parties and the masses to eventually perpetuate the influences of the godfathers in politics, for wealth accumulation purposes, is fast losing its traction. This is evident in the cases of most godfather-godson conflicts, where godsons have revolted against the demands and overbearing influence of their godfathers. This is exemplified in the crises that rocked the relationships of Chief Chris Uba and Governor Chris Ngige of Anambra State (2004-2005), Lamidi Adedibu and Governor Rashidi Adewolu Ladoja of Oyo State (2005), Chief Bola Ahmed Tinubu and Governor Akinwumi Ambode of Lagos State (2019), Comrade Adams Oshiomole and Governor Godwin Obaseki of Edo State (2019-2020).

Consequently, Nigeria's political elite have now resorted to recruiting their biological relatives such as sons, daughters, wives and members of nuclear and extended families into influential and political positions to perpetuate their power and influence as found in the case of Atiku Abubakar and his daughter, who was a Commissioner in Adamawa State from 2015 to 2019; his son, Adamu, who became the Commissioner for Works and Energy Development in Adamawa State (2019 till date); Chief Bola Ahmed Tinubu and his wife, Senator Remi Tinubu, who became a Senator in Lagos State (2011 till date); Sola Saraki and his son, Senator Bukola Saraki, who became Senate President in 2015; President Olusegun Obasanjo and his daughter, Senator Iyabo Obasanjo, in Ogun State, who became the Commissioner of Health (2003-2007); and Governor Ifeanyi Okowa who appointed his daughter as the Special Assistant to the Governor on Girl Child issues in Delta State (2019 till date). Ironically, this manipulative and corrupt attempt to covet political positions through imposition of biologically related surrogates has seriously impacted negatively on the nation's political culture, leadership system and democratic consolidation process.

The political parties have been the main channels through which the political elites have often brought their anti-democratic strategies of self-recruitment and leadership recycling to bear on the Nigerian society. It is through the administration of the parties that the political elites also initiate their fictitious court litigation, which eventually become successfully executed by corrupt and greedy judges. The political parties also serve to promote the adoption of divisive/double standard primary election type, which aids the godfathers to collude with the National Working Committee of the parties, to favor their prospective relations and friends. This is exemplified in Lagos State, where Tinubu ousted Ambode through the adoption of direct primary election to enthrone his godson, Babajide Sanwo-Olu. Similarly, Oshiomole conspired with the NWC to adopt direct primary election to give his godson, Pastor Ize Iyamu, the APC governorship ticket.

Finally, elite self-recruitment is, indeed, a strategy of corruption by the political elite in Nigeria to steal and loot the state's resources through the perpetual preservation of positions of state power and influence for themselves. The practice has been a bane of the achievement of good governance and public good in the country. Corruption became such a viable tool for achieving dubious self-recruitment and leadership recycling of the elites because of some other factors as poverty, hunger, unemployment, and prevalence of ethical misdemeanours. These intervening variables made it possible for the masses to easily yield to the temptations of being available for being bought or sold for stipends, which many of them think could help reduce the adversities they face daily. This has severely hampered consolidation of democracy and endangered sustainable development, which are the hallmarks of democratic governance.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Leadership recycling, through dubious self-recruitment of the political elites, needs to be urgently addressed as a major bane to democratic development and consolidation in Nigeria. Demystifying elite self-recruitment and leadership recycling will address many, if not most, of the challenges of representative democracy in Nigeria, especially by reducing electoral and other related forms of corruption in the country. When this is achieved, there will be an experience of less unhindered populist participation and positive chances of average citizens to ascend to leadership and political positions in Nigeria's political life. Thus, it is hoped that the implementation of the following recommendations will guarantee a Nigerian society that is free from the chains and negative consequences of elite self-recruitment, which has accounted for the tragedies of development and exploitative monopoly of power in the hands of biologically related elites in Nigeria.

First, to successfully limit leadership recycling of the political elites, which they perpetrate through self-recruitment, and to curb its limitations to democratic development and consolidation, the national constitution should be reviewed to abolish bio-political elite recruitment. This can be achieved by inserting a clause that forbids elected public officials from appointing their relations, friends, and allies into political positions. Secondly, Nigeria's Electoral Act should also be amended to incorporate new electoral laws that place premium on competitive democracy, which excludes the direct influence of the elite in the selection of candidate for election within and outside the political parties. This can address the rate at which the elite use the intra-party mechanism to edge out perceived threat to their firm grip on national political power of the Nigerian society. Third, the national government should compel the political parties, as a matter of urgency, to initiate reforms that could strengthen intra-party democracy within them in order to reduce corruption fostered by the elites. Fourth, the National Orientation Agency (NOA) should live up to its responsibility by setting up task force teams for mass re-orientation of the electorate against elite self-recruitment in Nigeria. This could be done by letting the masses know their rights, the resources available to their leaders and why they should hold their political elites accountable, rather than yield to their schemes. Finally, the civil society organizations should also intensify efforts in organizing workshops, conferences, and seminars aimed at sensitizing the electorate on the imperative of voters' rights, powers, ascendancy, and participation for democratic consolidation and growth in Nigeria.

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Analysis of the Impact of Entrepreneurship Education and Women Entrepreneurs in Family Businesses

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Abstract. Family businesses are one of the dominant entrepreneurial forces in today's global economy. Transfer ownership, intergenerational succession, leadership/ownership, has received great attention from academics and policymakers on family businesses but little research has been done to analyse the importance of entrepreneurial capabilities on their sustainability with reference to informal sector women. This research therefore explores the impact of entrepreneurial capabilities on informal sector women entrepreneurs in family businesses with a study locus in Plateau State. Using a baseline survey, structured questionnaire schedule was administered to obtain data from 300 women in the various informal sectors in Jos Metropolis. Data from the questionnaire was analysed using Pearson correlation analysis in establishing whether there are any verifiable relationships between women entrepreneurs in the informal sector that are educated or not or have entrepreneurial capabilities, namely, financial management, opportunity seeking, managerial skills, networking and innovative tendencies and family businesses growth and sustainability. The research yielded a mixed result; a positive and significant relationship between educated women and financial management, managerial skills and innovation tendencies existed but not networking and opportunity seeking. It also shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between non-educated women and managerial skills and innovation tendencies but not financial management, opportunity seeking and networking. Therefore, whether they are educated or not does not translate into higher business performance. The following recommendations were made; Government should create more entrepreneurial centres that will inculcate women and not focus on youth alone, women should draw strength by operating jointly rather than individual and participate actively in business associations in order to acquire required skills among others.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Education, Informal Sector Women Entrepreneurs, Family Businesses

1. Introduction

The growing involvement of women in family businesses as vital players in the economy either in the formal or informal sector have been identified by Aronoff (1998), Nmadu, Gowon and Joseph, (2016). In 1996 the majority of existing businesses had begun as family businesses, and 80% of all firms were still family owned or controlled (Lee, 2016). Women now hold majority ownership (51 percent or more) in one-quarter to one-third of all privately-held firms globally (National Women's Business Council, 2005). Women in Nigeria make up 73 million many, who according to Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, 2018), Food and Agriculture Organisation, (2018) are strong participants in the informal sector that constitutes 75% - 80% of the economy. The informal sector is seen as the way of doing economic activities consisting of the following elements: a) easy entry into the economic activities; b) reliance on indigenous resources - finance and materials; c) it is a family owned enterprise d) small scale of operation; e) labour intensive - depending mainly on family labour and adopted technology; f) skills to operate the business are required outside the formal school system; g) there exists an unregulated and competitive market International Labour Organisation, (2000).

Many women are found in this sector because informal work provides opportunities for women who have fewer options as they might be less educated or skilled Park, (2004). Their income-generating activities are considered secondary to their childcare and family responsibilities. Thus, their access to education and skills, ownership of property and efforts to improve productivity are generally given lower priority (ILO, 1997). Adelabu and Adepoju, (2017) also assert that the female education level in Nigeria is still very low due to lack of adequate skills and the inability to replicate ‘traditional female skills’ for which the market is saturated (Mayoux, 2001). Nwoye, (2017) further posit that the situation is attributed to factors such as low levels of education, lack of opportunities for training as well as too little financial and human capital. Entrepreneurship education is a carefully planned process that leads into the acquisition of entrepreneurial competencies. According to Osuala, (2004) education is a set of valuable skills needed by the entrepreneur to avoid future trial and errors which equip the learner with skills on decision making, acquisition of new ideas, methods of raising and maintaining conversations and establishing business relationships, and qualitative ability (computation and record keeping). This invariably shows that these informal sector women are naturally entrepreneurial as they handle risks and uncertainties in order to meet the challenges imposed on them by unequal access to economic resources and participation. Given the lack of education and skills, entrepreneurial capabilities may also be glaringly absent; and if they do not have the critical skills and knowledge to articulate their experiences and business knowledge into a cohesive action that will provide the impetus to propel their enterprises for sustainable growth and expansion, the need for entrepreneurial education becomes a necessity as the market place where these women entrepreneur operates has little tolerance for mistakes and incompetence.

This study set out to determine their entrepreneurship education known in this study as entrepreneurial capabilities. A model of entrepreneurial capabilities; financial management, opportunity seeking, managerial skills, networking and innovative tendencies is adopted. The issue of women entrepreneur in family businesses is represented in terms of whether these informal women entrepreneur are educated or not educated and how much entrepreneurial capability they have that will impact on their businesses growth, sustainability and consequently economic growth. The hope is that women would be active participants in the economy by pulling themselves out informal to formal sector of the economy, grow and sustain their family businesses. The study is organised around this research question:

- Are there any verifiable relationships between whether women entrepreneurs in the informal sector are educated or not or have entrepreneurial capabilities, namely, financial management, opportunity seeking, managerial skills, networking and innovative tendencies and family businesses growth and sustainability?

2. Family Businesses and Entrepreneurship Education

Sexton and Bowman-Upton, (1991) assert that entrepreneurship is the start and heart of most family businesses and the phenomenon of an entrepreneurial family foster, subsidize and enhance the efforts of its members who engage in entrepreneurship. The “European Group of Family Enterprises” and the “Family Business Network” (2008), define family business as a company whose ownership and management are concentrated in one or more families, with at least one member of the family at the helm and control of the business and others are being groomed or considered for eventual leadership. Generally, it is a business governed and/or managed on a sustainable, potentially cross-generational, basis to shape and perhaps pursue the formal or implicit vision of the business held by members of the same family or a small number of families. Hence, one can say that family business is quite simply the "wider-lens" view of entrepreneurship as the initial business efforts of one or more family members grow and change over time. In fact, ILO, (2000) recognized the informal sector as a family owned enterprise that is managed mostly by women to generate income and meet family responsibility. Although largely unable to sustain and grow business or even move to the formal sector due to low level of education, lack of opportunities for training and skills.

Entrepreneurship is about learning the skill need of assume the risk of establishing a business, developing the wining strategies and executing them with all the vigour, persistence and passion needed to win any game according to Inegbenbor, (2006). National Directorate of Employment (NDE) (2009) in Onyebueke and Ochonogo (2002) define entrepreneurship as the art which involves recognizing a business opportunity, mobilizing resources and persisting to exploit that opportunity. Inyang, (2009), define entrepreneurship as a creative process of organizing, managing an enterprise and assuming the risk involved in the enterprise. He also quoted Awodun, (2005) who adopts the same process approach to defining entrepreneurship as an act of recognizing opportunities in your environment, mobilizing resources to take advantage of such opportunities, ensuring the provision of new or improved goods and services to customers and obtaining profit in return for the risk to dare Successful entrepreneurship requires the entrepreneur to posses certain managerial skills. These skills are the ability to conceptualize and plan effectively; ability to manage other individuals, ability to manage time effectively and to learn new techniques in handling business operations; and ability to adopt to change and to handle changes in their environment Dutta and Crossan, (2015). Entrepreneurship is closely associated with innovation even Schumpeter regards entrepreneurial innovation in products and processes as the main engine during the change processes that involves development of new initiatives through discovery and exploitation of opportunities. The boundaries of entrepreneurship embrace an important attribute of the innovation process which eventually triggers an entrepreneurial event or performance Bygrave and Hofer, (2001), Brazeal and Herbert, (1999). Paul, Ickis and Lewinskil (1989), note that because entrepreneurs often play the dual role of risk taker and manager, it becomes necessary to train them in a special way by exposing them to management skills that will facilitate the execution of the functions of manager and risk taker.

Human capital theory posits that individuals with more or higher quality human capital achieve higher performance in executing relevant tasks (Becker, 1975). Human capital refers here to the knowledge and skills that assist people in successfully discovering and exploiting opportunities (Snell and Dean, 1992). The entrepreneurship education need is therefore not the time-honoured courses of typing, shorthand, and commerce rather it is the training in various aspects of business management such as bookkeeping, accounting, marketing, human resource management, and banking and finance starting with each group from the level at which they can properly appreciate what is communicated to them Ubong, (2017). All stages in entrepreneurship are dependent on relevant experience, from the identification of opportunities to the execution of running a business. Entrepreneurial capabilities then, include those clusters of related knowledge, attitudes, and skills which an entrepreneur must acquire through managerial training and development to enable him produce outstanding performance, and maximize profit, while managing a business venture or an enterprise. Quite often, less attention is paid to these critical success variables; rather attention is focused mainly on financial resources. Business or entrepreneurial failures are readily attributed to inadequacy of financial resources. The forgoing makes the entrepreneurial capabilities for women in Nigeria an essential ingredient for successful business growth and sustainability.

Entrepreneurship includes, for instance, planning, organising, analysing, communicating, doing, debriefing, evaluating and recording progress in learning. These set of management competences is relevant in private life for managing one's household etc. as well as for sustaining family business, and participation in society. Other important aspects of entrepreneurship that are obviously equally relevant in all three areas of life include, among others, identifying one's personal strengths and weaknesses, displaying pro-active behaviour, being curious and creative, understanding risk, responding positively to changes and the disposition to show initiatives. All of these are the elements which the study uses in determining entrepreneurship capabilities but particularly five variables; financial management, opportunity seeking, managerial skills, networking and innovation tendencies.

Intensive studies have been carried out on transfer ownership, intergenerational succession, leadership/ownership, and finance from academics and policy makers on family businesses Racio, (2009), Vincente, (2009), but research on the importance of women entrepreneurial capabilities on family growth and sustainability is fragmentary especially at the informal sector.

It is the evidence of these that the friends, trade partners, banks and other sources of fund are waiting for. This brings the role of entrepreneurial capabilities for women in the informal sector to the fore front

3. Methodology

The study used the baseline survey and the structured questionnaire to obtain data from 300 women in the various informal sectors in Jos Metropolis who were randomly selected with replacement with the help of student's research assistance. In establishing their entrepreneurship capabilities, financial management (finance/record keeping, banking), opportunity seeking, networking, managerial skills and innovative tendencies were use. Data from the questionnaire was summarized with simple percentages, cross tabulation and Pearson Correlation coefficient. The Pearson Correlation coefficient was used to correlate between educational level (educated and non-educated) and key components indentified above on entrepreneurial capabilities. Table 1 shows the response rates in different sectors and their education Level.

Type of Enterprise	Number of Respondent	Educated	Non-Educated	% of Respondent
Trade in foodstuffs	59	41	18	19.6
Trade in Manufactured Goods	52	36	16	17.3
Tailoring	46	32	14	15.3
Salon	48	33	15	16
Restuarant	36	25	11	12
Boutiques	33	23	10	11
Milling	15	11	4	5
Stone crushing	11	8	3	4
Total	300	201	9	100
Source: Field Survey, 2019				

4. Results and Discussions

Table 2: Correlation between Entrepreneurial Capabilities and Education Level.

	Educated	Non-educated
Financial Management	.835**	.825*
Opportunity Seeking	.572	.584
Managerial Skills	.960**	.967**
Networking	.648	.667
Innovation Tendencies	.942**	.942**
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). n=8		

Table 2 shows the Pearson Correlations between the women's entrepreneurial capabilities and their education level, which is used to verify the relationships between whether women entrepreneurs in the informal sector that educated or not or have entrepreneurial capabilities, namely, financial management, opportunity seeking, managerial skills, networking and innovative tendencies and family businesses growth and sustainability

The result shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between educated women and financial management, managerial skills and innovation tendencies but not networking and opportunity seeking. It also shows that there is a positive and significant correlation between non-educated women and managerial skills and innovation tendencies but not financial management, opportunity seeking and networking. Therefore, whether they are educated or not educated do not translate into higher business performance.

From information gathered through the open questions, most of these women want to increase their business performance (52%), they believe they can do this through better service delivery (customer satisfaction, meet customers' needs, sell quality wares, friendlier and interact more with customers), training (get current information, improve skills and learn new ways of doing business, know how to net worth & collaborate in the market place) and investment/saving (save more money to be able to buy equipments and separating business account from family account). Only 22.7% believe that finance & loan will help them increase their business performance. This shows that finance is not the main problem but entrepreneur competencies.

11.7% indicated that training had helped them succeed in business as they are able to deliver quality service, rely on accurate information and they kept learning. While 40% rely on their experiences and 51.3% of them do not how to succeed in business. That is why 88.5% are making themselves available for training with 42.3% indicating interest in business development services training, 39% in financial management training and 17% in basic training.

A large proportion (72.3%) acknowledged that their main hindrances to moving to formal sector, sustain and grow business are family demands, cultural, social and economic barriers (religion, tribalism, lack of infrastructure, high cost of transportation, power, government disruption in market place, Jos crisis, thieves), lack business skills (quality service delivery, networking, record keeping, belonging to a business support services, how to preserve perishable goods, maintenance culture).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

There is no doubt that the concept of entrepreneurship has shifted from that of business creation, planning and management to that of managing self, the social and economic environment as a life-long process and activity. Women are known to perform very well in the aspect of managing the self and social environment, but hardly survive in the economic sector due to many factors some of which include their low level of entrepreneurial capabilities even when they are educated. And as such most of the women:

- Don't know they are in business; they see the enterprise as a means of sustenance and survival.
- Don't know how to grow the business through feasibility studies and market projections.
- Have no knowledge of financial planning-costing, record keeping and setting financial goals, costing and cash flow separation profit from initial capital and mentoring
- Cannot coaching and mentoring others
- Do not networking and collaboration
- Lacks communication and good interpersonal relationship
- Cannot access and use of adequate and relative information related to business
- Lacks abilities, skills and expertise in certain business matter.

In these regard, the researcher made the following recommendations:

- The recent interventions we have are questionable as the focus more on youths hence, Government should create more entrepreneurial centres that will inculcate women and not focus on youth alone
- Women can draw strength by operating jointly rather than individual
- Training needs: separation of business account from personal account, participation in business associations in order to acquire required skills
- Government should develop linkages between micro-enterprise owners and relevant development/formal sector
- Government should create an enabling environment that will foster sustainable economic growth.

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Between Social and Management Sciences: Problems and Issues in Carving Separate Identities for Public Administration and Political Science

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Abstract. What indeed are social and management sciences, and why is the question still being asked in this 21st century? To what extent do connections and disconnections exist between and among them? What are the forms and patterns of the connections and disconnections? How have globalization and its forces and factors enhanced the connections and disconnections? Within what intellectual framework should the investigation and probe of the connections and disconnections be patterned? What do we hope to gain from the knowledge and understanding of the connections and disconnections? How important is the knowledge of the connections and disconnections in the probe and investigation of the independence and relationships between social and management sciences? The questions no doubt form the bedrock of the understanding of the issues and problems that are inherent in the carving of separate identities for political science and public administration as disciplines of study. The paper traces the intellectual and academic origins of the connections and disconnections bringing out an evaluation and assessment of the contending arguments and debates, and further seeks an exhaustive and comprehensive examination and analysis of the issues and problems. It finally determines the extent to which the issues and problems represent the basic and fundamental distinctions between social and management sciences. The methodology is qualitative drawing from sources in books, journals and official publications.

Keywords: Science. Social Science, Management Science, Public Administration, Political Science.

1. Introduction

What indeed are social and management sciences, and why is the question still being asked in this 21st century? To what extent do connections and disconnections exist between and among them? What are the forms and patterns of the connections and disconnections? How have globalization and its forces and factors enhanced the connections and disconnections? Within what intellectual framework should the investigation and probe of the connections and disconnections be patterned? What do we hope to gain from the knowledge and understanding of the connections and disconnections? How important is the knowledge of the connections and disconnections in the probe and investigation of the independence and relationships between social and management sciences? The questions no doubt derive relevance in contemporary scholarship when deliberate attempt is made to justify the significance of the topic within the emerging debates and arguments trailing the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) implementation in the Third World during the 1980s. Part of the hang-over effect of the structural adjustment and stabilization measures is the continued emphasis on the need to reduce the running costs of higher education in the face of budgetary constraints through the reviews of curricular. Answering the questions especially from the perspective of the Third World as earlier emphasized requires that relationships in both theory and practice are first established between humanities as fields of study and development as political, economic and social aspirations. The starting point hence involves raising some fundamental questions and posers that would in turn help us to address the relationships in both theory and practice. The questions, among others, include: what are the indices that help in the advancement of knowledge and by extension, societies?

Societal progress is greatly facilitated when our reasoning system and ability are patterned along certain carefully formulated indices and criteria of evaluation and assessment. Critical to the procedures and processes of evaluation and assessment is how to ensure that the criteria of evaluation and assessment have in them the necessary scientific elements so as to be able to reduce our biases and value predispositions to the barest level. No doubt, relationship exists between and among the humanities, broadly defined, and national and social development. The relationships in both theory and practice have helped in determining and conditioning the contents and methods of the humanities as disciplines to the extent that critical components and brands of social and management sciences remain entrenched in it and continue to give it defining and unique characteristics. In the Third World, there is ever the challenge of development. There is, in particular, the challenge of what type of development that is needed and how to approach the processes and procedures of its institutionalization and accomplishment. Again, critical to the understanding and knowledge of the type of development that the Third World desires is how social and management sciences are organized and arranged for teaching especially at the university level. There is the imperative need to, among others, have a clear understanding of what social and management sciences are before their organization and arrangement for teaching are investigated and elaborated upon.

Again, what indeed are social and management sciences, and why is the question still being asked in this 21st century? The questions are two in one. But they require separation for the purpose of understanding the relevance and importance of the topic in this contemporary era of globalization with all its attendant consequences and effects, consequences and effects in particular on the organization, patterning and arrangement of the intellectual efforts at advancing the study and understanding of man's behaviour. A bit of historical excursion is however, important for us to be able to understand the relevance of the first question to the examination and analysis of the relationships between public administration and political science and the problems and issues enveloping the carving of separate identities for the two especially in the developing world. In Nigeria, especially following the end of the civil war in 1970 and the introduction and implementation of the 3Rs programmes (reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction), the significance of the discipline of public administration came into the front burner. Coincidentally, the former Director of the Institute of Public Administration at the then University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), Prof. Adebayo Adedeji who later became the United Nations Under-Secretary and Director-General of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) with headquarters in Addis-Ababa, Ethiopia was appointed the Federal Minister of Economic Development and Planning. A University of London trained economist and holder of the master's degree in public administration from the Harvard University, Prof. Adebayo Adedeji left a legacy of service while at Obafemi Awolowo University as the Director of the Institute of Administration which later metamorphosed into the Faculty of Administration with public administration as one of the departments. It is important to emphasise the fact further that before 1970 when Prof. Adebayo Adedeji was appointed as Federal Minister in Nigeria, the Institute of Administration had pre-occupied itself with the public service training programmes of the then Western Region of Nigeria. In actual fact, the then Western Region of Nigeria established the Obafemi Awolowo University in 1962 before its take-over by the Federal Government of Nigeria in1971. The different military regimes that ruled Nigeria between 1983 and 1998 appreciated the relevance and importance of the discipline of public administration to national development and consequently adopted three centers (the University of Nigeria, Nnsuka; Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife; and Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria) apart from the establishment of the Centre for Management and Development, Lagos and the Administrative Staff College, Badagry for the advancement of the knowledge and understanding of the discipline of public administration in both theory and practice.

The issue of standard is usually of concern to any reasonable government. The Federal Government of Nigeria established the National Universities Commission for the purpose of regulating and maintaining standards in the Nigerian university system. Part of the regulatory duty, responsibility and function of the National Universities Commission is the development of what it calls the Minimum Bench Mark for the Nigerian Universities. Included in the Minimum Bench Mark is the arrangement and organization of courses and their departmentalization under the umbrella of faculties. The Minimum Bench Mark specifically makes distinctions and differences between social and management sciences and clearly further provides that political science should be in the Faculty of the Social Sciences and public administration in the Faculty of Administration and Management Sciences. Universities in Nigeria such as the University of Lagos, Akoka; University of Benin, Benin City; Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye; University of Calabar and the University of Ibadan, to mention just a few, already have public administration either taught independently as a programme or as an integral element of the instruction in political science. And since adjustment of, and alignment to, the Minimum Bench Mark of the National Universities Commission are critical, important and pre-requisite to the accreditation of academic programmes, most universities are left with no other alternative option than to comply. This no doubt has created a number of issues and problems of implementation and as well as of epistemology of understanding and knowledge. First, there is the problem and issue of understanding and knowledge of social and management sciences. Equally are other problems and issues cleverly articulated here as research questions to provide direction to the thrust of the paper. Even though it is tentatively agreed to that we know what social and management sciences either are or likely to be, it still remains uncertain whether our answers are exact, precise and comprehensive enough. It is therefore further asked for the purpose of emphasis: to what extent do connections and disconnections exist between social and management sciences? What are the forms and patterns of the connections and disconnections? How have the forces and factors of globalization enhanced the connections and disconnections? Within what intellectual framework should the investigation and probe of the connections and disconnections be patterned? What do we hope to gain from the knowledge and understanding of the connections and disconnections? How important is the knowledge of the connections and disconnections in the probe and investigation of the independence and relationships between social and management sciences? And with specific and special regard to political science and public administration, to what extent do independence and relationships exist between them? How can the independence and relationship be investigated? What should the investigations bring out? What should be the manner or mode of presentation of the result/outcome? And finally, to what extent do the questions constitute in themselves the basis for the advancement of knowledge? All the questions, it is further emphasized, form the fulcrum of the paper and consequently its substance and stuff. We need to, at this juncture, make some important conceptual clarifications. This is the preoccupation of part one of the paper.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

The following words and concepts are critical to the understanding of the position of the paper. They are: science, social science, management science, public administration and political science. It is further admitted to that what these concepts are and especially as used in the paper do not differ from the common understanding of them. However, it is still considered important to define them because the common understanding of them constitutes or creates another problem of understanding and knowledge. There is the tendency for instance to assume that science is about laboratory and the application of complex mathematical and statistical techniques. There is the tendency further to either think or wanting to think that administration involves management, and finally that the word: humanities best capture social and management sciences. There are, it is here argued, degrees of variations between and among them. Consequently, what is the paper's understanding of 'science' as the basis of the knowledge of the distinctions and differences between social and management sciences, and for the purpose and objective of the investigation, analysis, examination and discussion of the connections and disconnections between them? Science, it is further argued and submitted, involves the simplification of the procedure for the discovery of the truth- see Berger and Luckmann (1973), Ayer (1961), Blum (1974), Dewey and Bentley (1948), Sarantakos (2005), Babbie (1995), Crotty (1998) and Eneanya (2012), among others. Science, from the understanding of the paper, is an activity which aims at the discovery of the truth. This raises another question. What does the paper hold or accept as the truth? The truth is here referred to as when ideas or pieces of information about our existence are generally consistent to the extent that they remain ever reliable and dependable. Science, from the understanding and perspective of the paper, is therefore the deliberate initiation and use of a generally accessible procedure that leads to the discovery of the truth. The procedure, it is further meant, either arises from or it is the outcome of the application and utilization of existing or known theories.

A 'social science' understanding of the paper emanates from the Webster's Dictionary explanation and meaning of the world: 'social'. According to the Dictionary, social is: "of or relating to human society, the interaction of the individual and the group". The concept of social, from the perspective of the Dictionary, is one that is used to describe and explain the interactions and relationships between and among individuals. Individuals and groups therefore constitute the understanding and meaning of the word, social. Social science is therefore a form of science that deals with the study, investigation, discussion and analysis of the behaviours of individuals and groups with the goal and objective of developing and formulating generalizations. As distinct from other forms of sciences, social science has a goal and objective for its study and investigation of human behaviours. The fact that individuals and groups constitute the meaning and understanding of the word, social, provides the information and knowledge further that there are many manifestations of human behaviours. These manifestations, it is important to emphasise further, can be political, economic, psychological, cultural, geographical and spatial. This explains why disciplines such as political science, economics, sociology, psychology, anthropology and geography are immediately mentioned as the social sciences. That the above are immediately referred to as the social sciences has contained in it the understanding that there could be the other social sciences or a more elaborate understanding of the social sciences. Yes, of course. These other social sciences include history, philosophy, education and law- see Smelster and Baltes (2001), Kuper and Kuper (1985), Backhouse and Philippe (2014) and Krimerman (1969), among others. Distinctions and differences can hence be made between the "core" social sciences and the "peripheral" social sciences. The former are unarguably the core social sciences and the latter, the peripheral social sciences. The argument further is that the peripheral social sciences are important to the knowledge and understanding of the core social sciences. For instance, notwithstanding the level of sophistication that has been achieved in the core social sciences and especially in the study and knowledge of "human behaviour", the fact remains that it is either that history plays critical role in the understanding of the behaviour or that the behaviour has attached to it moral and philosophical problems and issues. Furthermore, economic, political and sociological theories are influenced by legal theories. The right that man exercises and his behaviour within the context of market are for instance, both regulated and defined by law. Finally, the purpose of social organization is fundamentally regulated and defined by law.

What is management science? This requires an immediate probe into the meaning and understanding of management. So, what is management? How can it not be confused with administration? In other words, what is the difference and distinction between management and administration? There are two senses and perspectives to the understanding and meaning of management. These are here labeled as semantic and technical. They both require careful explanation. In the semantic category and according to Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, management is: "the act or art of managing: the conducting or supervising of something (as a business)". The Dictionary goes further to define it as the: "judicious use of means to accomplish an end". The Dictionary finally defines it as the: "capacity for managing: executive skill". What, it can now be asked, is the contribution of the semantic perspective to the understanding of management and by extension, management science? Management, going by its definition and characterization so far, has three outstanding and unique understanding and meaning. They are that: (i) it involves supervision; (ii) it is about judicious application and utilization of resources; and (iii) it is about the inculcation of relevant skills. The above no doubt both distinguish and differentiate management from administration- see Hughes (1998), Dwivedi and Henderson (1990), Dunsire (1973), Farnham and Horton (1996) and French and Saward (1993), among others. Administration is much more limited in scope. It is a component of management. But this is still not enough. We need therefore an understanding and meaning of management from the technical sense and perspective to be able to answer the question.

Yalokwuwu (2006:4) defines management as "the process of planning, organising, leading, and controlling the efforts of members of an organization and using all other resources to achieve set goals". The definition no doubt requires further detailed examination and analysis. From the definition, management involves all of the following: (i) it is a process of relationship and interaction; (ii) it is a process of relationship and interaction happening only in organizations; (iii) it is about the use and application of resources; and lastly (iv), it is about the achievement of clearly defined goals. The difference between the semantic and technical perspectives to the understanding and explanation of management exists not only in the comprehensiveness of the technical perspective but in the fact that it helps in addressing important issues and problems which the paper has set for itself. Therefore, how have the understanding and explanations of management so far given assisted in the understanding and explanation of management science? Management and management science, one should emphasise, are different but related subject matter- see Stoner (1995), Yalokwuwu (2006), Gulick (1965), Stoner and Wankel (1988), Holt (1993), and Miller and Feldman (1983), among others. Management has both theoretical and practical dimensions. In fact, distinction, difference and relationship can be made and established between the theory and practice of management- see Nwachukwu (1988), Drucker (1954) and Holt (1993), among others. Management science is therefore the body of idea that exists to help in the understanding of both the theory and practice of management. It is a body of knowledge of accounting, finance, insurance, business, banking, advertising, etc., working together to ensure that resources are judiciously used for the purpose of achieving clearly defined goals. The science of management exists in the fact further that it involves the formulation of problem and the articulation of testable propositions with regard to how difficulties are resolved in organizations. The difference between management science and social science can therefore be anchored in the point that management science is much more restrictive in application. Social science has a wider application of its knowledge and understanding of science to include organizations and the larger society. This perhaps particularly explains the reference to social sciences as the "soft sciences" because of the fact that understanding human behaviour requires the joint application and utilization of the tools and techniques of the broad social sciences. What for instance manifests itself as economic behaviour might have its roots in politics and culture which makes the knowledge and understanding of political science and anthropology important to its study, examination and analysis.

How does the paper view public administration and political science? The paper views them as disciplines of study. The above point underscores the need for the paper to make some facts known about disciplines of study. A discipline of study is an area of human inquiry. This means that as an area of human inquiry, disciplines need to have: (i) an understanding of the nature and character of the inquiry; (ii) identities and defining elements and characteristics which distinguish the discipline from other disciplines; (iii) contents describing and detailing what the discipline is all about; and (iv), methods for investigating its focus. It is further important to make some other observations known about disciplines. Disciplines as areas of human inquiries have their histories of growth and development. Second, part of the history of the growth and development of disciplines is the existence of relationships with other disciplines. In fact, a discipline for instance might be an offshoot of another discipline. Third, the histories of disciplines revolve around certain personalities and individuals. In addition, disciplines generally differ in degrees of sophistication and levels of scientific attainment. Finally, disciplines differ in orientation.

Given the above, it is apt to now ask: what are public administration and political science as disciplines of study? What are the connections and disconnections between them? What does the knowledge of the connections and disconnections say about them? More importantly, can public administration meaningfully exist and rigidly maintain its independence from political science? Solid and fundamental as the questions are, it is however, important to emphasise that only the first question mentioned and stated above has relevance to the purpose of the paper. In literature, politics and political science are both confused- see Ball (1983), Appadorai (2004), Kapur (2006), Harris (1979), Pickels (1972) and Herbert and Bellows (1981), among others. The confusion emanates from the fact that politics is the subject matter of political science. It is here emphasized that even though they are related ideas, they do not however amount to the same thing in the light of our earlier explanations of disciplines. A politician is not a political scientist. However, a political scientist might choose to be a politician. This is the starting point of the clarification between political science and politics. As a discipline/area of human inquiry, political science concerns and preoccupies itself with the scientific study, examination and analysis of all activities and competitions in relation to the production, distribution/allocation and consumption of scarce political resources. The mix-up between politics and political science exists in the definitions of two academic giants in the field. They are Professors David Easton and Harrold Lasswell. Easton's definition and characterization of politics as "the authoritative allocation of values", and Lasswell's understanding of it as: "who gets what, when and how" are not strictly speaking, the definitions of political science, but rather the definition and characterization of politics- see Easton (1965a), Easton (1965b) and Lasswell (1958), among others. The point needs clarification, no doubt. They are not definitions of the discipline further on the ground that the science component of it is either lost or absent. In fact, both Easton and Lasswell failed, neglected or refused to make reference to it. Some institutions and universities still refer to the department of political science as the department of politics. This is still part of the ensuing confusion. In the paper therefore, reference is made to the discipline and department of political science and not that of politics, the subject matter of study. Political science is hereby defined as the academic study of politics.

Let us now attempt to define public administration. So, what is public administration? An understanding of the discipline requires an immediate explanation of the two words in which it is being described. These two words are: (i) public and (ii) administration.

According to Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, public is: "of, relating to, or affecting all the people or the whole area of a nation or state". While administration, according to the Dictionary, is: "the act or process of administering". The Dictionary further defines it as the: "performance of executive duties", and "the execution of public affairs as distinguished from policy-making". Finally, the Dictionary views public as: "a body of persons who administer". One should quickly note and observe that the definitions only conform to the understanding of public administration from the angle of practice. While the perspective is important to it, it however, misses the special reference to its teaching and theory. In this sense, an administrationist is not the same thing as an administrator, even though an administrationist can as well be an administrator. The missing point, it is particularly emphasized here, is the specific reference of the paper and therefore constitutes its understanding of public administration. The understanding further requires detailed explanation as documented in literature. According to Rosenbloom (1986), public administration: "…is the use of managerial, political, and legal theories and processes to fulfill legislative, executive and judicial governmental mandates for the provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segments of it". Hughes (1998) declares boldly that the definition is: "…comprehensive, overarching…, putting within public administration every conceivable part of the public sector". The submission cannot be controverted. It provides for the paper useful and correct perspective to the understanding and meaning of public administration from the angles of theory and practice.

3. Connections and Disconnections between Social and Management Sciences

One should begin the subsection by asking the questions: What are the connections and disconnections between social and management sciences? Why do social and management scientists need to know the connections and disconnections between them? And finally, of what use is the knowledge of the connections and disconnections? The subsection seeks first the knowledge of the connections. So, what are the connections between social and management sciences? Before the question is here answered, there is the imperative need to elaborate on our understanding of connection. Connection is used here from the perspective of relationship. Again, what is the relationship between social and management sciences? The idea of connection and relationship is further a construct intended to establish whether or not a link exist between social and management sciences. The construct is hence an investigation deliberately patterned to bring out and highlight the relationships between the two sciences. The connections between them exist in many ways. Quite aptly, what are these many ways? Both social and management sciences are disciplines of study. They both have their defining attributes and identities existing principally in the fact that they are areas of human inquiries. Human civilization has accompanied with it the urge by man to wanting to know himself and why he relates with his fellow beings and the physical environment that he finds himself. As man grows in the knowledge of himself and his environment, he discovers further that his behaviour is conditioned by other factors and forces, the knowledge of which is vital on daily basis.

Human civilization creates additional complexities and complications in the knowledge of the individual and the group and society that the individual belongs to. As the individual functions and relates in organizations and in the larger society that he belongs to, he discovers further that his new knowledge all of the sudden becomes stale and further that relationships exist between and among the past, the present and the future. He discovers further that the relationships need be steadily studied, examined and analyzed before more remarkable progress can be recorded. Man, as an embodiment of many parts, finds and realises further that he needs to arrange and re-arrange, adjust and re-adjust, align and re-align all his instruments, techniques and tools of examination, study and analysis of individual and aggregate relationships within a system of knowledge accumulation that allows for test and re-test to be able to determine the extent to which he can regularly make generalizations for accuracy of prediction of study. Beginning from the understanding and idea that he can know himself and the world, man started to make some fundamental assumptions and propositions about the world and in particular, about his role in it. When he encounters difficulties and problems, he re-strategises by either recognizing that he needs to break into pieces his knowledge of his behaviour and that of the world. When he records successes and breakthroughs, he thinks of how to consolidate and sustain the gains and plans for further advancement. Social and management sciences eventually develop to complement each other as knowledge accumulation about how our world continues to grow.

The second connection between social and management sciences can be explained from the angle and perspective of shared focus. Disciplines are known for what they study or aimed at studying. Whether approached from the angle of individual and group behaviour within an organization or from the larger perspective of the society, social and management sciences concern themselves with the study of human/social behaviour. What motivates man/individual to behave in a particular way and not in other ways? What is the relationship between individual and group behaviours? What are the many manifestations of man's behaviour? What are the factors conditioning the manifestations of these behaviours? How can these behaviours be put together for the purpose of greater study, examination and analysis? How consistent and reliable can these behaviours be? What is the extent of the reliability that is contained in the behaviour? What should be the basis for the continued focus on the study of the behaviour expressed by man? How is human/social behaviour modified, and why? What is to be gained from the modification? How will the modification affect existing result/knowledge, and to what extent? What would and should allow for consistency in the study, examination and analysis of man's behaviour? How can the emphasis on the study of human/social behaviour be sustained? What are the rules of logic involved? And to what extent can they be objectively applied? All the questions are critical to social and management sciences as disciplines of study focusing on the knowledge of man's behaviour at either individual and/or group level. The emphasis on shared focus is to re-iterate the fact that agreement exists on what should be the subject-content between the two sciences. Focus provides further the basis of investigation and the building of generalization between the two sciences. Human behaviour, as a phenomenon of study of the two sciences, happens within and outside of organizations and in the larger society as well. This focus remains the binding unity between the two sciences.

Thirdly, because social and management sciences focus on the study of human behaviour, they are both concerned with how to regularly improve their instruments and techniques of research. Research is critical to the advancement of human knowledge especially about man and the group that he finds himself. Again, because human nature is generally lacking in dependability and reliability, there is always the concern about how existing instruments and tools of research can be improved upon. The idea of test and re-test is to allow for confirmation of data before analysis so that the result can be dependable enough. Researches in social and management sciences are generally conditioned by similarity of rules, procedures and processes. There are agreements and consensus on what type of data, how to get them, how to arrange, analyse and present them. Data, the agreement is still further maintained, should not be for the purpose of data only. Rather, it should be for the purpose of ameliorating or solving societal problems. Advances in econometrics, finance and in the presentation of accounting reports for instance should be in relation to how production, distribution and consumption activities can be enhanced and leakages addressed. The point further draws from the fact that social and management sciences have similar orientation with particular respect to the development of shared philosophy and principle of research. Researches in social and management sciences, according to the principle, should derive from the problems of the society. This is what is called problem-solving orientation. The two sciences believe in the need for regular refinement of the instruments and tools of research. Regularity is important to the making and development of generalizations. Regularity however, can only come when a system of test and re-test is established for the purpose of ensuring the development of a pattern. Social and management sciences share this connection in common.

In addition, social and management sciences have the same meaning and understanding of science. Science, in the two disciplines, is about the simplification of the procedure for discovery of the truth. The understanding of science therefore exists in certain assumptions and further described in terms of peculiar characteristics and attributes. Fundamental to the assumptions is the knowability of the world and that we are able to know it through our senses. The principles of systematization, openness to modification, inter-subjectivity, among others, are to ensure that research in the two sciences is anchored in intelligible reasoning indicating relationships between our conclusions and procedures. Systematization principle, as practiced in the two sciences, ensures the use of theories and theoretical frameworks of analyses. Theories are to drive research, and the goal of research is the development and formulation of new and additional theories. Science, according to the two sciences, is about objectivity in the specification and detailing of the procedures for the discovery of the truth. There is further the shared feeling that the procedure of an objective science starts from the selection of the topic of research. The guide is usually that social and management scientists should, in the interest of developing meaningful generalization, detach themselves from the circumstances and interests enveloping their research topics. Furthermore, because social and management scientists have the same meaning and understanding of science, they seek objectivity in the entire process and procedure of research. The two sciences recognize the need for value-detachment right from the selection of the research topic to the presentation and analysis of data and findings. Subjectivity is generally accepted to be detrimental to social and management sciences patterned researches. It limits the opportunities that are contained in research challenges and thereby further constrain how we are to approach the numerous problems plaguing our societies. Human progress is further limited and our problems appear bigger than us.

The connections between social and management sciences can be seen and demonstrated further in the fact that they share the same goal of study. Both disciplines share the mentality of ensuring that they develop and formulate their orientation to research from the larger problems of the society. A principle and rule of research in social and management sciences emanates from the accepted idea that there should be relationship between the research topic and the problems of the society. This specifically means that research in social and management sciences should be directed towards solving the problems of the society. This is what is called the problem-solving goal and mentality of social and management sciences. In fact, the relevance and importance of the two sciences seem to be dependent on how they are able to proffer solutions to the problems of the society. Social advancement, according to social and management scientists, can only be accelerated when social problems are confronted and dealt with. This again explains the uniqueness of social and management sciences. And the uniqueness reveals itself when we consider the necessity of recommendations to social and management sciences patterned researches. It is particularly agreed that arriving at a conclusion should not be the end of research. Research can only come to an end when recommendations of public policy significance are made on how the problems investigated can either be solved or ameliorated. Social and management sciences patterned researches without recommendations are violations of established rules.

Both social and management sciences have the traditions of being theory-oriented and theory-directed. Within the larger idea of the principle and rule of systematization, researches in the two sciences derive their investigation and analysis from existing theories and they aim further at the development of further theories. In both sciences, the idea of theoretical framework of analysis is very sacrosanct. This is important in further helping in the actualization and fulfillment of the idea and principle that we begin the conduct of research from the known to the unknown and that there is always a relationship between existing theories and the development of new ones. The two sciences further assume that existing knowledge and information about our world are critical to the investigation and discovery of the unknown. Nothing, it is often said is absolutely and completely new under the sun. Even though it is true that the commencement of a research might be affected by the problem of paucity of information, knowledge and data, this should however, be seen as a challenge. The commencement of research in the two sciences, it is generally believed, should be preceded by the accumulation of existing knowledge (bibliography development) that is directly and indirectly related to the topic of investigation. This further explains why review of literature is an important arm of research in social and management sciences.

Finally, among the connections between social and management sciences, is the general agreement that there exists a relationship between the contents and methods of study and investigation. Human behaviour, from the perspective of either individual or group, remains the focus of the two sciences. There is the further agreement that the study of human behaviour can either be quantitative or qualitative. The topic, it is further agreed, determines its mode of investigation. All these are the agreed principles and rules determining and defining the understanding of the two sciences and their orientation to research.

Having examined and analyzed the connections between social and management sciences, what are the disconnections between them? There is the urgent need to expatiate on the meaning of disconnection. Disconnection in this sense refers to the dissimilarities between the two sciences and how the dissimilarities in turn define and determine the contents and methods of their understanding, investigation and analysis. It is further the demonstration of the extent to which they differ in level of rigour and sophistication in the understanding and study of human behaviour, the focus of their study and research attention. First, even though the two sciences have the same orientation and understanding of science, they however differ in the extent of appreciation of the meaning and understanding of science. Science no doubt connotes simplification of procedure in the two sciences. A social science understanding of science is clearly and comprehensively more critical. Social scientists would emphasise (within the perspective of developing and formulating critical indices of measurement and analysis) the need to further situate every scientific investigation within the complex and multiple forces and factors of history and philosophy that gave birth to the science and the urge to be scientific. This is because, science, according to social scientists, serves not its purpose but that of the fundamental existence of man as he relates with his fellow men and makes and enforces binding decisions and imposes sanctions for disobeying. Towards this end, social scientists would always remind themselves of the philosophy and history of science in their understanding and application of science and scientific indices. Management scientists on the other hand take a cosmetic and hagiographic view and approach to the understanding of science and in the application of its tools and techniques. Science is seen generally as the means to an end and not the desired end in itself. This obviously has its many problems. There is the tendency to be mindful of only the tools and techniques especially the accuracy of statistical data rather than in the purpose of the data. All measures for example in governmental accounting aimed at reducing and controlling leakages would only be meaningful to the extent to which the accrued savings assist in the amelioration of poverty, provision of jobs and in the empowerment of women, the youths and the vulnerable groups in the society.

In addition, the management sciences are characteristically modest in theoretical sophistication. Science, it is here particularly emphasized, has both its empirical and normative compliments. Empiricism has value only with respect to the extent to which through it we are able to validate our data and assumptions. This is however, good to the extent to which we can completely detach ourselves from the investigation. But can a scientist completely detach himself from his research and investigation? This is extremely doubtful given the fact that the choice of topic is in itself a demonstration of preference. The social scientists take a broad, panoramic and critical view and understanding of science and from this, develop an understanding that helps in the examination and analysis of the subject matter. Science, the conclusion can then be reached, serves the purpose of man and not man the purpose of science.

Important to the examination, discussion and analysis of the sophistication argument are two critical points. These are the arguments relating to the justification of data collection sources and analyses and the suitability and appropriateness of theoretical frameworks of analyses. Social science takes very serious the basis and justification advanced in support of the adoption and use of statistical tools and techniques. It as well takes further serious the suitability and appropriateness of adopted/chosen theoretical frameworks of analyses for the purpose of research. Accepted that the purpose of a theory is to describe, explain and predict, but the description, explanation and prediction should be targeted at occurrences whose realities are known through carefully formulated concepts and ideas about our world. Limiting and restricting theoretical formulations to organizations rather than the larger society compound the extent, appreciation and understanding of what is being described, explained and predicted. Scholarship, it is here further argued in both social and management sciences should be such that seeks comprehensive knowledge and understanding of any subject matter and in particular, the many dimensions of its existence.

4. Problems and Issues in Carving Separate Identities for Public Administration and Political Science

What are the many issues and problems involved in carving separate identities for public administration and political science in the new arrangement of maintaining distinctions between social and management sciences? Going into the examination and analysis of the issues and problems requires first, undertaking a robust probe of the necessities and circumstances enveloping the idea. There is, to begin with, a necessity in which the whole idea is being expressed. There is, therefore and without debate, the emphasis on new public administration. The emphasis adds to public administration the idea of management to the extent that both now read public administration and management. What really has brought about this? The root of the new focus can be traced to the idea of secondary purpose of government. When government was formed immediately after the period of the Dark Ages and assigned with the primary responsibility of maintenance of law and order, the attendant improvements in communication and population further ignited within the emerging democracy the idea of entrusting to it the secondary responsibility expanded and interpreted to mean the provision of social amenities. Included further in the idea is how to permanently develop and formulate within the emerging institutional framework of government a systematic arrangement that would allow for the sustenance of the idea. Part of the basis for the Industrial Revolution stemmed from this need. The goodies of life, as it was then called, were accepted as critical to the new society that was then developing. Consequently, the understanding of management became expanded in scope especially in its application to the art and science of public administration. The role of government especially following the Adjustment Programmes of the 1980s and 1990s called for refinement and redefinition. The reinvention of the state debate and argument became popular in literature to the extent that capitalism was assumed to have triumphed and Fukuyama predicted the end of history!

The first issue/problem involves determining clearly and appropriately which courses are indeed critical to contemporary political science and contemporary public administration curricular. Public policy analysis, cases in public policy analysis, local government, comparative local government, comparative public administration, inter-governmental relations, administrative and constitutional law, elements and organization of government, public administration, organizational theory and behaviour, among others, were once considered as traditional courses of the old political science programme accommodating the diversity and plurality in which the discipline was once described and characterized. What should now happen to these courses? Should they be deleted and eliminated from the political science curriculum or should they be left alone? Whichever choice that is taken has its consequences on the type of political science that is being envisaged. This is because if these courses are to be eliminated and deleted from the old political science programme, it raises further questions about the envisaged new political science and the anticipated new courses, especially about how they are to be designed and the underlying philosophy in which they are to be expressed. There are further questions with respect to the method to be employed in teaching these new courses. Method of teaching is no doubt critical to the establishment and sustenance of the identified new focus and objective of the discipline.

Complete demerge of political science and public administration creates further the problem of what future relationships that should be between the two disciplines. The old relationship was not completely divisive but with some unpalatable tastes especially in the handling and management of personnel and other public policy related consultancy assignments and responsibilities pushed to the department of political science under the old arrangement by government. Given the place of the two programmes in the implementation and execution of manpower planning and development functions in the developing world, can the separation of the two disciplines be completely achieved without dire consequences and implications for the overall objective of uplifting human and societal conditions? In addition, the expansion in the scope of the discipline of political science as a result of the problems and opportunities provided by information and communication technology leading to the imperative need to, among others, study: cyber-attacks, the menace of terrorism and other complex wars and conflicts between and among nation-states, the increasing role of civil society groups and their influences in shaping the foreign policies of countries and the direction of regional and multi-lateral institutions, the renewed focus on how to improve the effectiveness of political institutions in relation to developing new approaches to tackle the increasing and sophisticated governance problems and issues, have jointly and individually, bring the discipline of political science to enviable height among the class of social and management sciences. How, it can now be asked, can the discipline of public administration contribute significantly to the advancement of knowledge and understanding of these new areas of political science given her newly acquired independence status? The new relationships that the discipline of public administrations has with the management sciences are capable of limiting her contributions to the enlargement of these new areas of political science. Given further the misinterpretation and misunderstanding of interdisciplinary relationships between the social and management sciences in the Third World, there is the possibility that the relevance of public administration is gradually being diminished and running into extinction.

There is the further problem of determining the extent to which the contents of instructions in public administration should still be allowed in the remaining political science curriculum. This raises additional problem of tolerance and accommodation. What is or should be the accepted/tolerable level in which the new public administration programme can afford to cede its defining attributes and parameters that are critical to the establishment and maintenance of its new identity? Within the context of helping to sustain the requirements for the upliftment of public bureaucracies, the discipline of public administration has continued to create and carve for itself some elements of recognition and importance. This most probably explains the interests of prospective postgraduate students in public administration rather than in political theory and comparative government and politics for instance. Beyond the issue of tolerance and accommodation, there is as well the problem of completely defining the new focus of political science without retaining the public administration based courses. There is therefore the possibility of duplication of courses between the two disciplines. Courses on national political systems, the histories of their political growth and development, their conduct and aspirations in continental and world affairs, are no doubt political science based courses. The study of public administration however becomes shallow when these courses are not integrated into its programme. For instance, the knowledge of the practice of public administration of countries needs be situated in the overall knowledge of the histories of their political growth and development.

The new department of public administration equally has its problems and challenges. It needs to urgently define its new relationships with the other management sciences. Services and profits are two incompatible ideas. While recognizing the contemporary reality that government needs to review its foundation and philosophy in the face of financial constraints, there is the problem of accurately determining the extent and degree of privatization and commercialization for example. In Africa and other parts of the Third World, citizens still find themselves trapped in poverty and underdevelopment networks and remain completely disillusioned. Government is still expected to handle critical responsibilities that make life livable. In these societies, it is still doubtful that they have reached the level where government should be advised to limit herself to "the provision of enabling environment" for maximum competition between and among individuals in their private capacities as it is being currently suggested.

5. Inherent Promises and Hopes

Notwithstanding the problems and issues earlier identified, discussed and examined, they are good hopes and prospects emanating from the separation of political science and public administration programmes. A new public administration is positioned strategically to benefit from the influence of other management sciences. A reconstruction of the idea of the state especially redefining its role in the contemporary organization of the society has more sense and meaning within the context of a new public administration. With the potential of the possible exposure of students to courses in governmental accounting, financial accounting, financial management, managerial economics, business principles and practices, among others, the discipline of public administration now has in it the opportunities of producing students skilled in the art and science of public resources management. Filling the gap created as a result of full establishment of separate identities between political science and public administration, the discipline of political science equally has its good prospects. The political theory segment of the discipline will be left with no other option than thinking of how to creatively repackage itself beyond accepting the limitation offered by normative ideas and thoughts. Its empirical component especially with respect to researching into how to create the intellectual basis for the study of political behaviour will now be better enhanced. New courses will definitely spring-up integrating political science with computer and information and communication technology. A new political science discipline is no doubt in the pipeline with the development of improved tools and techniques of studying institutions and the relationship between the study of these institutions and law. Criminal justice administration and the relationship between it and the development of a new political order will no doubt form the focus of study of a new political science.

6. Conclusion

The paper derives its relevance from contributing to an important area of intellectual focus on contemporary curriculum development of universities in the Third World. No doubt, distinctions and differences exist in the knowledge and understanding of social and management sciences. The knowledge of the differences and distinctions, as argued in the paper, is to provide basis for the reinvigoration of research into aspects and areas that are expected to make the disciplines of public administration and political science more responsive to the tasks and demands of further uplifting human and societal conditions. Distinct compartmentization of the two disciplines will ever remain a herculean task. Public administration teaching and research cannot escape completely from the concepts of power, authority, influence and legitimacy. These concepts ever form the basis for the organization of its new focus on management for its relevance to remain glued to the various efforts, initiatives and activities targeted at resolving and ameliorating the many problems of the human political societies. The discipline of political science, as the mother discipline, has the overall responsibility of imaginatively setting the agenda of public administration research and teaching. Financial management, governmental and public sector accounting, taxation, managerial and public sector economics, etc., as new courses of instruction in public administration, are critical and relevant to the extent to which they help public institutions to achieve efficiency, accountability and transparency in governance through indepth study provided by political science framework of research into the problems and issues relating to legitimacy and social mobilization.

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Part Three

Peace and Conflict Studies

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An Analysis of the Paradoxical Role of Religion in the Occurrence of Peace and Conflict in Human Society

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Abstract. For many years, scholars have battled with understanding and explaining the connection between religion, peace, and conflict. However, the plethora of the ensuing thoughts and explanations has rather created more confusion than resolution of the matter, especially because scholars have hardly agreed on any of the numerously evolving perspectives. With the aim of discovering a way out of the observed dilemma, this paper embarked on an analytical approach, incorporating the propositions of the indivisibility thesis to highlight and examine the basic characteristics of religion and how they influence peace and conflict between and among people. It was discovered that the major factors that determine whether religion will promote peace or conflict in the society at any instance are the indivisibility of the associated tenets and its proneness to selfish manipulation; that the inherent characteristics of religion make it equally inclined to peace and conflict as well as to manipulation which affects its influence on them. The paper concluded that despite the equal inclination of religion to peace and conflict, it is more prone to conflict than peace, especially because of its inherent proneness to segregation and manipulation. The paper, therefore, recommended a general re-orientation of all stakeholders of peace and conflict in relation to the role of religion in the society, following the realist, rather than the utopian, claims that help maintain the unwanted influence of religion on the balance of peace and conflict in human society. This re-orientation is necessary because it will help clear the scholarly confusions on ground and to place religion in its rightful place in the promotion of the necessary balance of peace and conflict in human society.

Keywords: Conflict, Human Society, Indivisibility, Peace, Religion

1. Introduction

From antiquity to contemporary times, conflict, peace, and religion have been unrelenting features of human society, which cohabit in different forms and combinations, informing and evolving from human interactions with each other and with their supernatural deities. Thus, from the ancient times to about the late 1940s, religion was a key determinant of how people related with each other at different levels and conditions everywhere in the world. Thus, it could not be justifiably dissociated from the discourse of the occurrence of peace and conflict in the society. But as rightly observed by Haynes (2007) and Kimball (2002), beginning from the immediate post-1945 years, scholars of the western societies began to successfully persuade their home governments and public institutions to relegate religion to the private quarters, claiming that it had become irrelevant and anachronistic, especially in matters relating to development in their immediate societies and in the entire world. This opinion was widely adopted in many western countries but disregarded in most other countries around the globe. Thus, religion continued to play significant roles in human relations in most societies of the contemporary world. Nevertheless, recent events, especially since the late 1990s, have forced western scholars and elites to reconsider their stance against religion. For instance, the involvement of Islam in the Arab Spring and the evolving terrorist attacks, with global relevance, have reawakened the consciousness of some western scholars like Juergensmeyer (2009), Haynes (2007), and Fox (2004), who wrote on the relevance of religion to development, especially through its role in peace and conflict situations which are necessary components of every advancement in human societies.

As international terrorism and related events with religious undertone unfold, with their teeming challenges to the wellbeing of individuals and groups in societies across the world, many scholars, including Haynes (2007), Ratzinger and Pera (2006), Knott (2000), and Huntington (1996), have devoted ample time to re-examining the meaning of religion, its nature, functions, and implications for the experience of peace and conflict, either directly by its tenets or indirectly through manipulation by the various elites. Consequently, in addition to the extant notions, many additional assumptions, claims, and theories have evolved in attempts to explain the involvement of religion in peace and conflict, not only as it affects the western world, but also with regard to the non-western countries from which most religious conflicts with global relevance evolve in contemporary times. So, it has become increasingly obvious that there is need for further appreciation of religion alongside its implications for peace and conflict in human society. This paper has, therefore, attempted to critique the divergent scholarly perspectives on religion in order to explain the conditions that inevitably implicate or exonerate religion in the discourse of the occurrence, perception, progression, and culmination of peace and conflict in human society.

2. Statement of Research Problem

The evolved scholarly perceptions have created some unresolved puzzles and have, therefore, compounded the understanding of the observable paradoxical roles that religion plays in the occurrence of peace and conflict, especially through the complexity of the confusions generated by the plethora of the often disagreeing views of religious cum peace and conflict scholars, who unflinchingly propagate the following summarised views. While some scholars like Dawkins (2006), Freud (1990), and Russell (1957) claimed that religion is an anachronistic element in the discourse of peace and conflict issues, especially in the highly developed world, others like Coward and Smith (2004), Fox (2004), Reynal-Querol (2002), Smith (2001), Ellingsen (2000), Huntington (2000), Russett, Oneal, and Cox (2000), Gurr (1994) contended that it finds a perfect fit in the issues relating to peace and conflict. Secondly, while some scholars like Kamali (2017) and Armstrong (2014) emphasised that religion exclusively offers and encourages peace rather than conflict, even though it often lends itself to manipulations for conflict, another category of intellectuals (including Hamid, 2016; Dawkins, 2006; Harris, 2005) averred that it inevitably causes and promotes only conflict. Thirdly, some scholars (including Juergensmeyer, 2009; Shore, 2009; Coward and Smith, 2004; Kimball, 2002; Noll, 2003) contended that religion is a double-edged sword, which perpetually influences the occurrence of peace and conflict at any time.

In addition to creating confusion, the foregoing scholarly perspectives have been found to be mostly biased, making reference to (in most cases) just the aspects of evidences that reinforce their perception of the issue. This is evident in the references made to the canonical and experiential evidences by the scholars who either claimed that religion brings about peace or conflict alone. Also, many of the proponents of the paradoxical roles of religion in the manifestation of peace and conflict could not explain, in explicit terms, the connection between religious tenets and the observed roles of religion. Rather, many scholars, including Kimball (2002) linked the roles of religion in peace and conflict to diverse elitist manipulations for achievement of selfish interests through religious solidarity.

Considering the foregoing complications on the nexus of conflict, peace, and religion, it is necessary to reduce the ambiguity in the general discourse by highlighting the nature of religion, as collectively defined by the different tenets of the varying traditions, in relation to the claims in the light of extant canonical and experiential evidences from historical and contemporary realities. Thus, the paper attempted to explain why religion is usually implicated by both peace and conflict in any condition of their mix, drawing from the stated kinds of evidences, and laying emphasis on the cause(s) of its paradoxical posture.

3. Conceptual Framework

3.1 The Concept of Conflict

According to Cooper (2003: 85), conflict refers to “a collision of opposing interests”, with the collision of the divergent interests ranging from very mild to extremely severe forms. Collision in this regard includes the non-violent and violent forms of disagreement. Conflict involves the disagreement of interests of different parties either by coincidence or design. The divergent interests over which disagreement ensue can be either intangible or tangible, or both. Thus, they include “…ideas, sentiments, attitudes, and feelings”. So, conflict, as applied herein, does not necessarily imply violence or threat of aggression, but disagreement, which may eventually involve aggression and violence in some cases. Therefore, even though conflict can be associated with aggression or violence, its conceptualisation in this paper does not outrightly equate either of them. Accordingly, this paper agrees with the opinion of Swanstrom and Weissmann (2005: 9) that conflict implies "…perceived differences in issue positions between two or more parties at the same moment in time". There must be interference, which upsets an existing balance in a system, for conflict to occur. Such hindrances can result from competition. From the standpoint of Social Darwinism, Cooper (2003) suggested that such interferences are often inevitably generated by insatiable human ambitions, the associated dissatisfaction, and the use of force to impose one's will on those who are unwilling to accept it. Every want or need is achieved by altering a status quo, especially by supporting one interest against the other; every ambition usually contends with others. Thus, scholars like Reychler (2001) and Mayer (2000) have argued that conflict is inevitable, natural, necessary, and normal for developments in human society. Being generated by human ambition, conflict has become as ineradicable from human society as the ambitions from which it is often generated. Reiterating its role in the society, Reychler (2001) posited that conflict possesses both negative and positive attributes, which are often expressed in the forms of violence and strong motivating for modernization and peace-making. Thus, conflict can be good or bad depending on how it is handled.

Some attributes of conflict that are undeniably relevant to this discourse include that except in very few cases, conflicts generally occur in complex forms, having multiple issue-fields, which are sometimes deliberately concealed or disguised to obscure their real character. Some components of the complex issue-field are often more important than others, and are often deliberately introduced as means of manipulation for gaining some bargaining power advantages over opponents. Also, some of the elements of a complex issue-field may be just sentimental or symbolic tokenism that cannot be ignored by any consideration (Cooper, 2003).

3.2 The Concept of Peace

There are many perceptions of the concept of peace out of which the following three more encompassing definitions have been carefully selected. Oyesola (2005) observed that peace was traditionally defined in the context of inter-state relations to imply absence of war (i.e. pax Romana or absentia bellum), a condition in which actors decline the use of direct violence. In this case, the disapproval of direct violence implies the approval of structural violence, which seeks to maintain a specific condition in favour of some powerful minority, thereby promoting the accumulation of wrongs, waiting for triggering events to initiate violence in the future. This is in tandem with the thoughts of some scholars (Mavalla, 2015; Mavalla, 2014; Noll, 2014; Ramsbotham, Woodhouse, and Miall, 2005) that similar to conflict, peace basically exists in two forms - positive and negative peace. Conversely, in the Greco-Arabic-Hebraic perspective, peace (i.e. eirenesala 'am-shalom) implies the prevalence of equity, freedom, and justice in human society. It is evident that this perspective describes a condition that can hardly promote the prevalence of conflict, either as direct or structural violence, and yet unable to totally eradicate it. Finally, the Chinese concept of p'ing-p'ingho implies harmony and order in the world and in social and personal organisation (Oyesola, 2005), a perception which seems to promote the idea of a condition of absence of conflict or state of an ordered status quo which balances the extremities of chaos and tranquillity.

Being that human relations are constantly replete with conflict, peace cannot be accurately defined as the absence of conflict. On the other hand, the prevalence of equity, freedom, and justice in human society can only be in relative terms as the interests of all and sundry people cannot be equally promoted at any time. Distortion of any existent harmony is a persistent phenomenon in human society, therefore, the p'ing-p'ingho perspective can only be relatively realisable. Thus, to avoid the extremism associated with the foregoing perceptions of peace, this paper rather defines peace as a condition or situation of limited occurrence of conflict (with indivisible goals) and minimal escalation of incompatibilities into violent forms. Borrowing from Shtromas's (1995: 19) perception of peace (though on a discourse of peace in International Relations), it also herein implies the "…[existence] of an effectively working system of authoritative conflict settlement and resolution which could reliably efface the possibility [of] resorting to the violent resolution of conflicts" (emphases are ours).

3.3 The Concept of Religion

Religion is one of the numerous concepts that scholars find difficult to define. In fact, Haynes (2007: 13) referred to the attempt to define and conceptualise religion as "…a notoriously difficult task". This is probably because it "…evokes a wide variety of images, ideas, practices, beliefs, and experiences" (Kimball, 2002: 15), which makes it difficult for scholars to reach a consensus on its real meaning. Therefore, some of the different conceptual perspectives on religion have been highlighted and a deduction made for its application herein. According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary, religion is "a cause, principle, or system of beliefs held to with ardour and faith [or] an interest, a belief, or an activity that is very important to a person or group" (emphasis is ours). Relatedly, Huntington (1996: 27) defined religion as "…the central…force that motivates and mobilizes people", while Kimball (2002: 16) averred that religion implies "…human thinking about or engagement with God, gods, or some less personal understanding of ultimate reality…", a personal or group response to the wish of being transcendent through such activities as "prayer, worship services, rituals, moral codes, and so on". Borrowing from Justice Field, Peñalver (1997: 795) described religion as "…one's views of his relations to his Creator, and to the obligations they [the views] impose of reverence for his being and character, and of obedience to his [the Creator's] will" (emphases are ours). Approaching it from a broader dimension, religion may be regarded as a system of beliefs and practices which are sometimes connected to ultimate being(s), which is/are perceived to be supernatural, with the beliefs and practices involving a body of sacred and inviolate ideas and worldviews which consist of the theology or ethical codes that guide the behaviour of people in human society (culled from Haynes, 2007; Haynes, 1998; Aquaviva, 1979).

From a deductive standpoint, religion, herein, implies a set of inviolate perceptions of reality, which relates to an adopted worldview that mostly emanates from people's inclination to and belief in supernatural beings whose perceived ethical injunctions must be observed as the only appropriate moral guide for human behaviour. It is a set of principles meant to guide the processes of training of the mind and the whole person for rational thought and choices of behaviour from which people must not deviate; it herein connotes an inclusion of all and sundry belief traditions relating to spiritual and supernatural beings and influences.

At this juncture, it is imperative that some clarifications be made on the existent forms of religion, especially because its forms seem to affect its relationship with peace and conflict at every instance. Haynes (2007) noted that despite the observable variation in belief and content, religion can be, simply, classified into theistic and non-theistic forms. Theistic religions are those in which a god or gods are worshipped, including Christianity, Islam, Judaism, and African traditional religions. Conversely, non-theistic religions consist of those in which God or gods is/are not involved, for instance Buddhism, Jainism, and Taoism. The theistic religions are further classified into mono- and poly-theistic religions. Whereas monotheistic religions (e.g. Christianity, Islam, Judaism, and Sikhism) involve a focus on and worship of just one God, polytheistic religions (e.g. African traditional religions, Native American Toltec tradition, and Shinto) involve a hierarchy of gods. Hinduism violates these preceding classifications: It is both a mono- and poly- theistic religion because, even though many gods are involved, most of its adherents believe that the numerous deities associated with Hinduism are actually different manifestations of the same God. Moreover, Hinduism is sometimes considered to be non-theistic because its metaphysical philosophy is very akin to Buddhist Vedanta. Religions are also classified as Abrahamic or Judeo-Abrahamic (i.e. Christianity, Islam, and Judaism) and non-Abrahamic (i.e. every other) religions. While the former lays claims to Abraham the patriarch, the latter do not, and while the former religions are monotheistic, the latter are mostly polytheistic (Ratzinger and Pera 2006; Knott 2000).

4. Basic Characteristics of Religion

Discussing the inherent features of religion is germane to the comprehension of the arguments raised in this discourse, because, the characteristics of religion determine its influence on the prevalence of peace or conflict. The first characteristic of religion is that each of its traditions has and promotes a form of "…rigid theology of exclusivism…[which is often] woven into the rhetoric of…" everyday life like discussion of issues, problems, and solution (Kimball, 2002: 5; emphasis is ours). This implies that every religion has its own inflexible and uncompromising beliefs which are specifically prescribed and proscribed for adherence by its followers. Such beliefs and practices may be similar to, but never the same with any other type (Toft, 2007). For instance, while Christians believe and promote the conviction that Jesus is the Son of God, the Muslims declare that Jesus was a prophet. Also, (as noted by Kimball, 2002), while Christians claim that God is tripartite (consisting of the Father, Son, and Spirit), the Muslims insist that God is one and only. So, even though these claims promote monotheism, they do not agree on their approaches. This controversy also exists with the traditional religions in Africa and elsewhere, which perceive and promote the idea of a hierarchy of lesser gods who minister to the Almighty God. A second, but closely related, characteristic of religion is that every tradition presents its own truths about reality as the exclusively right practices which must be universally accepted. Every other truths are false and unacceptable and therefore must be resisted. Thus, religion promotes disparaging worldviews and disagreeing truth claims by distinguishing between the sacred and profane, by means of determining events which constitute sacred stories associated to particular people, places, times, and objects (Toft, 2007; Kimball, 2002).

The third characteristic is that religion, especially Christian and Islamic traditions, often subscribes to evangelism with the intent to convert others from their faith. Such conversions may be peaceful (in the forms of personal and open-air evangelisms) or violent (in the forms of religious coercion including crusades). Fourth, by encouraging its adherents to be totally committed to the principles of the particular traditions they align with, religion lends itself to rigid intolerance and uncompromising stances. Consequently, the fifth character of religion is that, in the purest form of any of its traditions, religion simply approves totalitarianism as well as fundamentalism. Adhering to all recommended principles of a religion (in thought and action) without willingness to defect in any of them or allowing others to do so or to corrupt the perceived purity of a tradition is what fundamentalism and religious totalitarianism are all about. Incidentally, fundamentalism is promoted by all religions, even though subtly and non-violently (in the forms of evangelism for instance) in many cases. Moderation, in this regard, is often just by word of mouth without a well-defined benchmark of actions, and can be tolerated, mainly, as long as the core or fundamental beliefs are not tampered with. Religious moderation is only a chimera for any tradition in its natural circumstances. This promotes indivisibility of religious tenets, thereby making them prone to conflict or peace depending on the situation at hand.

Sixth, religion creates differential enclaves for adherents of the many traditions by deliberately structuring their lives along sacred annual events like Christmas, Passover, Hajj, Diwali, Buddha's enlightenment, and the numerous festivals of the traditional religions like those in Africa. These traditions serve for re-enactment of beliefs and rededication of the adherents to their religious commitments. Moreover, religion uses some life-cycle rituals to initiate its adherents into the different stages of human life including birth, coming of age, initiation into the community, marriage, and death. These rituals go with provision of social organisations for their adherents, thereby fashioning their social life to conform to their organisation's moral etiquettes. The rituals often occur in places specially dedicated for worship. Accordingly, Zanaz (2016) recalled that the mosque is not simply a place of worship but a place to make young Muslims become true believers and soldiers of Islam. Interestingly, places of worship of all other religious traditions serve the same or similar purposes; whether they be churches, temples, or shrines, future generation of adherents are groomed in them. Seventh, religion, by its ability to carve niches for adherents of its numerous traditions, provides for segregative worldviews, a "we" and "they" attitude (Kimball, 2002: 13). Thus, religion is akin to and evidently aligns with apartheid, ethnocentrism, nepotism, racism, and all forms of discrimination.

The eighth characteristic of religion is that it instils both conscious and subconscious fear of the unknown in its adherents, while also filling them with guilt over their failure to meet up with the demands of their tradition. This fear often influences their behaviour since they often believe that their deeds will be judged for rewards. Thus, adherents of religious traditions often ultimately strive to please their God or gods and for this reason, they may not often care about pleasing people or any other entity. This is why people sometimes go to any length to defend or protect their convictions. An example of this situation can be found in Galatians 1:10, which states: "Am I now seeking human approval, or God's approval? Or am I trying to please people? If I were still pleasing people, I would not be a servant of God". Madany (2017) captured the reality of both the guilt and fear argument by commenting thus: "Every good Muslim is guilt-ridden for failing to establish the Islamic State, either by persuasion, or through violence. A Muslim remains mired in the sacred, in the forbidden, in the halal, in Paradise, in Hell; and paralyzed by the mere thought of the torments of the tomb" (quoting Hamid, 2016, para. 11). As before, this observation is not peculiar to Islam but cuts across all the theistic religions.

The ninth characteristic of religion, especially the Abrahamic traditions, is that it promotes physical self-sacrifice as a way of pleasing the supernatural for consequent reward with immortality and eternity. Adherents have to discount their physical survival by sacrificing the temporary and mortal in order to obtain the eternal and immortal. This is often presented as a rational and desirable way of showing commitment to and defending one's faith; it is usually interpreted as a true test of faith (Toft, 2007). Finally, the tenth character of religion is that it plays a dual role of making peace and causing conflict. This was highlighted by Juergensmeyer (2009: ix and x) that:

Its [religion's] role…is frequently contradictory. In some cases it provides the resources for shared values…helps to ease the cultural difficulties experienced in multi-cultural societies by providing the shared values that allow peoples of diverse cultures to live together in harmony. In other cases it sounds a prophetic note by warning against the superficial aspects of a homogenous global culture. And in extreme cases it also fosters ideologies of rebellion that embolden its proponents to reject globalisation and reassert traditional allegiances, sometimes with quite violent methods (emphasis is ours).

5. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of analysis adopted for this discussion is the indivisibility thesis; a theory originally postulated for explaining the occurrence of civil wars in relation to their causes, especially those that can be linked to religion. This framework of analysis was adopted to explain the nature of religion vis-à-vis the aforementioned, sometimes, contradictory roles that it plays with regard to peace and conflict. Of particular relevance to the stated explanations is Hassner's (2003: 933) expansion of the indivisibility thesis, which explained that an issue field only becomes indivisible if it possesses "integrity", "boundary", and the quality of "nonfungibility" which combine to make a conflict hard to resolve or even manage. An issue field that possesses "integrity" is one whose "subjective value" significantly diminishes if and when "parcelled out or subdivided". In terms of "boundary", an issue field that possesses boundary is one that has clearly defined limits. Finally, an issue field possesses the quality of "nonfungability" if it cannot be substituted or exchanged. Thus, an issue field possesses the quality of being indivisible when its real or perceived nature or character makes the contending actors to adopt stances that are incommensurable with all other claims to the issue field, thereby making it impossible for redistribution of the issue filed to take place.

With regard to the foregoing, the adopted analytical stance for this discourse is that at any instance, religion may or may not cause, promote, abate, or stop either peace or conflict or a concurrence of both of them, nor even lend itself to manipulation for any of them, except the issue at stake is actually indivisible, misperceived or manipulated to appear to be indivisible. Also, the reality of the perceptions and manipulability of issue fields that are relatable to religion are merely possible because of the rigid stances of religious creeds of the varying traditions. Finally, the rigid stances of religious traditions, with regard to the claims they make, consist of the determinants of religion's influence on peace and conflict.

6. Religion's Contribution to Peace and Conflict

Although religion is philosophical, it is basically pragmatic as well; philosophical because it is linked to reasoning and pragmatic because it has utilitarian value which aims at defining and compelling particular human behaviours as (un)acceptable in the society. The philosophical dimension of religion is often communicated through teaching and learning processes with the aim of equipping the individual to develop certain behavioural traits required for his/her present and future wellbeing. Thus, from childhood, parents and guardians often consciously teach their religious beliefs and practices to their young ones. The transmission of the religious tenets by these means often lead to collective systems of thought and action which become lifelong ideas and behaviours that influences peace and conflict in the society. For instance, Williams (2010), making reference to the comments of John Wesley's mother – Susanna – in a letter to him (John Wesley), observed that inculcation of religious tradition and culture in the individual from childhood was, and is still, a basic requirement from Christian parents. This is because such training is necessary to tame self-will in favour of the will of God. Only parents who work hard to train their children to think and act in the ways favoured by their religion are perceived to be doing the will of God. Thus, most children brought up in this manner will usually be influenced by the attitudes, culture, and tradition inculcated in them at childhood throughout life. This agrees with Proverbs 22:6 which states thus: "Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old, he will not depart from it". This conditioning of the mind for acceptable thoughts and actions does not end with childhood trainings. Deliberate structuring of people's lives with periodically strategic rituals and organisations help to consolidate the childhood trainings by re-enacting the beliefs and rededicating the adherents to their religious faiths.

From childhood to adulthood, the imbibed religious philosophies and practices often define the way of life of people, flowing from their sub-conscious mind to shape their choices in life. Considering the differences in the tenets of the varying religious traditions in the society and their often-rigid form of theological exclusivism, the society inevitably becomes prone to being deeply divided on religious grounds; a condition that creates the "we" and "them" mentality with the attendant sensitivity to the points of disagreement, even when there are no imminent threats. Thus, every issue in the society becomes prone to having multiple dimensions necessitated by the multiple religious stances. This is especially so in multi-religious societies like Nigeria. With this condition in place, it becomes easy to influence the thoughts and behaviours of the adherents of any particular religious tradition through their associated religious persuasions, for promoting either peace or conflict. This is why Karl Marx referred to religion as "opium of the masses". Accordingly, Hjelm (2016) noted that in the history of the world, no other instrument of legitimisation has been as widespread and effective as religion; and that this is because religion's procession of legitimation employs recognition of socially defined reality through an association of the precarious reality constructions of empirical societies with ultimate reality.

While religious exclusivism is a factor of conflict on its own, it becomes more prone to engendering conflict when combined with the usual competition for conversion of souls between and among the adherents of the varied religious traditions in the society. This is especially because it is part of the basic injunctions of religious traditions as exemplified with the call in Matt. 28:19 for Christians to go to every part of the world to convert people to Christians. Many religious traditions (especially the Abrahamic religions) subscribe to the call for massive conversion of people of other religious and non-religious persuasions while wanting their adherents to be practically intolerant to such moves from their counterparts. Moreover, the approval of totalitarianism and fundamentalism largely contradicts the moves for soul winning. So, no matter how subtle the approach may be, attempt to convert souls from other persuasions will always generate conflict, even though such conflict may not result in instant violence.

Being that religion backs up its totalitarian and fundamentalist stances with exposure of their adherents to threats of eternal losses which creates fear and feelings of guilt in their conscious and sub-conscious minds against unachieved expectations, it sometimes compels adherents to go out of their ways to take actions that they feel necessary to overcome their fears and guilt. The rewards that religion promises to those who may attain certain levels of spirituality encourage them the more even to the point of physical self-sacrifice like self-immolation and suicide bombing. Although these extremist actions are not often so stated, they are directly implied. This is why some adherents can murder anybody who may resists their religions in any serious form; they may even cause their own deaths in the process.

These negative aspects of the characteristics of religion do not imply that religion lacks qualities that promote peace. However, religion promotes conflict more than it promotes peace between and among different traditions. Most of its peaceful characteristics like similarities in deities worshiped, belief systems, and approaches are more effective in an in-group situation, where there are usually less occurrence of the "we" and "them" situations. Thus, even though religion has both tendency for causing and promoting peace and conflict, whether it generates more peace or conflict will usually depend on whether the situation at hand is an in-group or out-group situation.

7. Conclusion

From all of the foregoing logical expositions on the traits of religion, it is obvious that the basic characteristics of religion makes it prone to cause, forestall, promote, sustain, abate, and eliminate either of peace or conflict. Religion, by its nature, has comparatively equal inclination towards conflict and peace until it is manipulated for the desired achievement. Nevertheless, its inclination is greater towards peace than conflict in an in-group than outgroup situation, especially where the in-group is fairly homogeneous as against the often heterogeneity of the outgroup. When religion is successfully manipulated for achievement of selfish reasons, the manipulation mainly becomes possibly effective because the nature of religion – the indivisibility of its claims – lends it to such manipulations. Religion seems to remain in a balanced inert state of existence between conflict and peace until its balance is tilted in favour of any of its inclinable conditions. Depending on the person(s), group(s), institution(s), and condition(s) at stake, religion is a double-edged sword that can be used to achieve either conflict or peace depending on the interest(s) of the wielder. Being that its subjective values are usually clearly defined, cannot be subdivided or parcelled out, nor substituted, religion always have to be manipulated to achieve either peace or conflict, for it does not, on its own, discard one for the other but equally incorporates the two phenomena.

8. Recommendations

Based on the observations made in this discourse, it is suggested that peace and conflict scholars begin to rethink their stances on the role of religion in peace and conflict, especially with the obvious reality that religion has equal inclination to peace and conflict, even though the balance can be tilted by the consideration of certain factors and manipulation; all stakeholders should embark on massive education or re-education of their masses on the reality of the challenges and opportunities posed by the characteristics of religion. Such education or re-education can help people to readily detect dangerous manipulations of religion by any stakeholder and to avoid aligning with such manipulations; So, rather than maintaining the largely utopian views which either exonerates or implicates religion, the realist perspective of religion being able to cause, promote, abate, or stop either of peace or conflict should be taught and promoted. This will help people to know the expected limits of their socio-religious actions thereby promoting peaceful coexistence despite their religious diversities.

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The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea and International Maritime Disputes: A Case Study of the South China Sea

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Abstract. International Maritime Unity where the whole world would collectively use the oceans, which occupies over 70% of the earth surface and its resources have been of great concern over the years. To accomplish this lofty goal, independent nations came together to put their ideas together in a well codified document in 1958 and 1982, leading to the final adoption of the United Nations Convention on the law of the Sea in 1994 (UNCLOS). This document, amongst other things gave 12 nautical miles from the base line as national territorial sea, and a 200 nautical mile as Exclusive Economic Zone. This paper therefore probes into the effectiveness of this international maritime regime in the settlement of the disputed Spratly islands and waters of the South China Sea claimed by China up to 90% and in contest by five other South East Asian Nations; Vietnam, the Philippine, Malaysia, Taiwan and Brunei. It concludes that China had not abided by the UNCLOS by insisting on its ownership claims in the disputed islands and water despite the decision of an arbitration tribunal. It however recommends, among other things, economic exclusion of China to serve as deterrent to other potentially belligerent nations.

Keywords: United Nations, Convention, Law, Sea, Dispute, International Maritime

1. Introduction

From time immemorial, the sea has been of immeasurable and invaluable importance to humankind. The sea was/is a means of communication between the peoples occupying various parts of the world as the sea is linked together the world over. Also, the sea is a major source of various kinds of mineral resources and aquatic organisms. This has necessitated the development of rules that will guild international behaviour in the use of the sea to avoid clashes over ownership of islands and territorial waters. Consequently, the law of the sea was developed with the fundamental principles that the land set areas of the sea, and therefore, “the land territorial situation constitutes the starting point for the determination of the maritime rights of a coastal state” (Shaw, 2008).

Before the law of the sea was fashioned, attempt was made by states to control the seas by making it part of their national possession as was the case with Portugal in the seventeenth century. A national right over the seas was seriously berated prompting response from the statesman of obvious distinction, Hugo Grotius. In a publication titled *Mare Liberum*, he postulated the doctrine of freedom of the sea(Grotius,1950). The reason for Grotius stance was in order that the Dutch could participate in the East Indian Trade. This view later prevailed due partly to the fact that it coincided with the thoughts of European states especially in Northern Europe who had long demanded freedom of the sea so that they could explore and expand trade up to the East.

The freedom of the sea later became an integral norm of international law even if it was not initially applicable to all seas. Before the 20th century, much of the history of the law of the sea revolves around the extent of the territorial sea or its demarcation with the high sea and other known zones.

States along the coast later exercised control in the contiguous zone and there is currently a shift in international law to support of control of larger zone by these coastal states exclusively. Shaw noted that:
The predominance of the concept of the freedom of the high sea has been modified by the realization of

resources present in the seas and seabed beyond the territorial seas. Parallel with the developing tendency to assert ever greater claims over the high seas, however, has been the move towards proclaiming a 'common heritage of mankind' regime over the seabed of the high sea. (Shaw,2008)

To effectively manage the conflicting principles of the law of the sea, a series of conferences were held which ultimately led to four 1958 conventions on the law of the sea. The 1982 law of the sea conference started as early as 1974. This 360 articles and 9 Annexes convention was adopted by the votes of 130 countries to 4, with 17 abstentions and entered into force on November 16, 1994 a year after the required ratification by 60 state parties.

Arguably, the most essential part of UNCLOS is the rule of 12 miles of territorial sea for exclusive shipping and 200-miles Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) for economic activities such as fishing and mining. Accordingly, the 200 miles EEZ placed a large disproportionate share of maritime resources in the control of very few coastal states. Though outside the EEZ, a procedure was devised through an International Sea-Bed authority, for equitable exploration of the riches left in the ocean (beyond the 200 nautical miles). It is important to note that the exclusive economic zones (EEZ) of all coastal states covers a third of all oceans of the world.(Goldstein and Pavehouse,2010:184)

Control of islands and its large exclusive economic zone have given rise to a number of protracted inter-state conflicts some resulting to outright war. This paper therefore posits that the issue of EEZ contained in the UNCLOS, rather than help resolve inter-state maritime disputes exacerbates it. This case is espoused quite elaborately with specific references to the spratly islands in South China Sea.

2. An Overview of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea

Before this convention came into being in 1994, several conventions had been negotiated in 1958. These were: Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contigious Zone, 1958; Convention on the High Sea, 1958; Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Sea, 1958 and Convention on the Continental Shelf 1958.

In the seventeenth century national rights over the territorial seas was limited to only 3 nautical miles from the coastline. However, it became necessary for coastal states to argue in favour of its expansion due to certain factors. The first was an increasing concern over charge collected on fish stocks of coastal states during long distance fishing. There was also a fear of pollution from waste dumped by transport ships and oil vessels carrying destructive substances. The piles of these wastes had threatened coastal settlements by destroying its businesses especially coastal resort.

This led to claims and counter claims of territorial seas, competition over fish stocks in coastal states waters, expanding maritime pollution and destruction of marine life, growing concern over the exploration of resources on the ocean floor. The fear of a catastrophic international maritime war led to the declaration of the freedom of the sea doctrine.

The UNCLOS ultimately emerged to settle the numerous issues that arose from the use of the ocean and its resources. This was necessary because the ocean was seen as the most important sources of man's survival. Accordingly, the convention's most important character is the clarification of issues relating to shipping and navigational rights territorial sea limit, the exclusive economic zone, conversation and control of living marine resource, maritime protection, marine research regime, a binding procedure for settlement of inter-state disputes, etc.(Oceans and Law of the Sea, the United Nations,1998)

The entire gamut of issue affecting interstate relations on the high sea is exhaustively dealt by UNCLOS. These issue ranges from the legal status of the territorial sea, of the airspace over the territorial sea, and of its bed and subsoil. Others are the right of innocent passage of ships through national territorial waters, the exclusive economic zone, etc.

3. UNCLOS and the Intensification of the Disputes in the South China Sea

The ocean contributes enormously to the sustenance of mankind. Without the ocean man may not survive as a fact! "80 percent of the world's population live on or near a coast and 90 percent of international commerce travels by sea. Additionally, about 65 percent of the world's oil reserves and 35 percent of the world's gas reserves are located in the oceans". (Reveron,2010).

Going back to ancient history, it would be recollected vividly that groups along water bodies were the earliest to attain the status to be described as civilization, e.g.,the Nile Valley and Egyptian Civilization. Realizing this, coastal states have made spirited effort to expand their control over their territorial waters.

The world nations realizing what these clamour could lead to negotiated the United Nations Convention on the law of the sea to set up modalities for the equitable use of the ocean and it resources by all nations.

Accordingly, coastal states were given 12 nautical miles of territorial sea where it could exercise sovereignty over the territorial sea, the airspace, seabed and subsoil. Within the 12 nautical miles of territorial sea, a coastal states have the right to exclude foreigners from the economic activities including foreign fishing vessels and trading. The coastal state by its sovereignty over the territory controls or ensures security and custom affairs. It is equally important to note that these right of coastal states do not apply to the right of other nations to innocent passage.

Of great importance is the issue of the exclusive economic zone which extends 200 nautical miles from baseline (the low-water mark around the coasts of the state). Coastal states have the right to explore, exploit, conserve, and manage the natural resources in this area whether living or non-living. This extends to the waters superjacent to the seabed and of the seabed and its subsoil; production of energy from the water, currents and wind. This sovereignty also extends to the architecture and use of artificial islands, installations and structures; marine scientific research; and the protection and preservation of the marine environment.

Islands –"a naturally formed area of land, surrounded by water, which is above water at high tide"(Convention on Territorial Sea, Article 10(1)) are equally allotted or generate a territorial sea, contigious zone, exclusive economic zone, and if need be, continental shelf. This does not apply in situations where rock which cannot sustain life on its own or economic activity is deliberately or enormously considered an island.

These enormous benefits allotted to coastal states and extended to islands have been a major cause of bitter and perennial maritime disputes in the South China Sea. Other maritime disputes still exist, for instance, in 1982, Britain and Argentina fought a 10-weeks undeclared war over what the British called Falklands, and the Argentines called Malvinas in the Atlantic (Farley, 2018). Also, the moment, the international court of justice, which is one of the channels of resolving international maritime disputes, is set to convene on September 9, to listen to oral submissions by Kenya and Somalia.(Wakaya,2019).Somalia is claiming an estimated 62,000 square miles' oil rich triangle in the Indian Ocean based on article 15 of the Convention of the Law of the Sea.

Kenya on its part insisted that the territory was under her control before the convention became effective.
Coming back to the South China Sea; long before the inception of recognize international maritime law, and throughout much of pre-modern history, the South China Sea played a pivotal role as an 'intersection of history' as the primary route for the vital trade connection between China and India, Europe, and Middle East. Many of the claims to the South China Sea are derived from this pre-modern era on the basis that traders and admirals stilted on or stopped at the Spratly and Paracel islands while traversing the South China Sea on trading trips.(Black, 2018).

The Chinese government claims what is contrary to the stipulations of UNCLOS on the definition of Territorial Waters, Contiguous Waters, and Exclusive Economic Zone. Their claim in the South China Sea is often referred to as the nine-dashed line claim. This claim is based on Young Huaizen's map designed in 1947 for the Nationalist Government that Fell after communist take –over in 1949. A renewed claim in 1999 came closer to the shores of nations in that part of the continent than did the map of 1947. As if the Chinese Government has a plan of escalating tension in the region, it defined the extent of its 200nm with the resultant effect of building artificial islands in the Malaysian and Philippian EEZ.

Since the late Ming Period (1403-1644), the South China Sea has been considered international waters, due to an increased European presence as a result of the activities of their trade companies. There is also a fundamental difference between the Chinese understanding of the South China Sea and European view. The Asian contesting states –Malaysia, Taiwan, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Brunei – were seen as tributaries of China or states that paid levy to China in return for protection during this period. This system prevailed throughout most of the Chinese contemporary history until the European colonization of Asia; especially the French colonization of Vietnam in 1885,(Black,(China was unable to render the required protection). It is this trade- route argument that has dominated the Chinese claims in all judicial proceedings. It is equally important to note that:

One third of global shipping, or a total of US$3.37 trillion of international trade, passes through the South China Sea. About 80 percent of china oil imports arrives via the strait of Malacca, in Indonesia, and then sail across the South China Sea to reach China … the area contains at least 11 billion barrels of oil and 190 trillion cubic feet of natural gas… the South China Sea also accounts for 10 percent of the world's fisheries making it a key source of food for hundreds of millions of people(This Weekend in Asia, 2019).

The above is the obvious reasons whyChina will go any length to win over the islands,and its EEZ. The Philippines is also a major contestant in the South China Sea with claims in the following areas; Scarborough Shoal; Thomas Shoal (site the of a beached former U.S Navy LST), Reed bank (also Reed Table mount) and served features in the Spratly island Chain, also contested by Vietnam and Taiwan.

The Scarborough Shoal is an area highly contested because its rich with fishes. The Philippines were the original fishermen of this area, but they are currently prevented from doing so due to rotating coast guard vessels that is intended to prevent further entry. The Chinese also erected fouling cables to prevent entry. Thomas Shoal was also beached as preventing maneuvreto prevent China form further occupying features near the Philippines coast.(Rosen, 2014). The features in the Spratly Island Chain is roughly 100 nautical miles west of Palawan Island and was the site of Philippines oil exploration activities in the past. "China's assertion of its nine-dashed-line claim to the South China Sea in its 2009 filing with the UN Commission on the Limits of the Continental Shelf (CLCS) and its most recent action to exclude Philippines fishermen from the waters around Scarborough Shoal emboldened the Philippines government to seek assistance from an international arbitration tribunal."(Rosen, 2014)

It is necessary to go a bit into history to fully understand the position of the Philippines in the South China Sea disputes. After the defeat of Spain in the Spanish – American war, the government of Spain ceded what is today called the Philippines to the United States. This cession of land and territorial waters was formalized through the Treaty of Paris at which the land and water boundaries of the Philippines was clarified inside what is called a Treaty Box. This box was drawn around the 7,107 islands that formed the Philippines archipelago.

The Philippines senate passed Act No 4003 in 1932, categorizing the water body within the Treaty Box as Philippines territorial waters so that fishing, law, defence and resources development could be regulated.(Rosen,2014: p.2)

In 1933, the United States gave up all the lands and waters it gained from the Spaniard to the people of the Philippines but retained some powers as the protector of the Philippines until 1946 when they were formally granted self-rule. Accordingly, they then took charge of all the territories in the Treaty Box. These territories included the Scarborough Shoal, notable features in the Spratly island chain like Reed Bank, Mischief Reef, Itu Aba, second Thomas Shoal and Fiery Cross Reef together called Kalayaan Island Group (KIG). It is important also to note that these land and water territories were claimed based on the principles of discovery and effective occupation which was not contested by any nation as at the time of independence from the United States. To further maintain control over the archipelago, the Philippines government notified the UN Secretary General in 1955 that if classified the waters within the Treaty Box as internal waters. A series of 80 straight baselines draw the islands more closely and changed the claims of the previous Treaty Box. This was backed by Act No 3046 of June 7, 1961.

The varying position is that which the Philippines admitted that part of the area contested, e.g the Scarborough Shoal, was never in the so called Treaty Box, it insisted that base on effective occupation, it has jurisdiction over the territory (also known as Bajode Masinloc). This territory, they admitted, may have been discovered by Spain and ceded to the United States.

China, on the other hand, exercised sovereignty over, for instance, all territories claimed on the ground that they acquired sovereignty through discovery and occupation before anyone else.

On the part of Malaysia, it submitted a formal claim on parts of the Spratly islands in the South China to the UN Commission on the Continental Shelf on May 6, 2009. The submissions concern the northern coast of Eastern Malaysia consisting of the states of Sarawak and Sabah on the Island of Borneo. This followed its statement upon ratification of UNCLOSin 1996.

The Malaysian position was quickly contested by the People's Republic of China through a diplomatic note submitted to the UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon on May, 2009.(Finkbeiner,2013:p.5) The statement claimed that:

China has indisputable sovereignty over the islands in the South China Sea, and enjoys sovereign right and jurisdiction over the relevant waters ….continental shelf beyond 200 nautical miles as contained in the Joint Submission by Malaysia and

….Vietnam has seriously infringed China's sovereignty. (Finkbeiner, p.5-6)

On the whole, Malaysia seem to have stronger claims because it exercises some form of occupation of about 5 of the islands contested by China, while China does not. However, China – Malaysia ties seems relatively cordial since it established diplomatic ties in 1974. With little issues especially due to China's support for the outlayed Malaysian Communist Party, a party whose membership was predominantly Chinese, both countries have strengthened relations over the years. After a high profile Malaysian delegation to China led by Prime Minister Abdullah Badawi (2003-2009) and third of his cabinet and over 500 businessmen. Both countries signed a communiqué pledging "to further strength consultation and coordination at the UN, Asian Regional Forum (ARF) APEC, ASEM (the Asia Europe Meeting) WHO and other multilateral Fora".(Finkbeiner, p.9) The communiqué further made open that:

Both sides also agreed to maintain peace and stability in the South China Sea and to promote the settlement of disputes through friendly bilateral consultations and negotiations in accordance with universally recognized principles of international law, including the 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea. The two sides expressed their readiness to study the follow-up actions on the implementation of the Declaration on the Conduct of Parties in the South China Sea. (Finkbeiner,2013)

In spite of the Chinese Military presence in the South China Sea – Malaysia, seems less concern and have increased her trade relations with China over the years.

In Vietnam, the Chinese forcefully capture the Paracel islands in 1974 and the PLA Navy went further to fire bullets in order to take control over some islands in the South China Sea in 1988. The Mischief Reef (1995) and Scarborough Shoal (2012) have been held by Vietnam for many years but had only developed the parts close to its mainland and deliberately avoided military projects that might be seen as offensive by China. Vietnam is also expanding the lands, it occupies by creating land where there was previously water and powering houses on these island with solar. According to the Asian Maritime Transparency Initiative, one of the cardinal reason why these islands is being developed is in order for China to encounter great difficulty if it makes an attempt to reclaim it (Voice of America, April 22,2019).

China's relations with Vietnam over the South China Sea had been characterized by treat and count-treat. Last year, the Vietnamese government increased it claims in the South China Sea by attempting to strengthen ties with the United States. Accordingly, one of the largest U. S Navy Ship, Carl Vinson visited the Danong harbour which is the closest to the disputed Paracel islands. The message this visit sent to theChinese government is that Vietnam has a powerful friend which is ready to engage in case of a military confrontation in the South China Sea. Although this could still be misleading considering key issues in the country's foreign policy. Attempt was also made by China to drill the disputed Paracel islands in 2014 but torpedoed when the Vietnamese government sent a high profile delegation to the United States for talks. China have constructed artificial islands in the Spratly and Threatened Vietnamese Military bases.

Also in a bid to exercise control over the disputed SCC, in 2-017, Respell – a Spanish energy company was granted license by the Vietnamese government to drill for mineral resources of the country's Southeastern coast. This provoked an immediate response by the Chinese government who threatened military attack on the Vanguard Bank.(Hayton,2019). The contract was revoked, especially due to the fact that the project did not have international backing. The dispute still lingers till date.

Brunei was the least vociferous in the claims in the South China Sea. Perhaps its size and wealth was the cause of this posture (it's a tiny Islamic sultanate). As a result, it became extremely dependent on China for economic and political assistance – both countries have made series of large investment agreement haven improved relations.

Brunei do not claim as much parts of the South China Sea as other contenders. It claims only the 200 nautical miles of Exclusive Economic Zone entitled to as stipulated by the UNCLOS. There are also other of its legal entitlements in the Southern portion of the disputed sea especially Rifleman Bank, Owen Shoal, and Louisa Reef. Brunei do no directly developed any occupy and of the islands neither does it build up any military garrison with which she could enforce such claim. Accordingly, Brunei published its map in 1984 and its edited version in 1988 clarifying its legal boundaries in line with UNCLOS. Since then, it has not made open its means of claiming this proposed territorial sea. Brunei had watched the tension between China, Vietnam and the Philippines in the South China Sea as it if had no stake in the conflict.

China had effectively manipulated some non-clamant nation in the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) – Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos – not to be too vociferous on the issues through economic aid since these countries were extremely poor. As reported:

In recent years Beijing appears to have added Brunei … to the list of ASEAN nations potentially willing to display greater deterrence to China's claims in the South China Sea. The apparent shift manifested in April 2016 when Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Yi announced that China had reached a four-point consensus with Brunei, Laos and Cambodia on the South China Sea issue, agreeing the disputes were not an issue for ASEAN and should instead be resolved through dialogue and consultations between the parties directly concerned (Hart, 2018)

This diplomatic maneuvering was a big gain for Chain because it marked the first time it had succeeded in convincing a clamant nation into accepting its own stance (Hart, 2018) of not reaching agreement on the South China Sea through multilateral forums but rather bilateral talks between the nations involved. As earlier note, China is very much involved in Brunei's economy and it does not want to risk the numerous deals by strengthening its claims in the South China Sea.

Taiwan is claimed by China as part of its territory. Although it has its own government, military and allies, China had insisted on what it calls 'one China policy' and frowns at any attempt to recognize Taiwan as a separate country. This had made it difficult to boldly insist on having a share of the South China Sea. It is not also sure whether to claims waters already controlled by mainland China or those claimed by other coastal states that are disputants. A proposal was advanced by Hayton(Sands,2019) for the replacement of claimed territory (though silent) called U-shaped line with far more proven indigenous claim that is based on historical records. But any attempt to also make it open will be interpreted as unilateral declaration of independence and will certainly elicit political and perhaps, military response from China. The obvious truth however, is that Taiwan would have to make independent claim that must be consistent with UNCLOS stipulations.

4. The Economic and Geo-Strategic Importance of the South China Sea

The South China Sea lane is considered the busiest and most essential sea lane in the world. The World Trade Organization (WTO) reported in 2017 that an estimated 25% of the shipping ply this routes annually with a trade value of 3.37 trillion dollars (Erkoc). The energy information administration also noted that almost 40% of all Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) is bought from this region of the world. There is also a very large deposit of hydrocarbon which one estimate put at between 5-22 billion barrels (crude oil) and between 2.5 to 10 trillion cubic metres of natural gas.(Erkoc).The South China Sea lane is also important militarily to the United States whose seventh Fleet patrols regularly from the Pacific to the Indian Ocean.

It could be remembered that the U.S has security alliances with a good number of countries in Asia especially the Southeastern part of it. Some of these countries are: Japan, South Korea, the Philippines, Thailand. Others which they give some level of protection are; Taiwan, Singapore, Vietnam, New Zealand, Indonesia and Malaysia. The protection of these allies had been effective with the presence of the Seventh Fleet that transits the region through the disputed sea.

It is equally important to note that today's world had survives as a result of balance of power. This involves completing independent nations to abide by internationally recognized norms of behaviour and laws. Other fundamental political principles are respect for territorial sovereignty of states, condemnation of territorial expansion, and respect for international law including UNCLOS which specified certain sea lanes as global commons. Other nations of the world including the United States will go any length to ensure these ideals are met. The reason is that if China takes control over the South China Sea, there is the tendency of expanding to the Indian Ocean and the Western Pacific. China had already threatened maritime peace and security by capturing territories of neighbouring states and thereby violated international norms. It is noted quite explicitly that:

If China succeeds, in displacing U. S power in the Western Pacific and Chinese territorial expansion into the South China Sea becomes permanent and codified, global geopolitics will have entered a new and very different era. Southeast Asia will inevitably be rendered subordinate and compliant to China's will. Australia will be isolated with an uncertain future, Japan and South Korea will face a perilous new reality with China in control of sea borne lifeline of both countries. The credibility of U. S support for allies and partners will be shredded. India will lose its current freedom of access into the South China Sea and much of Southeast Asia. European access to Asia will be through Beijing. All this will occur in a region that is increasingly the vibrant centre of world economy. The message will be clear; the era of American international leadership and predominance is over and a new preeminent power has taken its place.(Otto, 2019). China is bent of claiming the entire South China Sea not only due to its wealth and strategic importance in global commerce but also in order to execute the Belt-and Road initiative (also called, Silk Road) of president Xi Jing Ping. It will require a great deal of effort for China to be compelled to back down and most nations will not be ready to bear the risk.

5. International Arbitration over the Dispute in the South China Sea

The South China Sea disputes had been very contentious over the years. Effort had been made at bilateral and level to settle it. However, when china seized the Scarborough Shoal from the Philippines in 2012, the opportunity presented itself for the first time for arbitration. The encroachment was challenged by Manila at the Permanent Court of Arbitrary in The Hague. The court ruled in 2016 that the nine-dashed-line with which China claimed up to 90% of the South China Sea was not in consonance with the UNCLOS. The tribunal also made crystal clear that the historic right to resources in the South China Sea which China claims is baseless as the waters had always been a global common. However, the ruling was not adhered to due, perhaps, to the fact that the court would not be able to enforce the ruling.

Also, the regional body ASEAN had made little effort to also arrange a multilateral forum to discuss the issue due to the dependence of most of its members on China politically and economically. The prospect of settling the South China Sea discord through a tribunal remains gloomy.

6. Conclusion and Recommendation

Concerted effort had been made by world nations to ensure international maritime regulations which would guarantee universal use of the ocean and its resources. The behaviour of China in the South China Sea demonstrated that not all nations will be law abiding when it comes to strategic interest that is viewed as integral to economic prosperity and national security. In situations where the peace of a region, and by extension, the world is threatened by a members of the United Nations others would have to rise to the occasion to bring down the aggressor however the coast as demonstrated by the United States attempts in the South China Sea. Though the effort by a single actor will not be enough to ensure global balance of power, other nations are expectable to collaborate in this regard with little consideration to the cost since the negative impact of a destabilized world will be much worse. The study has demonstrated that not all nations will obey international law and that the United Nation Convection on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) have not succeeded in ensuring international maritime order especially in the South China Sea, one of the world's most important waters. Hence, the study recommends economic exclusion with regard to international trade. The decision should be a special one to be taken not at the UN Security Council but at a General Assembly of all State Parties to the UNCLOS. In addition, the regional organization of the claimant states in any disputed waters should champion any arbitration so as to ensure transparency. Much more attention should be given to the dispute in the South China Sea for the good of all nations rather than wait for Chinese hegemony in the region which would be detrimental to the whole world in view of the importance to international trade.

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Part Three

Educational Social Psychology

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Assessment of Iron Status: Markers of Inflammatory and Immune Response in School Age Children

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Abstract. Iron deficiency is a public health problem based on the seriousness of its consequences on human health. This study assessed iron status, markers of inflammatory and immune functions of rural and urban school age children in selected Local Government Areas (LGAs) of Ogun state. A multistage sampling technique was used to select three hundred and twelve school age children from the three senatorial districts. A validated questionnaire was used to obtain information on socio-economic characteristics. Blood samples were analyzed for biochemical parameters and selected immune function markers (CD4, white blood cell differentials) were also measured using standard procedures. Data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, means, standard deviations, correlation. Results showed that 30.5% of the respondent families earned less than two hundred thousand naira annually. Also, 19.9% of the mothers in the rural sector had tertiary education. The study revealed the prevalence of iron deficiency to be 23.7%, aneamia was 16.3% while 13.1% of the anaemic children were due to iron deficiency aneamia. The result of the CRP showed a high risk in 13.8% and CD4 count was low in 16.7% of the children. Haemoglobin correlated positively with age (r= 0.144) and average annual income of the family(r=0.132), serum ferritin correlated positively with mothers age and household size (r= 0.159; r= 0.030). CRP positively correlated with annual income (r= 0.155). CD4 positively correlated with mothers age and education (r= 0.252; r= 0.142). Conclusively, significant relationship exists between socio economic and iron status ($p<0.05$) as well as the rate of inflammation and immune response in the children. Hence, Appropriate investigations for iron status and inflammation/infection screening, need to be integral in the evaluation of anaemia and its causes before anaemia control interventions are implemented.

Keywords: Immune, Inflammation, Anaemia, Reticulocyte

1. Introduction

Iron deficiency anaemia is one of the most widespread public health problems, especially in developing countries, and a major cause of morbidity and mortality in Africa (40). It is a worldwide problem that is highly prevalent in developing countries of the world with the highest incidence reported in Asia and Africa (31). Anaemia prevalence is high in children and its cause is frequently multifactorial. It has been estimated that about 40% of the world's population (more than 2 billion individuals) suffer from anaemia with a prevalence of 48% in school-aged children (30,37). The key nutrient deficiency observed among school-aged children is iron deficiency anaemia (23, 29).

Iron deficiency with or without anemia is associated with increased susceptibility to infection owing to impaired immune function (22). Anaemia is one of the most widespread public health problems, especially in developing countries, and has important health and welfare, social, and economic consequences. These include impaired cognitive development, reduced physical work capacity, and in severe cases increased risk of mortality (45). The prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia had been described to be high amongst Nigerian infants, children and their mothers (2, 20).

Iron is also necessary for normal development of the immune system. Its deficiency affects the capacity to have an adequate immune response as it is necessary for immune cell proliferation and the generation of specific response to infection (3). Both experimental, and some clinical studies have emphasized the importance of iron in the integrity of the immune system especially the innate immunity (decreased bactericidal effect and respiratory burst of neutrophils) and the cellular component system of cell-mediated immunity (CMI) (decreased lymphocyte proliferation and delayed hypersensitivity responses) (3, 8).

Iron deficiency and anaemia are associated with poor growth and cognitive development, lowered immunity with increased risk to infectious diseases, and reduced work productivity. An unhealthy schoolchild is unlikely to have regular school attendance, good academic performance, and involvement in extracurricular activities. The relation of iron status and immune function in humans has been addressed primarily in studies of infants, young children, and adults (16, 36, and 41). Impaired cell-mediated immunity (CMI) and bactericidal function are generally noted in iron-deficient persons; however, some of the findings are inconsistent (16, 33, 36). The conflicting results with respect to iron deficiency and immunocompetence may be related to the different age, gender, sexual maturity, and differences in the methods of assessment of immune function across studies. Thus, this study will comprehensively determine the relationship of iron status, immune function and markers of inflammation considering the age and gender of the school age children in south west, Nigeria.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Study Population

The study population consisted of three hundred and twelve primary school children (7-12 years old) in selected schools in both urban and rural local governments in Ogun states.

2.2 Inclusion Criteria

- School age children between 7-12 years attending the schools selected for the study.
- School children from primary two to six
- Children whose parents give permission for them to participate in the study.
- Children giving ascent participated in the study.
- Children who are present at the day of data collection
- Children not on medication that can affect the data analyses.
- Children with no known case of infection or inflammation

2.3 Procedure for Data Collection

Prior to the commencement of the research, submission of the research proposal were made at the State Hospital Ijaye Abeokuta, Nigeria and selected local governments in the three senatorial districts and also to the headmaster of each school. Ethical consent was sought from the State hospital, Ijaye, Abeokuta and also meeting with parents with the assistance of the school management for their verbal consent. Trained fieldworkers with the principal investigator engaged in data collection and Medical laboratory scientist assisted in blood sample collection and analysis.

2.4 Method of Data Collection

A pretested, structured interviewer administered questionnaire was used to collect information from the respondents. The questionnaire was used to collect information on the respondent’s bio-data and socio-economic characteristics.

2.5 Blood collection (including analytical procedures)

Venous blood samples (10ml) were collected and delivered in two containers as follows: (i) 4ml blood collected in EDTA- containing tube for hemoglobin (Hb) and full blood count; (ii) 6ml blood collected in coagulant free tubes and centrifuged for the estimation of serum ferritin (SF) and C-reative protein (CRP). PCV, CD4 count, Reticulocyte count were also measured.

2.6 Iron status indices

Iron status was determined by measurement of hemoglobin, PCV and serum ferritin. Since hemoglobin, PCV and serum ferritin may be altered in the presence of infection, C- reactive protein (CRP) was used to identify individuals with inflammation and infection.

Heamoglobin: Was measured *in situ* by means of the direct cyanmet hemoglobin method (Ames Mini-Pak Hb test pack &Ames™ Minilab), using Drabkins solution and a standard photometer.
Serum ferritin (indication of iron-stores): Was determined using ELISA (Randox kits, UK)
C-reactive protein: an acute phase protein, and an indicator of acute infection, was determined using a turbidity method from Bayer Corporation (Tarrytown, NY, USA). It was spectrophotometrically measured with a Technicon RA-1000 automated system.

2.7 Immune function determination

The relevance of iron in the make-up of the immune system particularly in the innate immunity by decreasing the anti-bacterial activity as well as the respiratory burst of polymorphonuclear cell, cellular component and delay hypersensitivity have being emphasized (3).

White blood cell count and differentials were determined (neutrophil, lymphocyte, monocytes, eosiniphil and basophil) using the method of Ghai (12) and Abu syed (1)

Reticulocyte count was performed on the blood sample according to Lewis *et al.* (17) .
The level of CD4 lymphocytes count using monoclonal antibodies was verified by cytoflow method (18)

2.8 Statistical analyses

Changes in biochemical indicators were calculated. Children were defined as: (i) iron deficient if serum ferritin< 15 µg L^{-1}; (ii) anaemic if haemoglobin is (Hb) < 11.5 g dL^{-1}; and (iii) Iron deficient anaemic if serum ferritin< 15 µg L^{-1} and Hb< 11.5 g dL^{-1}. The mean value for immune parameters like CD4 count, White blood cell count and differentials, Reticulocyte count were calculated while the severity of serum ferittin, heamoglobin, PCV and reticulocyte were measured and p-value determined. SPSS was used for all statistical calculations and a p-value < 0.05 was considered significant.

3. Results

Table 1: Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Children

Characteristics	Sector			
	Urban		Rural	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
AGE (Yrs)				
7-8	41	25.5	36	23.8
9-10	58	36.0	51	33.8
11-12	62	38.5	64	42.4
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0
AGE (Mother) Years				
0-20	8	5.0	21	13.9
21-30	42	26.1	53	35.1
31-40	68	42.2	48	31.8
40 Above	43	26.7	29	19.2
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0
AGE (Father) Years				
0-20	2	1.2	9	6.0
21-30	44	27.3	51	33.8
31-40	57	35.4	48	31.8
40 Above	58	36.0	43	28.5
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0
Educational level of the Mothers				
No formal Education	5	3.1	18	11.9
Primary Education	22	13.7	42	27.8
Secondary Education	36	22.4	61	40.4
Tertiary Education	98	60.9	30	19.9
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0
Educational level of the Fathers				
No formal Education	3	1.9	10	6.6
Primary Education	18	11.2	33	21.9
Secondary Education	25	15.5	74	49.0
Tertiary Education	115	71.4	34	22.5
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0

Table 2: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Children

Characteristics	Sector			
	Urban		Rural	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Family Size				
1-4	98	60.8	52	34.4
5-8	47	29.2	61	40.4
Above 8	16	10.0	38	25.2
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0
Average Annual Income (Naira)				
<100, 000	7	4.3	15	10.0
100,000-199,000	21	13.0	31	20.5
200,000-299,000	23	14.3	44	29.1
300,000-399,000	54	33.5	37	24.5
400,000-499,000	35	21.7	16	10.6
500,000 & above	21	13.0	8	5.3
Total	161	100.0	151	100.0

3.1 Biochemical Indices of Children

Table 3 shows the mean biochemical indices of the children. The mean values for males were: haemoglobin concentration for boys (12.14±1.39 g/dl), serum ferritin (21.52±20.38µg/l), CD4 (741.71±347.20 cells/µl), C-reactive protein (3.32±5.06 mg/l), PCV (36.73±3.60), reticulocyte (0.83±0.37), WBC(7.02±2.21(100/µl) and neutrophils, lymphocytes, monocytes, Eosinophils, Basophils were (3.51±1.63), (3.85±4.45), (0.57±0.15), (0.36±0.31), and (0.04±0.05), respectively. The mean values for females were: haemoglobin level for girls (11.73±0.97 g/dl), serum ferritin (19.64±16.50µg/l), CD4 (695.13±345.12cells/µl), C-reactive protein (3.92±5.62 mg/l), PCV (36.10±3.92), reticulocyte (0.89±0.41), WBC (7.49±2.99 (100/µl) and neutrophils, lymphocytes, monocytes, Eosinophils, Basophils were (3.69±3.29), (3.51±1.52), (0.55±0.19), (0.34±0.35), and (0.04±0.03) respectively.

Table 3: Biochemical Indices of Respondents according to gender (N=312)

Variable	Male (n=155)	Female (n=157)	Total (N=312)	Cut-off Range	p-Value
Hb(mg/dl)	12.14±1.39	11.73±0.97	11.93±1.20	11.5-13.0	0.000*
SF (µg/l)	21.52±20.38	19.64±16.50	20.57±18.52	12-150	NS
CD4 (cells/µl)	741.71±347.20	695.13±345.12	718.27±346.39	365-1571	NS
CRP(mg/l)	3.32±5.06	3.92±5.62	3.62±5.34	3-10	0.002*
PCV(%)	36.73±3.60	36.10±3.92	36.42±3.76	>34	NS
Reticulocyte	0.89±0.41	0.83±0.37	0.86±0.39	0.5-1.5	NS
WBC(100/ µl)	7.02±2.21	7.49±2.99	7.26±2.64	4.0-11.0	NS
Neutrophils (1000/µl)	3.51±1.63	3.69±3.29	3.60±2.59	2.0-7.5	NS
Lymphocytes (1000/µl)	3.85±4.45	3.51±1.52	3.68±3.32	1.5-4.0	0.003*
Monocytes (1000/µl)	0.57±0.15	0.55±0.19	0.56±0.17	0.1-1.5	0.04*
Eosinophils (1000/µl)	0.36±0.31	0.34±0.35	0.35±0.33	0.04-0.4	NS
Basophils (1000/µl)	0.04±0.05	0.04±0.03	0.04±0.04	0.0-0.1	NS

Hb- Haemoglobin, SF- Serum Ferritin, CD4 – Cluster of differentiation 4, CRP- C-reactive protein, PCV – Packed cell volume, WBC- White blood cells

Table 4: Biochemical Indices of Respondents according to sector (N=312)

Variable	Urban(n=155)	Rural (n=157)	Total (n=312)	Cut-off Range	p-Value
Hb(mg/dl)	12.15±1.23	11.71±1.15	11.93±1.21	11.5-13.0	0.004*
SF (µg/l)	20.51±20.59	20.63±16.08	20.57±18.52	12-150	NS
CD4(cells/µl)	727.11±338.59	708.85±355.39	718.27±346.39	365-1571	0.002*
CRP(mg/l)	3.24±5.09	4.05±5.71	3.63±5.40	3-10	0.001*
PCV(%)	36.65±3.50	36.04±3.86	36.36±3.68	>34	NS
Reticulocyte	0.87±0.38	0.85±0.41	0.86±0.39	0.5-1.5	NS
WBC(100/µl)	7.28±2.19	7.24±3.05	7.26±2.64	4.0-11.0	NS
Neutrophils (1000/µl)	3.88±2.94	3.31±2.14	3.60±2.59	2.0-7.5	NS
Lymphocytes (1000/µl)	3.03±0.97	4.38±4.57	3.68±3.32	1.5-4.0	0.002*
Monocytes (1000/µl)	0.59±0.15	0.53±0.18	0.56±0.17	0.1-1.5	NS
Eosinophils (1000/µl)	0.33±0.25	0.38±0.39	0.35±0.33	0.04-0.4	NS
Basophils (1000/µl)	0.04±0.03	0.04±0.05	0.04±0.04	0.0-0.1	NS

Hb- Haemoglobin, SF- Serum Ferritin, CD4 – Cluster of differentiation 4, CRP- C-reactive protein, PCV – Packed cell volume, WBC- White blood cells

3.2 Iron status of the children

Figure 1 showed the Iron status of the respondents, it shows that 23.7 were iron deficient, 16.3% were anaemic while 13.1% had iron deficiency anaemia and the remaning 46.7% are iron sufficient. Iron status of the respondents is classified based on their sector and gender in Table 5, it shows that 20.6% of the male were iron deficient and 12.9% of iron deficient respondents were anaemic while 11.0% of the anaemia among the male is as a result of iron deficiency (IDA). Females that are iron deficient were 26.8%, while 19.7% of them were anaemic and 15.3% of the anaemia among the female is as a result of iron deficiency (IDA). In urban LGAs, 18.6% of the children were iron deficient and 7.5% of iron deficient respondents were anaemic while 13.7% of the anaemia among the children is as a result of iron deficiency (IDA). In rural LGAs, the percentages of children that are iron deficient were 29.1%, while 25.8% of them were anaemic and 12.6% of the anaemia among the rural children is as a result of iron deficiency (IDA).

The overall iron status of the respondents shows that 74(23.7%) of the respondents were deficient in iron and 51(16.3%) were anaemic while iron deficiency anaemia was noticed in 41(13.1%) of them. One hundred and forty six (46.7%) are sufficient in iron.

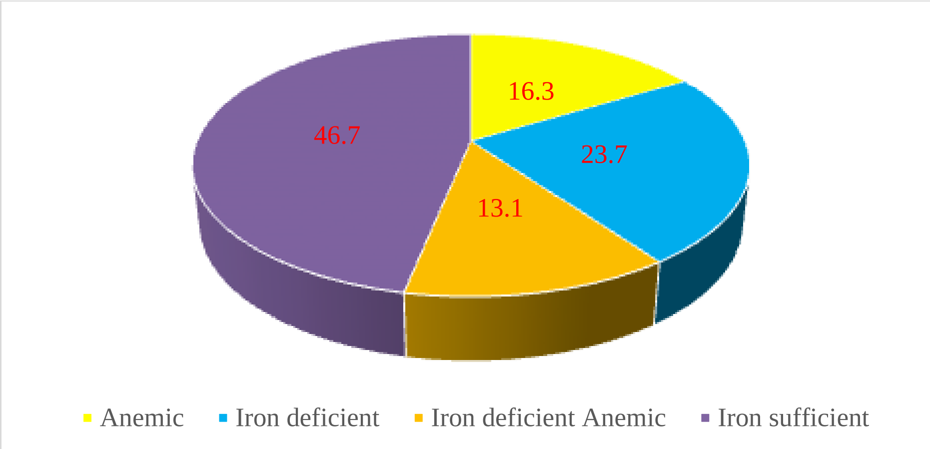

Figure 1: Iron Status of the Children

Table 5: Classification of school children according to iron status(N=312).

Variables	Sector			p-value	Gender			p-value
	Urban	Rural	Total		Male	Female	Total	
Anaemia (Hb<11.5g/dl)	12(7.5)	39(25.8)	51(16.3)	0.003*	20(12.9)	31(19.7)	51(16.3)	0.032*
Iron Deficient (Hb≥11.5g/dl &SF <12µg/l)	30(18.6)	44(29.1)	74(23.7)	0.022*	32(20.6)	42(26.8)	74(23.7)	0.041*
Iron Deficiency Anaemia (Hb<11.5g/dl &SF <12µg/l)	22(13.7)	19(12.6)	41(13.1)	0.013*	17(11.0)	24(15.3)	41(13.1)	0.022*
Iron Sufficient (Hb≥ 11.5g/dl & SF≥12µg/l)	97(60.2)	49(32.5)	146(46.7)	0.012*	85(55.5)	60(38.2)	146(46.7)	0.013*
Total	161	151	312		155	157	312	

3.3 Severity of some biochemical indices among the children

Table 6 shows the level of some of the indicators of iron in both urban and rural LGAs and this classification is necessary to show the actual status of the indicators. It shows that 80.0% of the male had a normal haemoglobin level and 12.3% are mildly deficient while 5.8% and 1.9% are moderately and severely deficient in haemoglobin respectively. As for the females, 71.3% had normal level of haemoglobin and 19.1% are mildly deficient while 5.7% and 3.8% are moderately and severely deficient in haemoglobin respectively. In urban LGAs, 83.2% had a normal haemoglobin level and 10.6% are mildly deficient while 4.3% and 1.9% are moderately and severely deficient in haemoglobin respectively. As for the rural LGAs, 67.5% had normal level of haemoglobin and 21.2% are mildly deficient while 7.3% and 4.0% are moderately and severely deficient in haemoglobin respectively. The overall haemoglobin status shows that 75.6% had a normal level and 15.7% are mildly deficient while 5.8% and 2.9% are moderately and severely deficient in haemoglobin respectively. There is a significant difference in heamoglobin status across the sector (p=0.032) and gender (p=0.040).

Parked cell volume (PCV) was at low level in 19.4% of the males and 34.4% females while 21.1% and 33.1% had a low level of PCV in urban and rural LGAs respectively, with a significant difference in both the sector (0.024) and gender (0.032). Serum ferittin was deficient in 25.2% of the males and 34.4% females while in the LGAs, deficiency of ferittin was noticed in 22.4% of the children in urban and 37.7% in rural LGAs. Reticulocyte which is an immature red blood cell was low in 18.7% and 24.2% of male and female respondents and noticed to be high in 14.2% and 17.2% of male and female respondents respectively. It also shows that 16.1% and 27.2% have a low level of Reticulocyte while it was high in 14.3% and 17.2% in urban and rural LGAs.

Table 6: Severity of some biochemical indices among the children

Variables	Sector			p-value	Gender			p-value
Heamoglobin (mg/dl)	Urban	Rural	Total	0.03*	Male	Female	Total	0.040*
Severe	3(1.9)	6(4.0)	9(2.9)		3(1.9)	6(3.8)	9(2.9)	
Moderate	7(4.3)	11(7.3)	18(5.8)		9(5.8)	9(5.7)	18(5.8)	
Mild	17(10.6)	32(21.2)	49(15.7)		19(12.3)	30(19.1)	49(15.7)	
Normal	134(83.2)	102(67.5)	236(75.6)		124(80.0)	112(71.3)	236(75.6)	
PCV(%)				0.024*				0.032*
Low	34(21.1)	50(33.1)	84(26.9)		30(19.4)	54(34.4)	84(26.9)	
Normal	127(78.9)	101(66.9)	228(73.1)		123(80.6)	103(65.6)	228(73.1)	
	161	151	312		155	157	312	
Ferittin(ng/ml)				0.021*				0.051
Deficient	36(22.4)	57(37.7)	93(29.8)		39(25.2)	54(34.4)	93(29.8)	
Normal	125(77.6)	94(62.3)	219(70.2)		116(74.8)	103(65.6)	219(70.2)	
Reticulocyte				0.001*				0.122
Low	26(16.1)	41(27.2)	67(21.5)		29(18.7)	38(24.2)	67(21.5)	
Normal	112(69.6)	84(55.6)	196(62.8)		104(67.1)	92(58.6)	196(62.8)	
High	23(14.3)	26(17.2)	49(15.7)		22(14.2)	27(17.2)	49(15.7)	
	161	151	312		155	157	312	

[a] WHO, 2001; [b] Tatala et al, 2004; [C] Thurnham et al, 2010 and [d] Thurnham et al, 2010

3.4 Severity of Markers of inflammation and immune function of the subjects

Table 7 shows the maker of inflammation and immune function of the respondents. In the LGAs, the CRP was at low risk in 72.7% of urban and 68.2% of the rural respondents while mild risk in 13.7% urban and 17.9% of the rural but at high risk in 13.7% of urban and 13.9% of the rural children. As for the gender, it shows that 71.0% males and 70.1% females were at low risk while mild risk was noticed in 17.4% males and 14.0% females but 11.6% males and 15.9% females were at high risk without any significant difference in both gender and sector. The CD4 count which is a determinant of immune status appeared to be low in 17.4% and 15.9% in urban and rural local government area while the respondents with low CD4 are 16.8% males' and16.6% females.

Table 7: Severity of Markers of inflammation and immune function of the subjects

Variables	Sector			p-value	Gender			p-value
CRP	Urban	Rural	Total	0.211	Male	Female	Total	0.121
Low risk	117(72.7)	103(68.2)	220(70.5)		170(71.0)	110(70.1)	220(70.5)	
Mild risk	22(13.7)	27(17.9)	49(15.7)		27(17.4)	22(14.0)	49(15.7)	
High risk	22(13.7)	21(13.9)	43(13.8)		18(11.6)	25(15.9)	43(13.8)	
	161	151	312		155	157	312	
CD4				0.113				0.342
Low	28(17.4)	24(15.9)	52(16.7)		26(16.8)	26(16.6)	52(16.7)	
Normal	133(82.6)	127(84.1)	260(83.3)		129(83.2)	131(83.4)	260(83.3)	
	161	151	312		155	157	312	

Table 8 shows the correlations between socio economic status, markers of iron status, inflammation and infection. Haemoglobin correlated positively with childs age (r= 0.144, p= 0.05) and average annual income of the family(r=0.132, p=0.05), serum ferritin correlated positively with mothers age and household size (r= 0.159, p= 0.05; r= 0.030, p= 0.05). CRP positively correlated with annual income(r= 0.155, p= 0.05), PCV correlated positively with mothers education (r= 0.180, p= 0.01). CD4 positively correlated with mothers age and education (r= 0.252, p= 0.05; r= 0.142, p= 0.01). There was no significant correlation between reticulocyte counts and socio demographic parameters.

There were significant relationships between white blood differentials and socio demographic parameters. Neutrophills related positively with childs age, mothers education and water source (r= 0.101, p= 0.05; r= 0.175, p= 0.01; r= 0.588, p= 0.01), lymphocyte correlated positively with mothers age (r= 0.202, p= 0.01) and fathers occupation (r= 0.511, p= 0.01) while monocyte related positively to water source (r=0.103, p= 0.01) but eosinophills and basophills has no significant correlation with the socio demographic parameters.

Table 8: Pearson's Correlations between socio economic status, markers of iron status, white blood differentials and makers of infection.

Variable	Childs age	Mothers age	Mothers Education	Fathers Occupation	Annual Income	HH Size
Hb	0.144*	-0.059	0.055	-0.167	0.132*	0.039
SF	-0.120	0.159*	-0.110	0.215	0.062	0.030*
CRP	0.107	0.105	0.070	-0.040	0.155*	0.103
PCV	-0.068	-0.005	0.180*	-0.041	0.001	-0.015
CD4	-0.120	0.252*	0.142**	0.005	0.144	0.131
RETICS	0.012	-0.156	0.027	0.116	0.103	-0.088
WBC	0.127*	0.030	0.110*	0.109	0.163*	0.067
NEUT	0.101*	-0.011	0.175**	-0.014	0.173	0.124
LYMP	-0.078	0.202**	-0.043	0.511**	-0.049	-0.109
MONO	-0.026	0.071	0.002	-0.020	0.008	-0.010
EOSINO	0.171	0.080	-0.027	-0.007	0.101	0.039
BASO	-0.008	0.080	0.030	-0.007	0.048	0.144

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

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

4. Discussion

The purpose of the study was to assess iron status, marker of inflammatory and immune functions of school age children in selected schools in Ogun states, Nigeria. Malnourished children have increased risk of dying, with most deaths caused by infectious diseases and one mechanism behind this may be impaired immune function (26) and that is the more reason why it is necessary to assess the immune status of the children in relation to iron and markers of inflammation, so that it can be easily established from the outcome of the study if all these variables are related or not.

Iron deficiency has been reported to be the most prevalent nutritional deficiency in the world (4). A considerable number of children are anaemic in this study but it is not surprising to note that more than one third is as a result of iron deficiency (Of all the children in the study, 16.3% were anaemic (Hb < 11.5 g/dL), 23.7% iron deficient (Hb ≥ 11.5 g/dL and SF < 12 μg/L) and 13.1% had iron deficiency anaemia (Hb < 11.5 g/dL and SF < 12 μg/L)). This high rate of anaemia and iron deficiency anaemia in the present study may be indicative of the fact that the diet of the school age most especially in the rural LGAs are not adequate for their iron needs. Observations and brief interviews of the people living in this rural areas during the data collection revealed that "garri" (cassava flakes) is their most common staple food with no form of animal protein. Farming is the major occupation and only crops that are likely to yield some income are planted. The level of income of family breadwinners is also low, judging by their houses and the yield from their farms. Their financial access to meat and other good animal sources of iron is therefore very limited. Considering other biochemical parameters under study, it can be easily concluded that though anaemia affect both urban and rural LGAs but the majority of those affected in urban may likely not be as a result of diet but other factor like infections and all these factors come into play in the rural LGAs, that is both diet and infections contributed to the level of anaemia in rural LGAs. It is worthy to note that the public health effects of iron deficiency and anemia include reduced work capacity and mental performance, poor growth development, impaired regulation of body temperature, impairments in behavior and intellectual performance, and decreased resistance to infections (42). However, the values of aneamia and iron deficiency in this study are closer to that reported by Achouri *et al.* (43). Other studies (22), have reported higher prevalence of anemia and iron deficiency among children. Another study by Ughasoro *et al.* (35) report the prevalence of anaemia and iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) to be 49.2% and42.3%. Also, Onyemaobi *et al*. (44) reported 48.8% iron deficiency among school age while Anumdu *et al.* (46) reported 63% aneamia among children. Poor nutrition especially iron deficiency in school-aged children is associated with retardation of growth and poor cognitive development (28). According to other study, school age children are at risk of iron because of an expanding red cell and muscle mass (53). In other to show the severity of the iron deficiency in the subjects, the heamoglobin concentration was further classified into severe, moderate, mild and normal according to World Health Organization classification (38). The result indicated that a good number of the children were severely and moderately anaemic with more in rural areas and female gender. The value reported in this study was lower than what was reported on the severity of anaemia among schoolchildren (6–15 years) in rural Nigeria by Rufina *et al.*(25) but consistence with the study of Onimawo and colleagues where the overall prevalence of anaemia was 82.6% with rates of mild, moderate and severe anaemia being 9.6%, 71.6% and

1.4%, respectively and all the subjects that had severe anaemia were females while none of the males had severe anaemia (23). Thando *et al.* (32) also reported 51.2% and 41.9% for mild and moderate forms of anaemia respectively, while severe anaemia was 2.3%. A jointly sponsored study in 2001 by WHO/UNICEF/UNN reported varying degrees of anaemia with 38.0% mild anaemia, 31.8% were moderately anaemic and 0.8% was severely anaemic (39). Another study on 15450 children attending the Korle Bu Teaching Hospital, Accra showed that 71.1% of the children had haemoglobin (HB) levels below 11.0 Gm/dl while 27.7% of anaemic patients had Hb levels below 7.0 gm/dl (48). Indeed, 71.1% of children with severe anaemia had Hb levels below 5.0 gm/dl, thus requiring urgent blood transfusion (48). Alongside, is the study of Ahumareze et al, in which the prevalence of anaemia in the study was 54.2%; where severe anaemia, mild and moderate anaemia was 1.2% and 53.0% respectively (49). However, low haemoglobin may not be totally a specific indicator for anaemia because it is also influenced by blood depleting parasites, chronic infections and haematological conditions (8, 55) and that is the reason for considering other parameter like PCV. It is however, interesting to note that majority of the children that are severely anaemic were females. This suggests that anaemia may not only have occurred as a result of low haemoglobin but may have been influenced by other factors like monthly menstrual period.

Serum ferritin (SF) concentration has been identified as the most specific biochemical test that correlates with relative total body iron store, hence is a precondition for iron deficiency in the absence of infection (30). Low levels of SF were used to indicate iron depletion (27). The result of the study shows that almost one third of the children had a low level of ferittin indicative of low iron stores in the body. There was significant difference in serum ferritin values in rural LGAs and urban LGAs but more female as compared to male were anemic. This results obtained in this study is at variance with the studies of Thando *et al.*(32) and that of Onabanjo *et al*. (22) that assessed the anthropometric and iron status of Adolescents in Ogun State. The serum ferritin values reported by Onimawo *et al*. (23) are lower than the present study.
C-reactive protein (CRP) is a marker of infection or inflammation in the body. It is released into the blood by the liver shortly after the start of an infection or inflammations as an early indicator of these problems and its levels can rise quickly. CRP and Serum ferritin when used in combination showed the best agreement with body iron stores (32). In the present study, result shows that CRP was elevated in a very close number of the subjects both in urban and rural LGAs which could be due to inflammation or infection and also more female gender than the males were affected. Elevated level of CRP (above 20mg/l) in this study is a pointer to the fact that malaria is still endermic in most of the areas featured in the study and other parasites like hookworm still affects good number of subjects in both urban and rural settlements.

The overall percentage of the subjects with elevated CRP in this study is close to the value reported by John et al. (15) in which raised CRP levels was identified in 16% of the children. The results obtained in this study is similar to works of others studies, (7, 10,34) that found CRP to be higher in girls than in boys. Conversely, Colantonio *et al.* (6) reported no gender differences in CRP values of children.

Reticulocyte are young, anucleate erythrocytes, which are released from bone marrow into the blood in increased numbers as a response to anemia caused by hemolysis (destruction) or loss (hemorrhage) of erythrocytes. Detection and identification of immature anucleate RBCs verifies whether the bone marrow is responding to the anemia by increasing RBC production in a regenerative response. Reticulocyte hemoglobin content is a reliable and early indicator of bone marrow iron status and may detect functional iron deficiency with more sensitivity than biochemical parameters (59). Low values indicate a low production of red cells possibly due to nutrient deficiency, whereas high values indicate a high production of reticulocytes to replace lost blood and healthy hematopoiesis. The result shows that more subjects in the rural LGAs have low level of Reticulocyte as compared to urban subjects and this may likely be as a result of nutrient deficiency and this result is in line with the study of Foy *et al.* (11) that reported reticulocyte hemoglobin content to be significantly lower in the blood donor group in their study, but it is not surprising that there are also subjects from urban LGAs that are anaemic because it reflected from the result that good number of subjects from both urban and rural LGAs had higher number of Reticulocyte than normal range which is very likely to be a result of other factors like infections apart from diet. The result of Reticulocyte heamoglobin content is a pointer to the fact that the rate of anaemia recorded in this study is not solely as a result of inadequate diet but other factors also come into play, more subjects had a low level of Reticulocyte in rural which is suggestive of inadequate diet but also an increase in the level of

Reticulocyte was noticed in almost the same number of children in both urban and rural LGAs which is indicative of other parasitic infections and this is supported by the result of CRP in this study that reflects almost the same number of children in both urban and rural with elevated level of CRP. The implication of this is that the high level of anaemia in this study is not only as a result of diet but also infection plays a major role.

It also show from the study that high family size increases the risk of infection, the odds of infection for high family sized were 2-fold higher than children with low family size and it is in line with the study of Berhanu (58). Personal hygiene greatly reduces the burden of infections. This finding agrees with finding from different parts of the world (60). This is due to the reason that proper personal hygiene breaks the chain of parasite transmission. The presence of infections may have multiple effects among children including physical and mental developments. The presence of chronic and heavy parasitic infection may cause intestinal bleeding, malabsorption of nutrients, nutritional deficiency, destruction of cells and tissues and other associated effects. The overall effect of these results in growth retardation reduced mental development, school absenteeism, low academic performance, susceptible to malnutrition and infection (5).

Packed Cell Volume is the proportion of the blood volume occupied by RBCs and is determined by cell number and size. Concentrations below the reference range may indicate abnormal cell development. In this study, about one third of the children had values below the reference range for PCV using WHO criteria but more of the children with low PCV are from rural LGAs and also more female subjects were affected. The results obtained in this study are similar to the finding of other study that reported 87.1% of the subjects been anaemic using PCV and also went further to categorized PCV values into mild anaemia, moderate anaemia and lastly severe anaemia (23) The result showed that PCV is positively correlated to CD4 (r= 0.05) and the implication is that when the immune system is been compromised there is every likelihood that the PCV level becomes low.

The CD4 count is like a snapshot of how well the immune system is functioning. CD4 cells (also known as CD4+ T cells, T-lymphocytes, or helper cells) are white blood cells that fight infection. It gives an indication of the healthy immune system and is the body natural defense system against pathogens, infections and illnesses. In this study, about one quarter of the children had a low level of CD4 with close values for male and female. This observation is similar to the report of Olga et al (2010) that assessed immune status and enzymes activity in blood lymphocytes in adult patients where $CD4^+$-lymphocytes content was lower with increased Ig M and Ig G concentration. It is interesting to note that several studies have stated the link between low level of CD4 and anaemia may not necessarily be diet but majorly due to infection. Some of the studies include that of Hughes *et al.* (41) which reported that total white blood cell and lymphocyte counts in peripheral blood are not decreased in malnourished children, and granulocytes are frequently elevated. Likewise, T-lymphocytes and CD4 counts appear normal in malnourished children. Their levels seem to be determined more by infections than by nutritional state, and do not reflect the degree of malnutrition-related immune deficiency, as high infectious mortality is seen in malnourished children, despite unaffected white blood cell counts (41). Other studies in support of this finding is the studies by Keusch *et al*, (62) which associated a decline in CD4 to result from high pathogen load rather than nutrient deficiencies, and thus primarily a cause of malnutrition, particularly of stunting. The result of the study clearly shows a weak correlation between immune status (CD4) and iron deficiency anaemia which implies that most of the subject that are anaemic in this study may not necessarily have a compromised immune system due to inadequate diet but because certain infection might have set in due to other factors. However, when data for anaemic participants were analyzed, there was a weak positive correlation between Hb concentration and CD4 count (r = 0.249). Results from this present study therefore suggest that Hb concentration may not be a suitable predictor of immune status (based on CD4 count). Results of more recent studies have supported the non-suitability of Hb concentration for predicting CD4 count (63, 64, 65). Some other studies have however reported that Hb concentration can increase the sensitivity of total lymphocyte count in predicting CD4 count (66), but this was not explored in the study. Nevertheless, food availability is still of vital importance in the study of nutritional status and their relationship with low CD4 cell outcomes since hunger is often a barrier (14); perhaps, the association between the nutritional status and immune status should be uniquely observed in populations where extreme malnutrition is persistent and thus stronger correlations can be deduced.

5. Conclusion

The following can be concluded from this study:

- The socio-economic status was very poor among the children who participated in the study, particularly in rural areas.
- The study revealed high prevalence of iron deficiency (23.7%) and aneamia (16.3%) with 13.1% of the prevalence of aneamia caused by iron deficiency among the children. This is also significant ($p<0.05$) for gender and sector differences in the iron status.
- Data on immune markers (CD4 and white blood differentials) showed that more females had lower values than males. About 16.7% of the children had a low level of CD4 though more in rural with no significant difference among male and female ($p = 0.015$).
- The result of Reticulocyte (21.5%), ferittin (29.8%), C-reactive protein (13.8%) and PCV (26.9%) also buttress the fact that some of the children health status has been affected which could in turn leads to a compromised immunity.
- The study revealed significant relationship between markers of iron status, and makers of inflammation and infection in the children that participated in the study.

6. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Utmost care and attention must be focused on these socioeconomically and disadvantaged children living most especially in the rural areas. Sincere efforts must be undertaken to make a significant impact on child's nutrition with multipronged approach such as giving priority to education especially for women, creating awareness regarding benefits of factors like limiting family size, proper storage of drinking water, and so forth, and providing toilet facility in the household.
- Appropriate investigations for iron status and inflammation/infection screening, need to be integral in the evaluation of anaemia and its causes before anaemia control interventions are implemented. Interventions that target the multifactorial nature of anaemia in school-aged children need to be strengthened. Additionally, regular screening of anaemia in school-aged children from disadvantaged communities is recommended.
- Advocacy for fortification of food with the essential micronutrients should be stepped up to assist in meeting the children requirements of these micronutrients in their diet for healthy development.

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Preparation of Football League Table and School Mathematics Teaching and Learning

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to assess preservice mathematics teachers' use of mathematical knowledge and skills to read, prepare and interpret football league table. The study combined both quantitative (performance test and questionnaire instrument) and qualitative (semi-structured interview instrument) methods. The research data were collected from 43 undergraduate preservice mathematics teachers. The instruments for the study were the Basic Mathematical knowledge and skills (BMFLT) test and the Semi-structured Interview (SSI) guide on reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. Six research questions were raised to guide the study and two of them were hypothesized. Frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to answer the research questions and the t-test statistic was used to test the hypotheses. Results show that the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers is high in the four mathematical areas of reading, solving problems, making inferences from and preparing football league table. That counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are basic mathematical knowledge and skills needed by preservice mathematics teachers in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. There is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female teachers and those who play and do not play football. The study concludes that the football league table is perceived by the preservice mathematics teachers to be relevant and valuable to school mathematics teaching practices. It is recommended that student centered culturally responsive mathematics teachers' development programme and teaching methods/strategies should be promoted through the application of real life situations and examples.

Keywords: Mathematics Teachers' Assessment, Basic Mathematical Knowledge and Skills, Preparation of Football League Table, Culturally Responsive Mathematics Education

1. Introduction

School Mathematics is a universally acknowledged body of mathematics knowledge in content and methodology. The current school mathematics practices in Nigeria are based on unified curricula with well-defined content and method of teaching (Federal Ministry of Education, 1977; Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council, 2012a, 2012b, Idehen, 2019). The curriculum for each of primary and secondary levels has been developed entirely to include those mathematical concepts and topics every child should know in order to function satisfactorily as a citizen. The curriculum guide therefore specifies topics, objectives, contents, teacher/students' activities, teaching and learning materials and evaluation guide. The curriculum guide suggests such methods that meet the requirement of up-to-date psychology and didactics (Badmus, 1997, Idehen, 2019) and that topic in mathematics are taught to reflect Nigerian culture by making use of locally resource materials and examples. The curricula are guide to teachers and not therefore to be fast in nature as moderation and changes are allowed to suite individual differences and culture.

Recent trend in teaching and learning of mathematics worldwide demands a conceptual change approach as against the traditional didactic method, which promotes rote memorization and thereby distancing school mathematics contents and learning from the cultural and everyday living of the child. Mathematics is everywhere and as it is experienced and practiced by every culture, scholars like D'Ambrosio (1988, 2007 & 2018), Rose and Orey (2011), Brandt and Chernoff (2014) and Furuto(2016) recommend ethnomathematics education that helps students make and find hands-on connections to the school mathematics curriculum through their cultural and historical backgrounds. On this wise, D'Ambrosio (2018) conceptualized ethnomathematics programme as the "evolution of ideas, of practices and of knowledge in the human species in different cultural environments" p.231. Earlier, D'Ambrosio (1988) has simply defined ethnomathematics as the "mathematics of the identifiable cultural group, developed from quantitative and qualitative practices such as counting, weighing, sorting, measuring and comparing" p.5. Ethnomathematics education implies an analysis of how the school (students and teachers) generated ways, styles, arts and techniques of doing and knowing mathematics, of learning and explaining mathematics, and of use of mathematical knowledge and skills in dealing with situations and of solving problems of their natural and socio-cultural environment. For mathematics education to foster a greater understanding of how mathematics is applied in our increasingly technologically driven and globalized world, Brandt and Chernoff contend that school mathematics needs to expand its parameters and become more inclusive of the mathematics found in the world that students inhabit. Hence, mathematics education should reflect and embrace the cultural diversity of our classrooms and of our increasingly interconnected world, through ethnomathematics which has the potential to show our students' multicultural views of mathematics that may help students develop a greater interest in school mathematics.

From the forgoing, ethnomathematics education encourages the connection of school mathematics to culture and culture to school mathematics. Rosa and Orey (2011) stated that, when students come to school they bring with them values, norms, and concepts they have acquired in their socio-cultural environment some of which are mathematical in nature. Therefore, to teach and learn school mathematics, Mukhopadhyay, Powell, and Frankenstein (2009), Barta and Brenner (2009) and Gay (2009) examined and proposed a culturally responsive mathematics education. For mathematics teachers to be culturally responsive and effective, Gay proposed a programme for preparing mathematics teachers to "acquire new knowledge, attitudes, belief, and skills about self, students, subject matter, teaching and learning" p.189. Thus, both teachers in training and those already in service should learn about culturally responsive teaching (CRT) in ways similar to the ones they should use with students in their own classroom. Culturally responsive teaching takes the position that all mathematics knowledge is socially constructed, and teachers need to understand how mathematics is a cultural construction, and how this construction can help to demystify school mathematics teaching and learning. The CRT, according to Parsons, as cited in Gay(2009), helps the teacher to "culturalize" mathematics instruction by deliberately enacting culturally diverse values, information, and resources to change the contexts and content of learning to improve academic outcomes. Furuto(2016) called the CRT strength-based approaches in designing and implementing ethnomathematics education research in the professional development of educators and teacher educators. This is accomplished by honouring culturally responsive, place-based strategies such as learning within and outside of the classroom and reshaping the curriculum in a cultural context.

Football is a popular game with large followership among youth worldwide. Through the UEFA.com (2021), the UEFA President, Ceferin said: "Football is a social and cultural treasure, enriched with values, traditions and emotions shared across our continent(s)". In Nigeria, football is one entertainment sport that captures the interest and imagination of about 60% of the population (The Mathematical, 2016). There is a growing football culture among Nigerian students who are avowed fans and supporters of local and international football clubs; who will spend valuable time and money to play or watch live football matches at stadium or on television. Mathematical knowledge and skills are involved in playing football and following football matches by reading, preparing and interpretating football league tables. Connecting preparation and interpretation of football league tables and school mathematics teaching and learning will allow or encourage students to construct mathematical knowledge and skills that will make them count on who they are and what they know. The use of football cultural references and examples in mathematics classrooms increases as teachers begin to see the value of framing the mathematics they teach in a context with which the students are familiar (Lipka, 1998). According to Barta and Brenner (2009), such integrations work to validate local knowledge and mathematical applications implemented within the student's community that are typically omitted from school mathematics curricular inclusion.

However, Unodiaku (2013) faulted the teaching and learning of mathematics across secondary schools in Nigeria as the mathematics teachers are inclined to the traditional rote learning of mathematics and the use of teaching materials that are alien to the students' cultural background. Earlier, Kurumeh (2007) had observed that the poor performance of students in

Mathematics, particularly in geometry and mensuration, might have been due to the inability of students to understand the basic mathematical concepts, principles, computations or logical facts involved and the underlying processes that gave rise to the mathematical facts or concepts. Kurumeh concluded that this resulted from the "type of inappropriate, inadequate, foreign, elitist and eurocentric teaching techniques and methods used by mathematics teachers" p.104. Unodiaku and Kurumeh severally, based on their findings, recommend that ethnomathematics teaching materials and approach should be incorporated in the school mathematics curriculum and classroom practices. The instruction that integrates ethnomathematical dimensions in preparing and interpreting football league tables and school mathematics reflects a shift in the educational status quo which typically occurs in the mathematics classrooms. It will help students grow to have more interest in learning mathematics and be successful in using mathematical knowledge and skills; and will help teachers to connect teaching mathematics and football culture. The need for mathematics teachers to examine how different mathematics subject matter concepts, content, and skills in the football cultural practices of students will influence school mathematics curriculum has informed this study. The study was guided by the following research questions:

(i) What percentage of preservice Mathematics teachers identifies the right basic mathematical knowledge and skills for reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables?
(ii) What basic mathematical knowledge and skills do preservice Mathematics teachers need to read, prepare and interpret football league tables?
(iii) What is the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers in the areas of reading, solving mathematical problems, making inferences and preparing football league table?
(iv) To what extent do preservice mathematics teachers perceive that reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables will be relevant to their teaching practices?
(v) What is the difference in the mean performance scores of preservice mathematics teachers in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table based on gender?
(vi) What is the difference in the mean performance scores of preservice mathematics teachers who play football and those who do not play in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table?

Research questions 5 and 6 were hypothesized as follows:

HO1: There is no significant difference in the mean performance scores of male and female preservice mathematics teachers in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.
HO2: There is no significant difference in the mean performance scores of preservice mathematics teachers who play football and those who do not in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.

2. Literature Review

Current efforts in Mathematics education are to orient teachers to discover pathways for student engagement, and support multiple approaches to teaching and learning mathematics within formal and informal environments. To effectively accomplish this, Furuto (2016) examined strengths-based approaches in ethnomathematics research in the design and implementation of professional development for educators and teacher educators, by honouring culturally responsive, place-based strategies such as learning within and outside of the classroom and reshaping the curriculum. Placed-based strategies, according to Furuto, recognize the importance of including students' cultural contexts in all aspects of learning, as the expertise that exists in our communities, schools and families is the foundation in the production of knowledge for empowerment to achieve equitable and quality mathematics education. Towards this end, Furuto conducted a research with the support of the Ethnomathematics and STEM Institute (EthnoSTEM) at the University of Hawai`i - West O`ahu. The Ethnomathematics Institute was a two-week summer programme for 39 undergraduate P-20 STEM teachers for the years 2013-2015, to address issues of equitable and quality education through culturally responsive STEM pedagogy. During the yearlong EthnoSTEM institute, participants met four times face-to-face (with sessions lasting from one to seven days) and once online, for a total of 132 direct contact hours over 13 days. The professional development structure consists of a two-day intensive orientation focused on introducing and laying the foundation and building community, three one-day workshops centered around themes that expose the teachers to different ethnomathematics promising practices and strategies through field experiences, and a one-week summer institute. The evaluation of

EthnoSTEM utilizes a mixed-methods approach, and evaluators use instruments for collecting formative and summative information. The main methods of data collection are observations, surveys, focus group interviews, and reflections after every professional development component. The analyses consist of descriptive statistics for quantitative data and qualitative analysis using a grounded theory approach for constructed-response questions. Overall, the participants perceived the professional development experience to be valuable and relevant to their teaching practice. When asked to give examples of how their teaching practices have changed, most participants indicated that the professional development programme encouraged them to modify curriculum materials to make them more relevant to their students through cultural activities and placed-based connections. As the teachers view of mathematics is transmitted to the students in their instruction, and this will shape students' views about the nature of mathematics of being culture based, culturally responsive place-based strategies will help to include football cultural contexts in learning mathematics in Nigeria schools.

One of the aims of teaching and learning mathematics is to encourage and enable learners to become confident in using mathematical knowledge and skills to analyze and solve practical problems in real life situations. Mazana, Montero and Casmir (2020) assessed Tanzanian teachers' perspective on students' performance in Mathematics by analysing mathematics performance data obtained from the National Examination Council of Tanzania during the period 2008 to 2016. The study further examined the perception of teachers on the causes of poor academic performance in mathematics among students in Tanzania. Their findings revealed, among others, higher failure rates in mathematics in secondary schools particularly in lower secondary schools. Those factors associated with students’ poor performance are in line with Walberg's Productivity model (which includes students aptitude attributes, instructional factors and social psychological environment) but for Tanzania policy, environment and culture play much important roles. The findings revealed that majority of the teachers possessed mixed emotions towards student's ability and the teaching-learning environment. Specifically, on teachers' perception on factors influencing students' performance in mathematics, the study revealed that teachers’ attitude towards students and mathematics affect their students' attitude towards mathematics and performance. These teachers believe that mathematics is being taught as an abstract subject in such a way that students do not see the value of the subject in real life applications. On measures to improve the situations, the researchers suggested enhancement in teaching-learning environments, classroom instructions, teaching skills and students learning skills, teacher training programmes, attitude of the community, and accountability. The results from this study provide information about the trends of school mathematics achievement and associated factors for teachers' educators and other stakeholders to consider the implications in Curriculum and Instructional practices of mathematics at all levels of education, particularly in linking the teaching of mathematics with the student's real life experiences.

Idehen and Oteze (2020) assessed the perception of 108 secondary school teachers of their students' use of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables. The descriptive survey design was employed to select a total of 108 secondary school teachers from 25 schools across Edo and Delta states of Nigeria. The instrument for the study was a 4-point Likert scale on needed basic mathematical knowledge and skills by students in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. The findings showed that the teachers perceived basic mathematical knowledge and skills such as counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and ordering of numbers are needed by students to read, prepare and interpret football league table. The findings also shows that teachers perceived that mathematical knowledge and skills descriptors within four thinking levels (idiosyncratic, translational, quantitative and analytical) are highly used by students in demonstration of awareness, identification/interpretation of unit score, summative grouping of data, comparison of data and teams, evaluation of displayed data, relative thinking and construction of league table in the preparation of football league table. Furthermore, the study found a significant difference between the mean scores of teachers who play football and those who do not play football on students’ mathematical knowledge and skills needed to read, prepare and interpret football league table in favour of those teachers who play football. Idehen and Oteze therefore recommended that to connect classroom mathematics to students' daily experience and social lives, Nigerian teachers are encouraged to have the right perception of their students' mathematical knowledge and skills dispositions through personal assessment.

Reid and Reid (2017) examined critically the mathematics content knowledge (MKC) of 151 teacher candidates enrolled in a two-year Master of Teaching degree in Ontario, Canada. The study analysed the basic numeracy skills of the teacher candidates through pre- and post-tests. In addition, 8 teacher candidates took part in semi-structured interviews and shared their experiences in the Master programme. Test results indicated significant improvements in many basic mathematics concepts and skills of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, fractions, percent, decimals, ratios, order of operations, and integers. Interview results revealed teacher candidates' perceptions of mathematics test, courses, and instructors, as well as the importance of teaching mathematics during their practicum placement. The researchers recommended that teacher education programmes establish minimum mathematics competency standards, enhance coherence between mathematics courses and practicum placements, and providing additional support for teacher candidates with low mathematics proficiency.

On teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching and the mathematical quality of instruction, Hill, Blunk, Charalambos, Lewis, Phelps, Sleep and Ball (2008) studied both the mathematical knowledge that is common to individuals working in diverse professions and the mathematical knowledge that specialized to teaching. The researchers used a series of five case studies and associated qualitative data to detail how mathematical knowledge for teaching was associated with mathematical quality of instruction. Results from the study indicated some significant strong association between levels of mathematical quality of instruction. Also, Gencturk (2012) dissertation examined the relationship among teachers' mathematical knowledge, their teaching practices, and student achievement. Quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques (content knowledge assessments, surveys, interviews, and classroom observations) were used to collect data from 21 inservice masters' programme teachers and 873 students. The 21 teachers were followed for 4 years to study how their mathematical knowledge as well as their teaching practices change over time. The results indicated that, compared with their initial baseline data, teachers' mathematical knowledge increased dramatically, and the teachers made statistically significant changes in their classroom design, mathematical agenda of the lessons, task choices and classroom climate. The gains in the teachers' mathematical knowledge predicted changes in the quality of their lesson design, mathematical agenda and classroom climate. Teachers' beliefs were related to the quality of their lesson design, mathematical agenda, and quality of task chosen.

Focusing on teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching and quality of instruction, the present Study differs from others which examined inservice undergraduate teachers' professional development through summer institute/programme and workshops (Furuto, 2016) and case studies (Hill etal, 2008) to expose teachers to different teaching strategies and practices as well as from other studies which investigated mathematics content knowledge through pre- tests and post-tests (Reid & Reid, 2017; Gencturk, 2012). Though Idehen and Oteze(2020) study assessed the perception of secondary school teachers of their students' use of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table, this study went further to assess undergraduate preservice mathematics teachers' use of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. In addition, Idehen and Oteze's used Quantitative (questionnaire) method to collect data, on the other hand, the present study employed quantitative (performance test and questionnaire) and qualitative (semi-structured instrument) methods to collect data. This study used mixed methods to assess undergraduate preservice mathematics teachers' basic mathematical knowledge and skills using football league table to establish the need for a Culturally responsive mathematics education through linking the teaching of school mathematics with the students' real life experiences.

3. Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical frameworks that informed this study is drawn from Aguirre's (2009) conceptual frame on Teaching mathematics for equity and social justice: Theoretical framework for mathematics teacher education. The researcher uses the framework suggested by Gustien (2006) that aims for a balance among classical knowledge (school mathematics), cultural knowledge and critical knowledge that will facilitate the students' development of three knowledge bases and their interrelationships (see figure 1). Also, the framework is about impacting teacher cognition (e.g., beliefs, knowledge, goals) that, in turn, impact instructional practice.

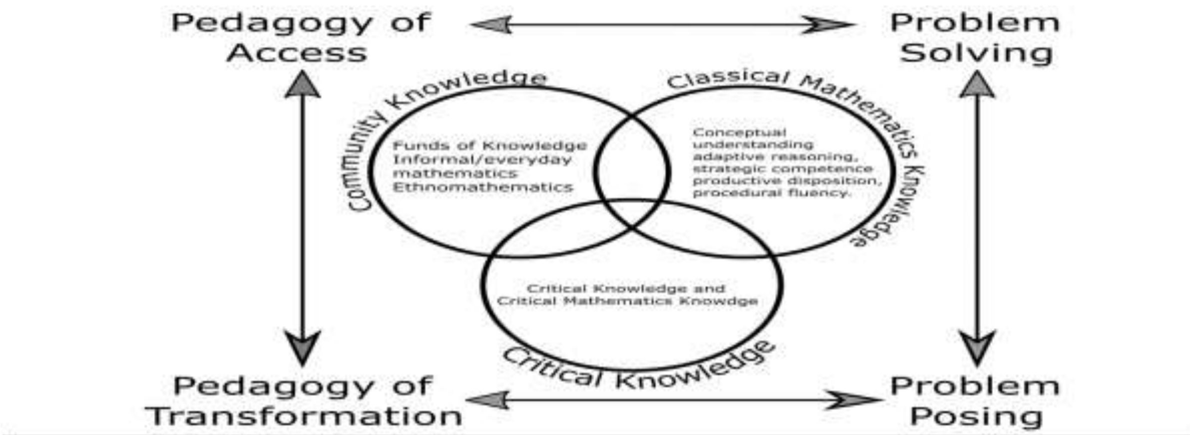

Figure 1: Adopted from Aguirre's (2009) Teaching mathematics for equity and justice: Theoretical framework for mathematics teacher education

From the teaching of Mathematics for equity and social justice theoretical framework for mathematics teacher education, Aguirre defines classical mathematics knowledge as referring to the mathematical power and competencies needed to make meaning in the world, pass gate-keeping educational and vocational tests, and pursue advanced mathematics and mathematics-related careers. These include the academic content and strands of mathematical proficiency of school mathematics curriculum as developed by the Nigerian Research and Development Council (NERDC) (2012a; 2012b) for primary and secondary schools in Nigeria. It is important for in-service teachers to develop and assess a strong sense of what Mathematics ideas, concepts, principles and operations in the preparation and interpretation of football league table are expected to advance students in our schools. Community knowledge refers to the universal capacity of "ordinary" people to have and produce knowledge about their lives, experiences, and context. It includes the funds of knowledge that underline household exchanges, traditions, and activities; it also includes the production of mathematical knowledge that undergirds everyday such as gardening, sewing, buying and selling. The fans, supporters, players and coaches, owners and sponsors of football clubs have a community of mathematical knowledge which they produce and use in recording match scores, read, prepare and interpret football league tables. By focusing attention on football community knowledge and the mathematical knowledge produced from the community, mathematics teachers develop a sense that there are mathematical resources (rather than barriers) to be mined from the football community that can produce productive dispositions, rich mathematical discussions, and learning for students. The term critical knowledge refers to the mathematical knowledge required to analyze the power relations, social injustices, and iniquities that affect our individual, community, and global lives. It is the knowledge needed beyond mathematics to understand various sociopolitical contexts, including multiple histories, policies, institutional structures, and practices that create equity and iniquity in our world. For mathematics teachers, it is a new idea to acknowledge that school mathematics has an important role in analyzing football game issues that impact the world of football. By introducing critical football knowledge as part of a knowledge triumvirate that connect to school mathematics, it opens a door that transcends mathematics beyond the curriculum guidelines, content standards and textbook.

To facilitate the students' development of all three knowledge bases and their interrelationships, Aguirre added two spectrums designed to highlight important dimensions critical to teaching mathematics for social justice that respects the dual emphasis on both equity and mathematics. The left side of the theoretical framework focuses on the Access-Transformation Pedagogy Spectrum that highlights access at one end and transformation at the other. The focus on access is to create learning opportunities for all students to engage in rich mathematical discourse and practices rather than perpetuating a uniform school curricular tracking that relegates other students from same cultural, ethical/racial, and linguistic group to general mathematics contents. Hence, for this study the Access-Transformation Pedagogy Spectrum when acknowledged and used by teachers will empower students to use mathematical knowledge and skills to prepare, interpret and analyze football league tables. The right side of the schematic representation of the knowledge bases focuses on the Problem Solving/Problem Posing Pedagogy Spectrum.

Problem Solving has been a key component of reconceptualizing mathematics beyond procedural fluency by including adaptive reasoning and strategic competence as elements of problem solving crucial to mathematics proficiency (National Research Council, 2001). In this framework, problem solving parallels classical mathematics knowledge to acknowledge that relationship. Using scores from football matches to prepare and analyze league tables and to teach problem solving is both challenging and rewarding task for teachers because it pushes teachers to anticipate the implications of various students approaches to school mathematics problems and determine if those approaches are potentially fruitful and if not how to help make them so. This study uses a problem-posing/ Problem-solving approach on preparing and interpreting football league tables that embraces the community of football mathematical knowledge, classical school mathematics knowledge and critical mathematics knowledge necessary to analyze the global football world within contexts and relate that knowledge to the school curriculum.

4. Methodology

This study employed both quantitative (performance test and questionnaire instrument) and qualitative (semi-structured interview instrument) methods. The performance and questionnaire instrument were used to assess 43 undergraduate preservice mathematics teachers' knowledge and perception of using basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table (BMFLT). These undergraduate preservice mathematics teachers had been formally taught school mathematics and were in the final year (400 Level) of their B.Sc (Ed) Mathematics programme at a Federal university in Edo State, Nigeria.. All the 48 students enrolled in the programme were the target population, but two of them were absent and three who participated in the test but did not provide answers to all the items were excluded. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the 43 candidates who participated in the test.

Table 1: Preservice Mathematics Teachers' Characteristics (N = 43).

Variable	Level	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	31	72.09%
	Female	12	27.91%
Play football	Yes	25	58.14%
	No	18	41.86%

Table 1 displays the data on the characteristics of the 43 preservice mathematics teachers who participated in the study. The characteristics by gender shows more male (72.09%) than female (27.91%) participated. On play football variable, more of those who play football (58.14%) than those who do not play (41.86%) participated. Thus, the candidates for the performance test were able to provide relevant information for the study as they have had two 6 weeks (12 weeks altogether) of supervised teaching practice exercises in their 300 and 400 levels in the 2018/2019 and 2019/ 2020 academic sessions. The preservice mathematics teachers participated voluntarily and their identity kept confidential.

The BMFLT instrument was divided into 8 sections: A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H. Section A was to provide biographical data on gender of student (male and female) and play football (yes or no) variables; Section B had 8 items on reading a presented Football League Table (FLT); C had 8 items on solving problems using the FLT; D had 8 items on making inferences from the FLT; E had 5 items on preparing FLT; F had 10 items on identifying the basic mathematical knowledge and skills used in reading, preparing and interpreting FLT; and H had 9 items Likert like questionnaire meant to elicit teachers' perception on use of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting the FLT. The 32 items in sections B, C, D and E were of objective test with 4 options (a, b, c, d). The candidate was to choose one of the options as his/her answer to any of the questions. Each of the items in section F was scored 4 (strongly agreed), 3 (agreed), 2 (disagreed) and 1 (strongly disagreed).

The qualitative instrument had 8 semi-structured interview questions that provided data on preservice mathematics teachers' personal views on using basic mathematics knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables and it connections to school mathematics curriculum that will reflect culturally responsive mathematics education. All interviews were guided by an interview guide. The interview guide consisted of 8 questions that are described in Table 2.

Table 2: Structured interview guide

	Question	Description
1	What school mathematical concepts can be taught to students in reading football league tables?	This question aimed at listing the basic mathematical concepts that can be used in reading football league table
2	What mathematical skills can be taught students in preparing football league tables?	The question aimed at finding the basic mathematical skills that can be used in preparing football league table.
3	How can you integrate the preparation and interpretation of football league tables into school mathematics curriculum?	The question aimed at first knowing the basic mathematical concepts and skills that can be included as content in school mathematics; second, at what level they can be included; and third what method can be applied to teach them.
4	How can connecting preparation and interpretation of football league table increase the interest of students in learning mathematics?	The question aimed at knowing whether the interest students have playing and watching football league games can be transferred positively to learning school mathematics.
5	How can connecting mathematics to football league table change the attitude of students toward school mathematics?	The question aimed at knowing whether the attitude students have toward learning mathematics can be influenced by their attitude towards football games.
6	As a pre-service teacher how will this connection between preparation of football league tables and school mathematics change your teaching methods/strategies?	The question aimed at finding how teachers can connect real life situations to school mathematics contents and classroom practices.
7	How can football cultural references and examples in mathematics help the students?	The question aimed at knowing if connecting mathematics to cultural contexts will help them realize that mathematics contents are culturally based.
8	How does relating mathematics to football or football to mathematics promote a culturally responsive mathematical education?	The question aimed at knowing whether teachers can change to relevant culturally responsive instructional approaches that would change the contexts and content of school mathematics as to improve academic outcomes.

Two experts in mathematics education and who had taught school mathematics validated the items in the BMFLT instrument. The instrument was administered on the candidates after allowing them to study the league table (see Appendix A) for about 40 minutes. The instructions on the various sections of the instrument were explained and candidates were given opportunity to ask questions for further clarification. Some candidates raised questions on the modalities and steps on reading and preparing football league tables. The question-and-answer sessions were handled discreetly so as not to preempt answers to the questions raised in the BMFLT instrument. It was not necessarily a speeded test but candidates completed the questions between one and one-half hours. For the semi-structured interview, the researcher personally interviewed the candidates one after the other. Each candidate wrote down their responses to each of the 8 questions. Prompting questions were asked by the researcher and explanations/clarification of responses were given by the candidates, where necessary, which were carefully noted down.

The study ultilised score data collected from the BMFLT on the 43 preservice teachers' knowledge and perception. The maximum score for answers to questions in each of sections B, C, D and E was 8 marks respectively, totally 32 marks. The performance score data were analysed using the following descriptive statistics: frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation. Percentages were used to answer research questions one and two to identify the right basic mathematical knowledge and skills (counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division) of the ten descriptors of the league table (total number of teams, total number of games, total goals scored, total points earned, total games won, total games lost, total goals against, total number of draws, goal difference and average goal scored). To answer research question three, the levels of performance for each of the mathematics areas of reading, solving problems, making inferences and preparing the FLT were set at 0.0 - 2.0 (very low), 2.0 - 4.0 (low), 4.0 - 6.0 (high) and 6.0 - 8.0 (very high). For the sum of the data from sections B, C, D and E the levels of performance were set at 0.0 - 8.0 (very low), 8.0 - 16.0 (low), 16.0 - 24.0 (high) and 24.0 - 32.0 (very high). To answer research question six, the levels of performance were set at 0.0 - 2.66 (low), 2.66 - 5.32 (moderate) and 5.32 - 8.00 (high). The t - test statistic was used to test, at the 0.05 level of significance, the difference between the mean performance scores of male and female participants, and those who play football and those who do not play. The qualitative data were coded and reviewed and validated by two experts in Mathematics education and test measurement and evaluation.

5. Findings

Results are presented by use of tables. Results from table 3 will be used to answer research questions 1 and 2.

Research Question 1: What percentage of preservice mathematics teachers identifies the right basic mathematical knowledge and skills for reading, preparing and interpreting football league table?

Table 3: Preservice mathematics teachers' identification of five basic mathematical knowledge and skills for reading, preparing and interpreting football league table (N= 43).

S/N	Descriptors	Counting	Addition	Subtraction	Multiplication	Division	Decision
1	Total number of teams	41 (95.3%)	31 (72.1%)	00 (0.0%)	01 (2.3%)	01 (2.3%)	Counting Addition
2	Total number of games	29 (67.4%)	38 (88.4%)	05 (11.6%)	01 (2.3%)	01 (2.3%)	Counting Addition
3	Total goals scored	27 (62.8%)	40 (93.0%)	07 (16.3%)	04 (9.3%)	00 (0.0%)	Counting Addition
4	Total points earned	18 (41.9%)	37 (86.0%)	10 (23.1%)	08 (18.6%)	02 (4.7%)	Counting Addition Multiplication
5	Total games won	27 (62.8%)	37 (86.0%)	06 (14.0%)	04 (9.3%)	01 (2.3%)	Counting Addition
6	Total number of games lost	29 (67.4%)	29 (67.4%)	20 (46.5%)	00 (0.0%)	00 (0.0%)	Counting Addition Subtraction
7	Total number of goals against	23 (53.5%)	31 (72.1%)	19 (44.2%)	02 (4.7%)	03 (7.0%)	Counting Addition Subtraction
8	Total number of draws	30 (69.8%)	34 (79.1%)	12 (27.9%)	03 (7.0%)	00 (0.0%)	Counting Addition
9	Goal difference	15 (34.9%)	24 (55.8%)	32 (74.4%)	02 (4.7%)	02 (4.7%)	Counting Addition Subtraction
10	Average goal scored	16 (37.2%)	33 (76.7%)	04 (9.3%)	08 (18.6%)	30 (68.8%)	Counting Addition Divison

Table 3 displays ten football table mathematics knowledge descriptors: total number of teams; total number of games; total goals scored; total points earned; total number of games won; total number of games lost; total number of goals against; total number of draws; goal difference, and average goal scored. Also, Table 3 displays five basic mathematical knowledge and skills (counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division) for calculating for each of the ten football table knowledge descriptors. The results show that between 34.9% to 95.3% of the preservice mathematics teachers rightly identified counting as being used in calculating for the ten descriptors in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. The highest (95.3%) of them used counting to calculate for the total number of teams and with least (34.9%) for goal difference. Furthermore, 55.8% to 93.0% of them rightly identified addition to calculate for the ten descriptors; while 44.2% to 74.4% rightly identified subtraction for calculating the total number of games lost, goals against and goal difference; 18.6% identified multiplication for total points earned; and 69.3% identified division for calculating for average goal scored.

Research Question 2: What basic mathematical knowledge and skills do preservice mathematics teachers need to read, prepare and interpret football league table?

From Table 3 and the discussion that follows, counting and addition were used by the preservice mathematics teachers to calculate for all the ten descriptors; subtraction for three descriptors (total number of games lost, goal against, and goal difference); multiplication for total points earned and division for average goal scored. Thus, counting and addition are the most used mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. Therefore, counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are the basic mathematical knowledge and skills needed in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.

Research Question 3: What is the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers in the areas of reading, solving mathematical problems, making inferences and preparing football league table?

Table 4: Level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers in the four mathematics areas (N = 43)

	Mathematics Areas	Maximum Score	Mean	SD	Performance Level
1	Reading FLT	8	6.93	1.39	Very High
2	Solving problems using FLT	8	5.65	1.55	High
3	Making inferences from FLT	8	5.84	1.78	High
4	Preparing FLT	8	4.8	2.55	High
	Total	**32**	**23.22**	**7.27**	**High**

Table 4 displays the mean and standard deviation (SD) for the four mathematics areas of reading football league table (FLT), solving problems using FLT, making inferences from FLT, and preparing FLT. The level of performance of the 43 preservice mathematics teachers of reading FLT is very high (mean = 6.93). It is high for the teachers in solving problems using FLT (mean = 5.65), making inferences from FLT (mean=5.84) and preparing FLT (mean=4.80). In the overall performance of the preservice mathematics teachers, the level of performance is high (mean = 23.23). Therefore, the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers is high in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.

Research Question 4: To what extent do preservice mathematics teachers perceive that reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables will be relevant to their teaching practices?

Table 5: Understanding, modification, incorporation and relevance of reading, preparing and interpreting of football league table to school mathematics teaching practices (N=43)

S/N	Question	Construct	N	Mean	SD
1	Football League Table (FLT) has helped me to better my understanding of basic mathematics operation concepts (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division)	Understanding of basic mathematics operation	43	3.65	0.68
2	The reading, preparation and interpretation of FLT will encourage me to modify curriculum contents and materials to make them more relevant to student through cultural activities.	Modification of curriculum contents and materials	43	3.33	0.52
3	Reading, preparation and interpretation of FLT helped me to better my understanding of culturally responsive mathematics education.	Understanding of culturally responsive mathematics education	43	3.3	0.63
4	The FLT helped me to understanding how to incorporate culturally responsive mathematics contents into my teaching practice.	Incorporation of culturally responsive mathematics content	43	3.28	0.66
5	The FTL as a whole will be valuable and relevant to primary/secondary school mathematics curriculum.	Relevance to school mathematics curriculum	43	3.53	0.62
6	The FTL as a whole will be valuable and relevant to my teaching practice.	Relevance to teaching practice	43	3.28	0.79
	Total	**Overall Experience**	**43**	**20.37**	**2.31**

From table 5, the preservice mathematics teachers perceived that the overall experience in reading, preparing and interpreting FLT to be valuable to and relevant to their teaching practices (N=43, mean=20.28, SD=2.31). In particular, the preservice mathematics teachers were most likely to agree they understood use of basic mathematics knowledge and skills/operations and culturally responsive mathematics education, and could modify curriculum content and materials by incorporating culturally responsive mathematics content and pedagogy in their teaching practices.

Testing Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

HO_1: There is no significant difference in the mean performance scores of male and female preservice mathematics teachers in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.

Table 6: t-test of mean scores of male and female preservice mathematics teachers (N= 43).

Gender	N	Mean	SD	DF	t-cal	P-value
Male	31	23.1	5.27	41	0.9978	0.324
Female	12	22.0	4.95			

Significant at P<0.05

From Table 6, t-cal (0.9978) is less than the table value of 2.02. With the p-value of 0.324 greater than the 0.05, the result indicates that there no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female preservice mathematics teachers. Therefore, the gender of preservice mathematics teachers does not influence their performance on the of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table.

Hypothesis Two

HO_2: There is no significant difference in the mean performance scores of preservice mathematics teachers who play football and those who do not.

Table 7: t-test of mean scores of preservice mathematics teachers who play football and those who do not play (N=43)

Play Football	N	Mean	SD	DF	t-cal	P-value
Yes	25	24.32	5.66	41	1.73	0.089
No	18	21.72	4.14			

Significant at P<0.05

From table 7, the t-cal of 1.73 is less than the table value of 2.02. With the p-value of 0.089 greater than 0.05, the results indicate that there is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of preservice mathematics teachers who play football and those who do not. Therefore, playing football does not influence the preservice mathematics teachers on the use of basic mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables.

Semi-Structured Interview: Data Analysis and Results

The qualitative data collected using semi-structured interviews was coded and interpreted thematically and then supported by qualitative data analysis in the form of texts and verbatim quotes from the respondents (Kamere, Makatiani & Nzau, 2018). The results are presented on eight themes in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables, namely school mathematics concepts that can be taught to students, mathematical knowledge and skills that can be taught students, integrating preparation and interpretation of FLT into school mathematics curriculum, preparation and interpretation of FLT and interest of students, connecting Mathematics to football and attitude of students, preparation of FLT and school mathematics teaching methods/strategies, football cultural references as mathematics contexts, and relating mathematics to football and culturally responsive mathematics education. Thirteen (13) out of the 43 preservice mathematics teachers volunteered for the interview.

School Mathematics Concepts and Skills that can be taught to students

The findings revealed that most of the preservice mathematics teachers interviewed agreed that addition, subtraction, multiplication and division can be taught through reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables. In addition, one teacher wrote: “Mode, mean, range can also be used.” Another teacher noted: “... other concepts that can be taught in school is(are) statistics, range, mean, median and etc.” Yet, another teacher added: “... counting of numbers, mean, mode, range are mathematical knowledge and skills that can be taught students.”

Most of the preservice mathematics teachers interviewed agreed that computational and Problem-solving skills can be taught in school mathematics using preparing football league table. On this one teacher declared: “We use statistical table for inputting of values by counting using addition." Another teacher noted: "Arithmetic skills, problem solving skills, problem interpretation skills."

Integrating preparation and interpretation of FLT

Some of the preservice mathematics teachers agreed to the identification of the concepts and content in the curriculum where football league table materials and content can be applied in context of mathematics education. On this, one teacher said: "It can be integrated by relating it with a topic that suits it on the scheme of work - topics like the measure of central tendency." Thinking along the same line, another teacher noted: "Identify the concepts and contents, for example, you can use football league table to teach mean, mode and range." One teacher generally noted: "Identify the content, concepts where the league can be used in mathematics."

FLT and interest of students in learning mathematics

Most of the preservice teachers interviewed believe that with football being a popular sport with large youth followership who have great interest in the game, the students will be interested in the mathematics that will make them follow and understand the game. That is, the interest they have for football will be transferred to learning of school mathematics. Some commented as follows: One teacher said: "Because some students love football game, their interest towards learning mathematics will be very high." Another teacher noted: "Students have interest in games a lot. Introducing football league table which is game related will actually build interest on learning (mathematics) into the students." Another said: "Students love games and most students are interested in games ... since is something they love they have more interest in learning mathematics." One other teacher noted: "Since many young people love football, they will want to be attentive to a related topic." One further noted: "It can increase the students' interest since it is a game of fun that arouses their interest because of their love for football." Yet another teacher noted: "Football is interesting and presenting mathematics in a way that relates to football can really increase the interest of students." In conclusion, one teacher said: "Since football is considered an interesting sport, the league table which helps students gain more understanding and interest would also be interesting."

FLT and attitude of students towards learning Mathematics

Majority of the preservice mathematics teachers saw football as game that affect the interest and feelings of people which will affect their attitude towards learning mathematics. Students having positive attitude towards football will likely have positive attitude towards learning mathematics. On students' attitude, one preservice mathematics teacher wrote: "It can change their feelings towards mathematics, it can make them love mathematics instead of hating it." Another noted: "This will make students realise that mathematics is involved in all aspect of human activities, thereby making them to have a strong desire for mathematics learning." Another teacher said: "Connecting Mathematics to football will change their feelings, desires towards the subject (Mathematics) ... it will show that mathematics is no longer abstract or boring but can actually be fun." One other teacher noted: "Students love football and games (and) this can possibly change their feelings and attitude towards the subject ... (as) students see mathematics as a difficult subject." Furthermore, another teacher noted: "The introduction of the fun in football to mathematics teaching and learning can change the attitude of students towards mathematics (learning)." Conclusively, one teacher noted: "Since students are considered to have a positive attitude towards football, the league table would also create a positive attitude for the subject Mathematics."

FLT and teachers' teaching methods/ strategies

On connecting FLT and school mathematics to change teaching methods/strategies, most of the preservice mathematics teachers interviewed supported the use of student-centered methods by using real life situations and examples rather than abstract. Teacher 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 comments include:

Teacher 1: "Teaching Mathematics using football makes learning easier for the students. ... it makes learning mathematics a concrete experience ... And students are excited to be able to apply mathematical concepts in real life."

Teacher 2: "Using the environment to illustrate mathematics."

Teacher 3: "Citing necessary examples that can stimulate students' learning of mathematics just as football affects (changes) the abstractness of mathematics teaching methods."

Teacher 4: "It changes my teaching method because now I can use real life situations, something students are familiar with so it becomes easy to explain to the students."

Teacher 5: "The use of real life examples rather than abstract will be adopted into my teaching strategy."

Teacher 6: "It will help me to use real life situations to explain mathematical concepts and make the students and pupils discover other ways of solving mathematical problems."

Football cultural references and examples in Mathematics

Few of the preservice mathematics teachers interviewed could see cultural references in football and mathematics. Teachers 1, 2, 3 and 4 noted the following:

Teacher 1: "Mathematics will be seen as part of our culture and students' attitude towards Mathematics will change."

Teacher 2: "It will help the student to realise that mathematics can be applied to football thereby making it real. Students love or have interest in things that can be applied."

Teacher 3: "Generally people think mathematics is not relevant but it is; we us mathematics in almost everything including football, when playing football or calculating the league table."

Teacher 4: "Football has been a game of old, likewise mathematics. Continuous reference to the historical cultural relevance of Mathematics can help students see it as part of life."

Football and promotion of culturally responsive Mathematics education

Most teachers interviewed agreed to the teaching and learning of history of Mathematics as it is related to culture. Teachers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 responses include:

Teacher 1: "History of mathematics should be taught to students culturally in ... relating mathematics to life events."

Teacher 2:

It will make the students to realise that mathematics is important and relevant to us and can be explained using real life situations and teachers will also use real life situations to teach mathematical concepts, and the perception of the community will change about mathematics.

Teacher 3: "We can make mathematics know in our culture by making our families and friends know the history of teaching and learning of Mathematics."

Teacher 4:

The history of Mathematics should be taught to the students and to the world. Knowing the origin of a thing will actually build a concrete understanding in the student, and also help the teacher develop methods to teach it. The history of Mathematics will prove to the students that it is life related.

Teacher 5:

History of mathematics should be taught to students culturally, orienting the students and members of the community that we use mathematics in our everyday life and in football. So, football to mathematics can promote a culturally responsive mathematical education.

Teacher 6: "Through teaching of mathematics from previous occurrences, previous knowledge and facts seen in our environment."

Teacher 7: "It (is) more constructive using the experience of the student to teach."

Teacher 8: "The teacher is able to ... incorporate a constructivism method in which mathematical concepts can be taught in the classroom by use of students' daily life experiences."

6. Discussion

The study examined preservice mathematics teachers' assessment of preparation and interpretation of football league table on school mathematics teaching and learning. Results show that high percentage of the 43 preservice mathematics teachers identifies five basic mathematical knowledge and skills for reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables. The five basic mathematical knowledge and skills are counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division which are used in calculating for total number of teams, total number of games, total goals scored, total points earned, total number of games won, total number of games lost, total number of goals against, total number of draws, goal difference and average goal scored. The semi- structured interview results confirm this five basic mathematical knowledge and in addition the use of statistical concepts such as mean, mode, median and range. Therefore, basic mathematical knowledge and skills are needed by teachers to read, prepare and interpret football league tables. These results confirmed Idehen and Oteze (2020) findings that Nigerian school teachers perceived that mathematical knowledge and skills such as counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and ordering of numbers are needed by students to read, prepare and interpret football league tables. These findings could be in congruent with Reid and Reid (2017) study that assessed and identified numeracy skills in the areas of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, fractions, percent, ratio, decimals, order of operations, and integers are the basic mathematics content needed to generate a comprehensive understanding of teacher candidates' mathematics content knowledge and their experiences as mathematics learners and teachers.

The study also assessed the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers in the four mathematics areas of reading football league table (FLT), solving problems using FLT, making inferences from FLT and preparing FLT, and found that the level is high with a grand mean performance score of 23.22. Therefore, the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers is high in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. Furthermore, results from the study show that the football league table is perceived by the preservice mathematics teachers to be relevant to school mathematics teaching practices in the constructs of understanding of basic mathematics operations, modification of Curriculum contents and materials using cultural activities, understanding of culturally responsive mathematics education, incorporation of culturally responsive mathematics content, and that FLT is valuable and relevant to school mathematics curriculum and teaching practices. To support this perception, those interviewed believed that connecting football cultural references and examples in Mathematics will help students to realise that mathematics contents are culturally based, and teachers can therefore change to relevant culturally responsive instructional approaches that would change the content and contexts of mathematics so as to improve academic outcomes. In connecting football league table and school mathematics to change teaching methods/strategies, most of the preservice mathematics teachers interviewed supported the use of student-centered methods through the application of real life situations and examples. Some recommended the inclusion of history of mathematics in school mathematics curriculum. History of mathematics should be taught to students culturally, orienting the students and members of the community that we use mathematics in football and in our everyday life. So the use of football to teach mathematics can promote a culturally responsive mathematics education. Therefore, teaching school mathematics will no longer be in abstraction but mathematics learning would be from concrete experiences as mathematics contents are illustrated from the familiar environment of the student. These findings are in agreement with those of Furuto (2016) where participants perceived that their professional development experience on using placed-based strategies, which recognized the importance of including students' cultural contexts in all aspect of learning, to be valuable and relevant to their teaching practices, such that would encourage them to modify curriculum materials to make them more relevant to their students through cultural activities and placed-based connections.

The study in addition assessed teachers' perception on how reading, preparing and interpreting the FLT will influence or affect students’ interest and attitude towards learning mathematics. On FLT and interest of students in learning mathematics, most of the preservice teachers interviewed believe that with football being a popular sport with large youth followership who have great interest in the game, the students will be interested in the mathematics that will make them follow and understand the game. That is, the interest they have for football will be transferred to learning of school mathematics. On FLT and attitude of students towards learning mathematics, majority of the preservice mathematics teachers saw football as a game that affect the interest and feelings of people which will affect their attitude towards learning mathematics. Students having positive attitude towards football will likely have positive attitude towards learning mathematics. Therefore, students' interest and attitude will influence their learning of Mathematics.

On how some human factors could influence the performance of the preservice mathematics teachers, the study examined the variables of gender and playing football. Results from the study show that there is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female preservice mathematics teachers; and that there is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of those who play football and those who do not. Therefore, the gender of or playing football by the preservice mathematics teachers does not influence their performance scores on the use of mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables. Thus, all teachers assessed and interviewed saw equally the relevance of reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables in teaching and learning school mathematics.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study concludes that counting, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are basic mathematical knowledge and skills needed by preservice mathematics teachers in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table; and that computational and Problem-solving skills can be taught through the preparation of football league table. Furthermore, the study concludes that the football league table as perceived by the preservice mathematics teachers will be relevant and valuable to school mathematics teaching practices in the constructs of understanding of basic mathematics operations, modification of Curriculum contents and materials using cultural activities, understanding of culturally responsive mathematics education and incorporation of culturally responsive mathematics content. It is concluded that culturally responsive mathematics teaching methods/strategies should be promoted by use of student-centered methods through the application of real life situations and examples. The conclusion is that the level of performance of preservice mathematics teachers is high in the four mathematics areas of reading football league table, solving problems using football league table, making inferences from football league table and preparing football league table. As teachers perceived that football is a popular game that affect the feelings and interest of students which will in turn affect their attitude towards learning mathematics, the study concludes that students' positive attitude towards football games will positively influence their dispositions towards learning school mathematics as basic mathematics knowledge and skills are needed in reading, preparing and interpreting football league table. On assessment of mathematics knowledge and skills, the study concludes that gender and playing football do not influence preservice mathematics teachers' performance on the use of mathematical knowledge and skills in reading, preparing and interpreting football league tables.

Based on the findings and conclusions, it is recommended that basic mathematical concepts, computational and problem-solving skills in school Mathematics curriculum be taught through culturally responsive mathematics contents and teaching methods/strategies by using real life situations and examples from the environment and community of the students. Preservice and inservice mathematics teachers should have professional development programmes, and attend seminars and workshops, that would encourage them to modify curriculum materials to make them more relevant to their students through cultural activities and culturally responsive mathematics education connections.

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Appendix A
Spanish La Liga Table :2019/2020 Season

Nos	Team	P	W	D	L	F	A	GD	Pts
	Real Madrid	38	26	9	3	70	25	+45	87
	Barcelona	38	25	7	6	86	38	+48	82
	Atletico Madrid	38	18	16	4	51	27	+24	70
	Sevilla	38	19	13	6	54	34	+20	70
	Villarreal	38	18	6	14	63	49	+14	60
	Real Sociedad	38	16	8	14	56	48	+8	56
	Granada	38	16	8	14	52	45	+7	56
	Getafe	38	14	12	12	43	37	+6	54
	Valencia	38	14	11	13	46	53	-7	53
	Osasuna	38	13	13	12	46	54	-8	52
	Athletic Bilbao	38	13	12	13	41	38	+3	51
	Levante	38	14	7	17	47	53	-6	49
	Real Valladolid	38	9	15	14	32	43	-11	42
	Eibar	38	11	9	18	39	56	-17	42
	Real Betis	38	10	11	17	48	60	-12	41
	Alaves	38	10	9	19	34	59	-25	39
	Celta de Vigo	38	7	16	15	37	49	-12	37
	Leganes	38	8	12	18	30	51	-21	36
	Real Mallorca	38	9	6	23	40	65	-25	33
	Espanyol	38	5	10	23	27	58	-31	25

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A Methodological Appraisal of the Application of the Hare Psychopathy Checklists in Forensic Setting

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Abstract. Psychopathy is seen as a personality disorder defined by a cluster of interpersonal affective lifestyle and antisocial traits and behavior including grandiosity, egocentricity, deceptiveness, shallow emotion, lack of empathy or remorse, irresponsibility and impulsivity and tendency to violate social norms. The paper examined the use of the PCL-R in other climes. Investigation revealed that 90% of cases in the United States were decided using the PCL-R both at the state and federal courts. The PCL-R is also used in expert witnessing and testimony and also used to deal with charges of kidnapping, attempted murder, sexual assault, rape, robbery, long term offenders and dangerous offenders. Investigation also revealed that the PCL-R is used in sentence cases, parole hearing and death penalty sentencing in Canada. The paper therefore recommends that the Hare psychopathic checklist (PCL-R) should be validated and adapted in Nigeria and be used in the criminal justice system as a research instrument for research purposes, and a psycho diagnostic tool for assessment of psychopathy among forensic and clinical patients and measurement of deviant, irresponsible and impulsive behavior among new entrant into the Nigerian police force during selection processes.

Keywords: Hare Psychopathy, Checklist, Forensic Setting, Criminal, Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The term psychopathy has long and varied history that goes back hundreds of years and even has been equated with over all psychopathology or mental illness (Curran & Mallinson, 1944). Consequently, Millon, Simonsen, Birket-Smith, & Davis (1998) identified psychopathy as the first personality disorder ever recognized. However, psychopathy is now used to specify a clinical construct or a specific form of antisocial personality (APD) that is prevalent in individuals who commit a variety of criminal acts and generally behave irresponsibly (Hemphill & Hart, 2003). Hare (1996) describes psychopathy as a socially devastating disorder, and that psychopath are intra species predators.

According to Hervey Cleckley (1941) in his book, Mask of Sanity, sixteen (16) different characteristics that define or compose the clinical profile of the psychopath was identified. The characteristics include: superficial charm and good intelligence; absence of delusion and other signs of irrational thinking; absence of nervousness; unreliability; untruthfulness and insincerity; lack of remorse or shame; inadequately motivated antisocial behavior, poor judgment and failure to learn from experience; pathological egocentricity and incapacity for love; general poverty in major affective reactions; specific loss of insight; unresponsiveness in general interpersonal relations; fantastic and uninviting behaviour with drink and sometimes without; suicide rarely carried out; sex life interpersonal, trivial and poorly integrated; and failure to follow any life plan.

Consequently, for other scholars, the term Psychopath refers to a person with a personality disorder that includes a cluster of interpersonal, affective lifestyle and antisocial traits and behaviors (Hare, & Login, 2009). People with these traits and behaviour are often described as deceptive, impulsive, irresponsible, manipulative and glib. They have poor behavioral control and lack of sense of empathy or guilt, have a callous disregard for other rights, are sexually promiscuous, have a shallow affect and are constantly looking for stimulation; they are often described as being unethical, as they frequently engage in antisocial behaviour (Hare & Login, 2009). The term psychopath can also refer to any person who has received a score of 30 or more on the PCL-R. The term is not meant as a way to label or stigmatize any group; instead it is solely used as a succinct way to describe common traits or characteristics found in people who have scored 30 or above on the scale.

Psychopathy is a disease of the mind, in which the psychological state of someone has emotional or behavioral problems serious enough to require psychiatric evaluation. Psychopaths have no concern for the feelings of others and a complete disregard of any sense of social obligation. Psychopaths are characterized by lack of empathy, poor impulse control and manipulative behaviors. They use charm, manipulation, intimidation, and the use of severe to mild violence to satisfy their own needs. Psychopathy is derived from two Greek words: psych, meaning soul, and pathos, meaning suffering. They were once used to explain any form of mental illness. Psychopaths can seem just like you or me, but when you are not around them this is when their mental disorder kicks in. Psychopaths that have been put in jail committed three times as many crimes per year than non-psychopaths. 97% of convicted psychopathic criminals cause at least one violent crime compared to 74% of non-psychopaths. Psychopaths are shown to be more violence throughout their entire life compared to a regular people. Psychopaths tend to have a greater chance of failing on parole and mandatory supervision and have a faster rate of failing than non-psychopaths. Psychopathy predicts recidivism on conditional release as well as or better than do actuarial risk instruments. Psychopath's recidivate at a rate of three to four times higher than that of non-psychopaths. Doctors use a simple test to predict psychopathy called a Psychopathy Checklist-Revised or known as the PCL-R test. This is a checklist that has twenty items on it that included: glibness or superficial charm, grandiose sense of self-worth, need for stimulation/proneness to boredom, pathological lying, conning or manipulative, lack of remorse or guilt, shallow affect, callous and lack of empathy, parasitic lifestyle, poor behavioral controls, promiscuous sexual behavior, early behavioral problems, lack of realistic, long-term goals, impulsivity, irresponsibility, failure to accept responsibility for actions and criminal versatility.

2. Empirical Framework

Early validation for the PCL was conducted to ensure that it was capturing a similar construct as Cleckley's criteria and the global ratings of psychopathy. The initial sample consisted of 143 white incarcerated males from a prison in British Columbia in Canada (Hare, 1980). Regression analysis showed that PCL scores significantly predicted global ratings of psychopathy indicating that the items the PCL were consisting of familiar features that clinicians were using when coming to a decision on the global rating of psychopathy. Additionally, factor analysis using the PCL and Cleckley's criteria revealed a good fit between the two sets of factors suggesting that the 22 items, PCL and Cleckle's 16 criteria of psychopathy were measuring a similar construct. Early validation analysis thus suggested that the PCL was accurately capturing the same or similar construct of psychopathy that clinicians were assessing with global rating scale of psychopathy and Cleckle's criteria, placing confidence in the ability of the PCL as a measure of psychopathy (Hare, 1980). Reliability of the scale items and ratings from this initial study also indicated that it could be used confidently as a reliable measure. Subsequent research using the PCL began to shed light on psychopathy. A number of early studies were crucial for influencing the psychopathy literature for decades to come. The first study to link the PCL with other measures of personality used the Eysenck personality Questionnaire (Hare, 1982). This study found that PCL scores were associated with psychoticism and negatively with the lie scale. Another study examined the relation between the PCL and violence (Hare & McPherson, 1984). This study found that criminal's higher PCL scores were more likely to commit violent and aggressive criminal acts than those lower in PCL scores, and that lower IQ was not a reason for this effect. This finding would propel the PCL into research, examining the risk that offenders with elevated PCL (-R) scores pose for committing violent criminal acts upon release from prison (Hare, 2003). Another early and consistent finding was the individuals with high PCL scores were less likely to learn from punishment when there was a prospect of receiving a monetary reward (Newman, 1987). These findings laid the ground work for subsequent research that would corroborate and extend these features and many others into a greater understanding of individuals with psychopathic traits.

The PCL initiated the development of a research scale for the assessment of psychopathy. However a number of issues arise from the early validation study of the scale. The PCL contained 22 items, but two (2) items had relatively low correlations with the overall PCL score (Hare, 1980). These two items were items 2 (previous diagnosis as psychopath (or similar) and item 22 (Drug or alcohol abuse not direct cause of antisocial behavior). These 2 items were subsequently removed when developing the revised scale, resulting in a total of 20 items (with scores ranging from 0 to 40). Additionally, item 16 (irresponsible behavior by parents) was modified to represent irresponsible behavior across many contexts beyond just parenting. Another issue concern what information about the individual should be used to score each item. Thus, more comprehensive and clearer item description was subsequently provided. Scoring the PCL was also problematic when little to no information was available for a given item. In these circumstances, raters would often score the offender a 1for that item, which may have artificially inflated scores. As a result, the need to omit items and provide prorated scores was suggested and implemented in the revised scale. Lastly, some of the factors from the factor analysis in the preliminary study did not have underlying content that could meaningfully be communicated. However, refinement of the PCL item scoring adjustment and clearer item description would later produce the replicable and context meaningful structure found in the PCL-R; PCL-SV; & PCL; Y V. (e.g., interpersonal, affective, life style and antisocial factors)

It is important to stress the point here that the PCL provided the first assessment scale enabling systematic research into the clinical construct of psychopathy. Previous to its development, psychopathy was largely a clinical diagnosis, arrived at by interviewing the individual and using clinical judgment to make the diagnosis. The PCL provides a ranging scale that amalgamated many of the traits and behaviors of psychopathy using conceptual and statistical methods to provide for a more objective and dimensional assessment of psychopathy in criminal population. Amalgamating the features that form the construct of psychopathy had the benefit of not being unduly influenced by any particular salient trait or behavior of the offender (e.g. extensive deception, heinous crimes). In this way, the PCL provided a balanced, reliable and accurate way to assess an individual on psychopathic traits for research and clinical purposes.

Typically, psychopaths compose 20-30% of the prisons population (Hare, 2003). In order to answer the question of how psychopathic offenders deviate in committing crimes as compared with their non-psychopathic counterparts, Hakkanen Nyhol & Hare (2009) studied some offenders charged with Homicides. They found that offenders who scored high on the PCL-R were more likely to leave the crime scene without informing anyone of the killing, to deny the charges to be convicted of involuntary manslaughter rather than manslaughter or murder, and to be granted permission to appeal their lower level court sentence (Hakkanen Nyhol & Hare, 2009). In general, people with high level of psychopathic traits come into contact with the law at a younger age, compared to their non-psychopathic counterparts (Forth & Brok, 2007), and are more violent during the commission of their crime (Porter & Porter, 2007). They are more prone to predatory, instrumental violence (Woodworth & Porter, 2002) and more difficult to treat and rehabilitate (Harris & Rice 2006; Wong & Hare, 2003). Furthermore, Porter & Woodworth (2007) also found that Psychopaths were more likely than other offenders to omit major details of their offences and to minimize the instrumentality of their crimes by exaggerating the extent to which their crimes were reactive. Psychopath were also more likely to shift the blame of the crime to external forces and to focus on "saving their own skin" (Hakkanen Nyhol & Hare, 2009). As to why psychopaths are so dangerous, Hare (1993) stated that: They commit more than twice as many violent and aggressive acts both in and out of prison, as do other criminals. For psychopaths, violence and threats are handy tools to be used when they are angered, defied or frustrated and they give little thought to the pain and humiliation experienced by the victims. Their violence is callous and instrumental and used to satisfy simple needs such as sex or to obtain something he/she wants and the psychopath's reaction to the event are much more likely to be indifference, a sense of power, pleasure or smug satisfaction than regret at the damage done.

It is clear that these psychopaths are dangerous members of the society. They live in families and among innocent members of the community. There are however few studies that have been conducted in other to unravel/expose the personality type of psychopaths. Porter et al ;(2000) studied sexual offenders with a PCL-R score of 30 and above, the research cut off score for a diagnosis of psychopathy, in other to determine the types of crime committed by psychopaths. They found that 6.3% had been convicted for extra familial molesting. 6.3% for mixed molesting. 10.8% for incest.,35.9% for raping and 64% for raping and molestation. These findings when compared to the offences committed by their non-psychopathic counterparts, suggest that psychopathic sexual offenders are more likely to target both children and adults, resulting in a larger potential victim pool. Consequently, this means that psychopath are more likely to have a greater number of victims and pose a larger risk to society as compared to their non-psychopathic counterparts (Rice & Harris,1997). Even when in jail, psychopaths pose more of a risk for violence compared to their non-psychopathic counterparts. A 2000 study by Hare, Clark, Grann, & Thornton found that 42% of those with elevated PCL-R scores, committed assault in prison, compared to only 16.4% of those with lower scores.

Treatment outcome for psychopaths has been a controversial topic with many researchers finding evidence both in support of and against the effectiveness of treatment. Hare & Wong (2005) found that psychopaths responded better to treatment when relapse prevention techniques were integrated into a cognitive behavioral program that focused on taking personal responsibility. These researchers suggest that efforts be made to empathize that psychopaths are alone responsible for their behaviors, and to teach more pro-social ways of using their abilities to satisfy their wants and needs. They found that convention insight and empathy building programs were not effective in reducing recidivism (Hare & Wong, 2005).
It is however pertinent to state here that the purpose of this study is a methodological appraisal of the applications of the psychopathic checklist in forensic setting with a view to adapting and validating it in Nigeria.

The Psychopathic Check Lists is a research scale used for the assessment of psychopaths (Hare, 1980). A central purpose of the PCL was to identify the features (i.e. traits and behaviors) that went in to making the global ratings from the clinical inference and making a more objective measure that could assess the presence of those features. The PCL provides to clinical and non-clinical investigators a more objective measurement for researching and reporting on psychopathy.

The Hare Psychopathic Check Lists (PCL; Hare & Frazelle, 1980) was a preliminary research assessment rating scale designed for use with incarcerated male offenders for the assessment of traits, behavior and clinical construct of psychopathy and criminal populations. The psychopathy construct measured in the PCL was largely influenced by the clinical observations of Hervey Cleckley regarding the psychopathic personality and associated antisocial personality (Cleckley, 1976). The PCL is the precursor to the widely used and well validated assessment scale called the Psychopathic Check Lists Revised (PCL-R; Hare 1991, 2003). It is important to emphasize that the psychopathic checklists has been replaced by the updated and revised PCL-R for research and clinical purposes. However, the PCL is still viewed as a scale that contextualizes the existing PCL-Family measure including the PCL-R, the psychopathic check list: Youth version (PCL: YV; Forth et al, 2003), and the psychopathic check lists screening version (PCL: SV; Hart et al, 1995) and helps trace the construct – related validity of these PCL – family measures to the clinical construct of psychopathy. Although the PCL is no longer used to understanding its development and contributions as the first systematic effort to assess psychopathy in pursuing research underscores its importance and relevance as a historical assessment scale.

The PCL-R is actually a list of 20 symptoms that requires expert's clinical judgment to score. Each item is scored on a 3 –point scale ranging from 0 to 2. A score of 0 indicates the absence of a symptom. 1 indicates the possible presence of an item and a 2 is scored if the symptom is definitely exhibited by the examinee. The PCL-R is normally scored through both a review of collateral information and a semi structured interview. Although the PCL-R can be scored based on a review of collateral information for research purposes, a clinical interview is recommended especially for clinical and legal purposes. Because the PCL-R is scored from 0 to 2 on the 20 items, scores range from 0 to 40 on the measure. A score of 30 and above is considered a conservative cut off for psychopathy; though some studies have that, score as low as 25 are appropriate (Guy, & Douglas, 2006). The PCL-R and psychopathy in general has been used as a continuous variable so that the higher the score someone receives, the more psychopathy they exhibit. This distinction has characterized a debate in Forensic psychology as to whether psychopathy is best understood on a categorical construct or whether it should be thought of as a continuous scores (Eden, Marcus, Lilienfield & Poythreas, 2006). Most of the items on the PCL-R are grouped into two categories or factors that were statistically identified as related to psychopathy but separate from one another. These two factors serve as important distinction for our current understanding of psychopathy. Factor 1 consists of 8 items such as glibness and superficial charm, a grandiose sense of self-worth, pathological lying as well as others. Factor 1 is often labeled as the interpersonal/affective factor because it is composed of items that largely relate to interpersonal behavior and emotional expression.

Factor 2, is often labeled as the socially deviant/antisocial lifestyle factor and consists of behaviorally based items such as parasitic lifestyle, impulsivity and juvenile delinquency. Three items do not load statistically on either factor, though they are still used to derive a total score on the PCL-R.

Recent research also has suggested a three-factor model by Cooke & Michie (2003) and a 4 factor-facet model by Hare (2003). However, this appraisal will focus on the two-factor model for the sake of simplicity and because most of the research has been conducted using the two factor approaches.

In terms of categorical distinctions, scores of 30 or higher are typically considered indicative of someone who is a psychopath (Hare, 1991, 2003). The PCL-R also yields scores on two factor-analytically derived dimensions representing the interpersonal or affective feature (factor 1) of psychopathology, such as superficial charm and callousness and the behavioral features (factor 2) of psychopathy such as irresponsibility and poor behavioral control (Farrington, 1991; Hare; 1991, 2003). The second edition of the PCL-R professional manual (Hare, 2003) divides factor 1 and factor 2 into four sub factors: factor 1a, interpersonal; factor 1b, affective, factor 2a, impulsive lifestyle and factor 2b, antisocial behavior.

We note however, that the relevance of the antisocial behavior sub factor to the core construct of psychopathy has been questioned (Coke, Michie, Hart & Clark, 2005).

3. The Use of Hare PCL-R across the Globe

In Canada the PCL-R was used to check the prevalence of psychopathy in jails and pretrial or remand centers would be expected to be lower than in federal prisons in Canada, where only inmates with sentences equal to or longer than two years are detained. In the 1991 PCL-R manual, Hare reported that 25% of male prisoners had scores on the PCLR greater than 30—the conventional cut-off score for 'high psychopathy.' That work was based on a sample of 1200 Canadian federal prison inmates. The second edition manual, published in 2003, is based upon diverse samples of more than 5000 male prisoners. In that sample, 15.7% of male prisoners had PCL-R scores greater than 30.

The PCL (Hare, 1980) was first developed for use with correctional samples. Until the mid-1990s, few researchers had applied the PCL instruments to women offenders and inmates. This has been rectified, of late, as a number of excellent studies of psychopathy among women in conflict with the law have been published. In an early study, Salekin, Rogers, and Sewell (1997) evaluated the relationship between psychopathy (measured by the PCL-R) and violence in a sample of 103 female inmates in a county jail in Texas. The rates and severity of symptoms were noted to be lower than is typically found with males. Results indicated that 15.5% of the inmates met the cut-off of 30 out of 40, compared with the typical 25–30% reported for male federal prisoners in Canada (see Hare, 1991).

Salekin et al. (1997) reported that the Factor scores and Total scores on the PCLR were not significantly correlated with correctional staff ratings of violence, verbal aggression, non-compliance, manipulative ness or lack of remorse. They found that the factor structure of the PCL-R remained consistent (i.e. Factor 1 being personality based and Factor 2 being behavior based); however, the item loadings differed from what has been found with male samples (cf. Hemphill et al., 1998).

In a follow-up of 78 of the women from the above study, Salekin et al. (1998) reported that psychopathy was a poor to moderate predictor of recidivism in the mean 14-month follow-up (AUC¼0.64). In the short term, women with scores_30 were 10 times more likely than women with scores less than 30 to recidivate (i.e. after 50 days 20% of psychopaths versus 3% of no psychopaths recidivated). The PCL-R had a significant relationship (r¼0.49) with aggressive behavior, leading the authors to conclude that psychopathy was associated with aggression in their sample of female offenders.

In a sample of 132 women in a maximum-security prison in the US, Warren et al. (2005) investigated the psychometric properties of the PCL-R and HCR-20(Webster, Douglas, Eaves, & Hart, 1997), the concordance between the two instruments, and their predictive validity. The authors commented that their results are ''striking in their ability to simultaneously confirm and contradict prior research'' (p. 19). Briefly, consistent with other publications, the two instrument shad good variance, the Intra class Correlation Coefficients were excellent (HCR-20 total¼0.94; PCL-R total¼0.95), a high degree of concordance between the two measures was found, and the results suggested that women scoring high on the PCL-R were involved in chronic non-violent criminal offending. Conversely, with the exception of robbery, high psychopathy scores (or HCR-20 scores) were not associated with institutional violence or prior violent crimes and, in fact, were significantly inversely related to murder charges. The authors concluded, that their findings may suggest broad gender differences in terms of women's violence reflecting reactive aggression and men's violence reflecting instrumental aggression. The results of Warren et al. (2005) are noteworthy and sure to incite considerable discussion; however, we question how much their findings truly contradict what we know about psychopathy or the predictive accuracy of the PCL-R in men. First, re-offense rates of murderers tend to be relatively low and the study was limited in that it was a retrospective examination of prior criminal acts. Second, while the examination of institutional violence was prospective, the findings are actually consistent with recent research with males indicating the PCL-R is not a particularly powerful predictor of institutional aggression among men (e.g. Buffington-Vollum, Edens, Johnson, & Johnson, 2002; Edens, Poythress, & Lilienfeld, 1999; Walters, Duncan, & Geyer, 2003). The findings with women are also mixed; some researchers have reported a relationship between PCL scores and institutional misconduct (Loucks & Zamble, 2000; Richards et al., 2003) while others have found little (Salekin et al., 1997) or mixed (Nicholls et al., 2003) evidence, depending on the outcome variable of interest. Finally, it is unclear to what extent the nature of female offending, gender biases, and other factors impact on our ability to detect aggression and crime committed by women. We know, for instance, that women are more likely than men to target family members and commit aggression in the home (Robbins, Monahan, & Silver, 2003); the aggressive acts of psychopathic women might be difficult to ascertain from official criminal records, even more so than for men.

The PCL-R is the most empirically validated instrument for measuring psychopathy in correctional and forensic psychiatric population. The PCL-R is a predictive utility with criminal justice population and has a led to its frequent use by clinicians conducting forensic assessment in criminal and sexually violent predator (SVP) cases (Hare, 1991, 2003). Despite its apparent wide acceptance in U.S courts, little is known about how often the PCL-R is being introduced, the types of cases in which it is being used and whether claims made in court regarding psychopathy are empirically defensible and/or relevant to the question at hand.

A considerable body of research suggest that, psychopathy, as a measured by the PCL-R, is modestly to moderately associate with outcome variables (e.g criminal recidivism) that are of significant interest to clinicians, legal decision makers and institutional administrators (Gendrau, Goggin, & Smith, 2002; Guy,Edens, Anthony, & Douglas, 2005; Hemphill, Hare, & Wong, 1998). Although the exact prevalence of its use is unclear, surveys of the field and other sources of information (Cunningham, & Reidy, 2002; Lally, 2003; Ogloft & Lyon, 1998; Hart, 2001 as cited in Otto & Heilbrun, 2002; Petrila * Otto, 2001).

In 2006, Walsh & Walsh examined the application of Hare's psychopathy checklists in U.S courts using the west law data base, they received cases from 1991-2004 where PCL-R testimony was introduced as evidence on the psychological assessment of the offender. They found that the PCL-R assessment of psychopathy was being used in state and Federal courts and increased considerably in recent years, with 90% of the cases being decided after the year 1999, the most being decided in 2004. Over all, they found the PCL-R was being introduced in nine (9) different contexts namely- " commitment pursuant to sexual predator laws, parole hearings, death penalty, sentencing, civil commitment, transfer from juvenile to adult court, termination of parental rights, sentence enhancement and sentence mitigation, competency to stand trial and guilt determination" (Walsh & Walsh, 2006). The most common use was in commitment pursuant to sexual predator statue hearing, a case close equivalent to a dangerous offender (DO) hearing, for a sexual offender in Canada. In adult court setting, formal assessment of psychopathy are increasingly being used to justify longer sentence, more stringent release conditions, death sentence and civil commitment under SVP statues (DeMatteo & Edens, 2006; Edens et al, 2005; Walsh & Walsh, 2006). Consequently, DeMatteo & Edens found that the PCL-R was most often introduced by the prosecution (64%) in U.S. courts to boister legal arguments that a defendant was a danger to others and should be jailed.

It is important to note that the PCL-R will be introduced more frequently in courts dealing with more serious charges including murder, attempted murder, assault, sexual assault, robbery, rape, kidnapping as well as cases involving a long-term offender and dangerous offender. It is important to note that expert descriptive testimony that includes the scores, information on what the scores mean according to risk as well as a professional opinion about the offender would affect trial outcomes.

Specifically input that was especially detailed and of larger quantity would have a negative effect on sentence outcome. A higher PCL-R score would negatively affect the offender's sentence length.

The court in Canada considered the concepts of psychotherapy and the identification of psychopaths to be relevant in court related decision making. As PCL-R was found in 35 different types of court cases, this finding also suggest that the PCL-R is of relevance in cases other than sentencing including Parole hearing decision, demotion suits and child custody hearing. The PCL-R in courts will help the prosecution counsel to unravel/expose that a defendant is a danger to others and thereby requiring incarceration. PCL-R will also expose the psychopathic trait of an offender dependent and thereby suggest treatment recommendations.

The use of PCL-R in expert witnessing report assist Judges to take decision during sentencing. The PCL-R can be used to evaluate offender and to gather quality information during interviewing offender. PCL-R will equip the prosecutor with relevant and in depth information that will qualify him to present in depth testimony to the Judge.

Those who administer PCL-R are qualified Expert Witness to testify in courts. A forensic psychologists is is often called to testify in the sentencing phase of trials, after the accused has been determined guilty in order to determine the individuals risk for future violence. It is important to note here that a Forensic psychologists called to testify in these instances with typically offer testimony as to the defendant's risk for future violence to assists the court in determining whether life in prison or the death penalty is the most appropriate sentence. If an individual is at significant risk for violence or even murder while serving life in prison, the court may determine that the death penalty is the most appropriate sentence to protect other inmates and correctional staff. Experts have testified in these instances that the defendant poses substantial risk if sentenced to life in prison because he scores above the cut off score of 30 on the PCL-R (Edens, 2001). It is imperative to also acknowledge that the PCL-R is used for diagnosing psychopathy in individual for clinical, legal or research purposes. Developed in 1990s, the test was originally designed to identify the degree of a person's psychopathic tendencies because psychopaths however are often repeat offenders who commit sexual assaults or other violent crimes again and again. The PCL-R is also used in the court rooms and in institutions as an indicator of the potential risk posed by subjects or prisoners. The PCL-R can also be used in Forensic settings as a factor in deciding the length and type of prison sentences and the treatment subjects should or should not receive.

The PCL-R has been widely adopted in the assessment of psychopathy in prisons and forensic psychiatric populations. Psychopaths are measured by the PCL-R and is characterized by 20 criteria relating to affective /interpersonal traits (e.g glibness/superficial, pathological lying, lack of remorse, shallow affect; factor 1) and a chronically impulsive and unstable lifestyle (e.g need for stimulation, lack of realistic goals, promiscuity; factor 2). The psychometric and predictive qualities of the instrument are excellent (Fulero, 1995; Stone, 1995). The PCL-R can be used to provide a "Snap Shot" of crime and conditional release in high and lower scorers' on the PCL-R across the criminal career. The PCL-R can be used to achieve and execute one of the consequences of the philosophy of rehabilitation in correctional settings which is the opportunity for most offenders to be granted early release from prison. The PCL-R is used to examine inmates to ascertain if the scores is still high or low. For example in Canada, most Canadian offenders will be released automatically after two thirds of their prison terms unless they represent a very high risk reoffending. It appears that offenders with psychopathic traits are not accommodated well by a " correctional " or rehabilitative approach to criminal justice as evidenced by their high recidivism rate (Hemphill et al, 1998; Rice, Harris, & Cormier, 1992) and poor response to existing treatment approaches (Ogloff, Wong, & Given wood, 1990).

Accordingly, research indicates that when PCL-R scoring scores of offenders are released conditionally on the community, they work worse than their low scoring counterparts. Hart, Kripp, & Hare (1988) found that the one-year failure rates of high medium and low score on the with different offender groups (Serin, 1991; Peters & Barbaree, 1990). However, few studies have examined whether performance following conditional release changes across the criminal career. PCL-R can be used to determine which group of inmates' gender commit more of the psychopathic crimes and what age range do they fall? PCL-R in a study conducted by Wilson & Herrnstein (1985), indicated more male in their late adolescence and early adulthood. Consequently when Hare, McPherson and Forth (1988) compared the ages of 16 & 45, they found that offenders in the psychopathic range committed more crimes than their low scoring counterparts between ages 16 & 40 after which the conviction rate of high scores decreased substantially relative to low scorers (whose offending was less frequent but more constant). The decrease in crime by offenders in the psychopathic range was largely accounted for by non-violent offences suggesting that their capacity for violence was relatively static characteristics (Harris, Rice, & Cormier, 1991). High scorers on the PCL-R were far more profile than their low scoring counterparts, evidenced by non-violent and violent crimes. Findings suggest that both type of crimes committed, and performance while on release changed across the criminal career as a function of psychopathy. In fact, clearly speaking both high and low PCL-R scoring offenders engage in considerably more criminal activity in early adulthood regardless of the type of crime considered.

The PCL-R is widely used in assessment of violence, risk, and sexual recidivism risk, tendencies to reoffend again. It is of significance to note that all PCL-R assessment had been conducted during the offender's current incarceration, most often as part of the intake assessment or assessment for parole purposes.

Law enforcement officers use the PCL-R and its derivatives in the understanding and prediction of crime and violence. The PCL-R provides a common Metric for the assessment of psychopathy during selection process. The law enforcement agencies use the PCL-R during interrogation to expose individual with risks and violent tendencies and who may potent risk of recidivism. The Police use the PCL-R to measure deviant, irresponsible and impulsive behavior among new entrant into the force during selection.

4. Conclusion

The PCL provided the first assessment scale enabling systematic research into the clinical construct of psychopathy. Previous to its development, psychopathy was largely a clinical diagnosis arrived at by interviewing the individual and using clinical judgment to make the diagnosis. The PCL-R therefore provides a ranging scale that amalgamated many of the traits and behaviors of psychopathy using conceptual and statistical methods to provide a more objective and dimensional assessment of psychopathy in criminal populations.

Amalgamating the features that form the construct of psychopathy had the benefit of not being unduly influenced by any particular salient trait or behavior of the offender (e.g., extensive deception, heinous crimes). In this way the PCL-R provided a balanced, reliable and accurate way to assess an individual on psychopathic traits for research and clinical purposes. In the light of the above, it becomes imperative to adapt the Hare Psychopathic checklist in Nigerian culture. This implies validating and standardizing the Hare PCL-R on Nigerian criminal and noncriminal population thereby developing local norms and Psychometric properties for the instrument.

5. Recommendation

- The Hare psychopathy checklist (PCL-R) should be validated in Nigeria as a research instrument for research purposes for use in Nigeria. This will authenticate the instrument with a cultural flair for Nigerian Psychologists to use for assessment of psychopathy.
- The Hare PCL-R should be adapted to Nigerian culture for clinical and forensic assessment of client/patients in Nigeria.
- The Hare PCL-R should be used as a common metric for the assessment of psychopathy and measurement of deviant, irresponsible, and impulsive behavior among new entrant into the Nigerian police force during selection process.
- The Hare PCL-R should be standardized in Nigeria and be used as a psycho diagnostic tool for assessment of psychopathy among criminal population in a forensic setting.
- The Hare PCL-R should be used by the Nigerian courts as a viable tool for the determination of sentence mitigation, expert testimony and witnessing.

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Assessing The Effects of Television Programs on Students at Essence High School, Kaduna

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Abstract: Television viewing is still prominent among young people living with their parents. Exposure to some of its programs/contents have however been linked to incidents of social vices such as open violence, illicit sex, drug abuse and other related acts. This study sets out to explore the influence of television viewing on student behavior and academic performance among secondary school students in Kaduna metropolis. The objectives of this study are to determine the level of secondary school students' exposure to television programs, identify the type of programs/contents that secondary school students view on television and examine the perceptions of secondary school students on the effects of television viewing on their habits and behavior. The theoretical frameworks adopted for this study is Cultivation theory of mass media as advocated by George Gerbner (1976), which proposes that heavy viewers of television are thought to be imbibing attitudes that leads to the belief that the world created by television is an accurate depiction of the real world. A qualitative study, it employed a focus group discussion method to elicit relevant information, including key informant interview. The students of Essence Secondary School, at 10 Kashim Ibrahim Road in Kaduna metropolis, were the targets of the study, but collaborative data were also elicited from parents and teachers. Results show that television viewing does take away from credible academic performance, as well as influence behaviors and actions of the students.

1. Introduction

Television is one of the most popular entertainment media present in most homes and accessible to children of all ages. Because of age and inexperience, children are generally thought to be vulnerable to all sorts of messages displayed on television sets daily. This study is aimed at assessing the effects of television programs on the behaviors and habits of students enrolled in Essence International (Secondary) School, Kaduna.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

As one of the most popular public media, television is prominent in young people's daily lives. Television still adorn our living rooms in most homes, and become the first item of entertainment outside the children's' door. While educational programs that begin by teaching children alphabets, colors and shapes early in life, tend to draw the attention of busy parents, research has shown that some television programs/contents are inappropriate especially for young minds. Unfortunately, television is a convenient pastime and viewers of all ages have access to all its programs/contents without restriction or inhibition.

Studies by Samrat (2008); Robertson, et al, (2013) concluded that television viewing is harmful to the cognitive development of young minds. Furthermore, their studies revealed that there is a link between television viewing and incidents of social vices such as open violence, illicit sex, drug abuse and other related immoral acts.

The focus of this research is the anti-social behaviors observed amongst children that are directly linked to contents portrayed in certain television programs. It is geared towards assessing the link between television viewing and its effects on the behavior of young people at the Secondary School level in Kaduna, using Cross High School as case study.

2. Background to the Study

2.1 Television as a Medium of Communication

In describing communication, Rodman (2006) posits that: communication refers to the process whereby human beings share messages. The message may be entertainment, information, or persuasion. It may also be verbal or visual, intentional or unintentional. In fact, it may unintentionally evoke a different meaning between the person sending it, from the one who receives it. Ugboajah (2001) cited in Obe, (2008:2) sees communication as: The process which involves all acts of transmitting messages through channels which link people via language and symbolic codes used to transmit such message.

Television is a compact structure that creates intimacy by bringing the world into our homes, sharing varying values and attitudes. Television is one of the most commonly recognized forms of media found in many Nigerian homes. Rodman (2006), states that Television remains the most time consuming activity, just as it continues to remain a major source of news and information. It is the medium through which politics is conducted via sight and sound, and it is humanity's main form of entertainment. It also continues to be one of the world's most powerful sales tool.

Daramola (2005) further asserts that: Television is a sight and sound medium of communication which transmits sound and pictures from given broadcasting studio to millions of homes everyday by means of electromagnetic waves, and is bound to shape people's beliefs on how to relate with their environment. In terms of technological advancement and development Fiske (1992), concludes that; with the changing times, you can now receive your television signals even in your car which makes it much easier with modern technology. Television signals could be received in any part of the globe.

3. Related literature

3.1 Children and Television Viewing Habit

According to Van (1990) television viewing refers to the art of paying time ahead of a television screen while participating actively or passively in what's being displayed. He disclosed that television viewing habit can also ask the quantity of your time a private spent viewing television programs, nature of such programs, the age of the viewer. Gunter and McAleer (1997) view television habit because the average viewing time of people. He continued, television viewing pattern may impact positively or negatively on individuals‟ cognitive development. Viewing television programs for 1-2 hours daily on the typical may enhance an individual's cognitive skill development, while a habit of three hours or more of television viewing of general audience programs may reduce the time individuals would spend engaging verbally and socially with relations and significant others which are perquisite for effective cognitive skill development due to its alluring colors and sound, television is especially attractive in infancy , becoming the child's first and most enduring contact with the mass media and an integral part of the general environment during which infancy development occurs, Victoria, (2009).

Gunter and McAleer (1997) opine that viewing habits range from the kid who watches no television in the least to the kid who stays in front of the TV all the time. The longer a toddler spends watching television at any time, the harder he or she is to distract. Television is found in many homes and it requires a minimal skill to work, such children find it easy to control. consistent with Swanson, (2012); The "average child," between the ages of six and eighteen, will have spent 4,000 hours taking note of radio and CDs, watched 16,000 hours of television, and watched several thousand more hours of flicks. This assertion is further supported during a survey by Certain & Kahn (2002) showing the share of your time young children watch television is said to relate to many variables.

3.2 Media as Agents of Socialization

A prominent scholar of communication, (McQuail, 2005) also assert that media are the foremost powerful agents of socialization on the earth today and widely believed to play a neighborhood within the early socialization of youngsters and future socialization of adults, because socialization is such a long-term process. The thesis of media socialization has two sides: on the one hand, the media can reinforce and support other agencies of socialization; on the opposite, they're also viewed as a possible threat to the values set by parents, educators and other agents of group action the most logic underlying the thesis is that the media can teach norms and values by way of symbolic reward and punishment for various sorts of behavior.

3.3 Effects of Television Viewing on Children's Behavior

Children, are very impressionable at their young age, as such watching television have both positive and negative impact. Samrat (2008) and Robertson et, al. (2013) believe that television affects the way that children think and act in some way. Growing up, children have become more influenced by television than by their parents. When children watch television, they are physically passive yet mentally very active, absorbing information, ideas, and values. Television has the potential to generate both positive and negative effects, but many researches seem to have paid more attention to the negative effects than the positive ones. Some of the positive effects of television will be presented below.

3.4 Positive Effect of Television Viewing on Children Behavior

Wetzel, et al. (1994) conducted a study which concluded that a combination of sound and still pictures aid the learning process a great deal. That is to say, the mixture of sound and either still or moving images is simpler than simply making still images move. Kozma (1991) also found that television's combination of multiple symbol systems, that is its combining of speech, text, still images, and moving images yields greater learning gains than media. However, television's multiple modes can portray content through a spread of approaches, e.g., linguistic, aesthetic, logical, or narration, thus more effectively matching viewers‟ various intelligence preferences. Children's viewing of educational television programs are shown to support significant and lasting learning gains, while an excessive amount of viewing of other sorts of programming could also be this suggests that there's a positive relationship between children's viewing of educational television programs and their cognitive performance.

3.5 Negative Effect of Television on Children

3.5.1 Neurological Effect

This refers to the effect television has on systema nervosum especially regarding structure, functions, and abnormalities. Research indicates that most brain parts, including those liable for logical thought, are passive during television viewing and produces brainwaves within the low alpha range. Some scientists believe that release of high amounts of dopamine reduces the quantity of the neurotransmitter available for control of movement, perception of pain and pleasure and formation of feelings especially when an individual spend much time watching television.

According to Swanson (2012) while alpha waves achieved through meditation are beneficial, too much time spent in low alpha wave state caused by television can cause unfocused day dreaming and inability to concentrate as most part of the brain, including parts responsible for logical thought, tune out during television viewing. Swanson (2012) discussed in his findings that, a child viewing rapid-fire television, is more likely to develop attention challenges later in life. He further claims that television viewing is directly or indirectly associated with neuro-cognitive development of the children.

3.5.2 Mean World Syndrome

"Mean world syndrome" is a term coined by George Gerbner (2002) to describe a situation where the kind of violence a person is exposed to induces him to believe that the world "is more dangerous than it actually is." Other scholars, Nabi and Sullivan (2001) took the issue further by claiming that the amount of violence on television may influence the prevalence of violence in the general society, and that the number of opinions, and attitudes that viewers may form while watching television may have a direct influence on their real perception of the world around them.

3.5.3 Aggression

Many television programs today display aggressive behavior in its storyline, beyond simple frowning or hitting, but to such extent of displaying raping and murder. According to Bushman and Huesmann (2001), one of the reasons for that circle and its powerful effect may not be unconnected with the fact that aggression and television violence 'feed off each other.' According to other scholars, violence is abundant in many television programs, (Bushman & Huesmann, 2001). In a later study, (Huesmann et al., 2003) conclude that by allowing children to view violence, what we are impressing on their minds is the assumption that it is normal and acceptable to act likewise.

4. Theoretical Framework

4.1 Cultivation Theory of Mass Media

Cultivation theory was founded by George Gerbner in 1976, which claims intentional persuasion by the media, comparing television's socializing force to that of religion, claiming that it set norms, and homogenizes communities, much like religion in early human history. Also, that because television portrays much violence, people may develop Mean World syndrome, or the idea that the World is more violent than it really is. Gerbner categorized such effects into two; first order and second order. For the first order effects, it refer to general beliefs about the world, while the second order effects involve specific attitudes toward certain aspects of the society, like the police. Shanahan, (1998) on his part posits that; "Cultivation is a method for gauging the impact of television on the beliefs, and behaviors of a people.

The theory suggests that what the media does is to take currently existing attitudes which are already present and re-present them in a different way or mode. Griffin (2012: 366) states that: Most people who abhor violence on the television set feel or believe it encourages aggressive behavior." The three kinds of effects are generally identified as:
Cognitive, Affective, and Behavior centered.

5. Essence International School, Kaduna.

Essence International School, Kaduna was established almost forty years ago, in 1982. At its founding, it was one of the most popular and performance centered school that attracts children of the upper middle class at the lower end, and higher classes at the upper, living in Kaduna and nearby cities. It comprises of lower classes at pre-school level, to 12^{th} grade (full secondary level).

5.1 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Focus Group Discussions are held between a researcher seeking specific data, and the group that is believed to have the knowledge sought by the researcher. It usually involves a small group (usually three to eight people) who share specific identifiers, in this case students, Fawole, et al, (2006).

The study employed the FGD method by forming two groups of eight (8), students that were randomly selected from each class (JSS1-SS3) making up a total sixteen (16) persons. The essence discussants are to find out the effects of television viewing on the habits of secondary school students which gave room for first-hand experience and information gathering.

5.2 Key Informant Interview (KII)

This method of collecting data requires the interviewer to ask questions in a face-to-face encounter. It is a direct investigation for data sought from the sources concerned. Somekh and Lewin (2005) suggest that it is a structured observation method suited for qualitative data gathering.
The researcher used this instrument to interview five (5) teachers and 7 (7) parents whose children/wards are students of Essence to get in-depth information on the effects of television viewing on the behavior and habits of their secondary school students.

5.3 Research Questions

The research questions formulated for both focus group discussion and interviews are:

1. How much of television do secondary school students watch per day?
2. What are the effects of television viewing on secondary school students?
3. How devoted are secondary school students in watching television programs?
4. Are there specific television programs viewing times for secondary students?
5. What are the favorite television programs viewed by secondary school students?
6. Should secondary school students be restricted from some television programs?
7. Do secondary school students exhibit what they see from television?
8. For how long do secondary school students watch television programmes?

Q1. **How much of television do secondary school students watch per day?**
Majority of the students have access to the television set at home which implies that the television set is a common asset found in their homes. As a teacher, I can say that television is a common appliance found in many homes and as such many children including those at the secondary school level have access to the television set" This confirms that secondary school students have access to television and they are exposed to several programmes.
*(*Ms Mary Ikoloba, teacher.)

Most times when my children come back from school, they drop their bags, pick their food and face the television while having lunch, and even while doing their homework. They also find it difficult to wash their uniforms or do any house chores. Often, I have to force them to switch off the television before going to bed, there is hardly a personality shown in the television that they are not familiar with.
(Mrs. Fatima Zara, parent of SS1 student)

The level of exposure is high because my siblings and I, including the students watch movies and programmes every day.
(Helen Akut SS1)

There is no day we don't have a programme to catch up with from Monday to Friday, especially on joy TV.

(Sabi Mijinyawa SS3)

Q 2. What are the effects of television viewing on secondary school students?

Aside from relaxation, especially during their leisure time at home, my children watch television because they want to be updated with the new frontiers, they want to know what is happening in the world in order for them to be entertained and educated.

Hence, it is obvious that secondary school students access to the television set is determined by several purposes which includes; relaxation, enlightenment and entertainment purpose. Although, there are a lot of things that I don't particularly like from the programmes they view, due to the fact that some can corrupt and distort their attitude and influence them negatively. There are good programmes and there some that are bad for them.
(Mrs Bola Babatunde, parent of SS3 student.)

There are good attributes I have observed from some students as a result of certain television programmes which has enlighten them about life, and even challenge them educationally. Some of my students can do well in science and technology which were information they got from television programmes. I also know many of my students who misbehave as a result of imitating the lifestyle of their favorite characters on television, although they do not engage in such act within the school premises. We do not have the right to punish them because they do it outside the school environment and as such we expect their parents to discipline them and observe (monitor) the type of programs they watch on television.
Thus, students who view television programs that display characters that are fond of drugs, among others, tend to be influenced by such actions and may as well imbibe them in their daily lives which can affect their physical and psychological wellbeing.
(Mr. Isa Danlami, teacher SS3)

Viewing has help me a lot cause when I hear some new words I look for their meaning in the dictionary including how to use those words in sentences. I also learn about new technology, fashion, and lifestyle of some countries.
(Gimbiya Yusuf, student SS2)

I don't think it has any effect on me, only that I have to wait for my older siblings to finish watching television so we can go to bed together, because I can't go to the bedroom and sleep alone at night.
(Iliya Shuwa, student JSS1)

Q 3. How devoted are secondary school students in watching television programs?

As soon as they hear the tune of their favorite television program plays, their concentration and attention shifts away from their books and study towards watching the television program. Television viewing affects my children's academic performance especially when they view television rather than studying for their exams. Sometimes they also suffer from sleeplessness, which affects their school performance as they are found to develop headaches, and also sleep during lesson hours because of the hours they spend viewing television. I had the course to believe that one of my children was not performing up to my expectation in her academics because she spends more time viewing television than studying. I had to correct such habit by engaging my children in extra classes in order to limit the attention they give to viewing television.
(Mr. Peter Adun. Parent of SS1 student)

I have observed that they devote much of their study hours to watching television programs. Several parents have complained to the school management on the poor academic performance of their children and have resulted to restricting the number of hours their children watch television. I have listened to some of their discussions with their classmates at leisure hours, which are centered on various television programs and movies; which tells you how devoted they are to viewing certain programs on television.
(Zipporah Sule. Teacher SS 3)

When I am watching Ashook, I don't want anyone to be calling me or talking, so that I can pay complete attention and enjoy the program.
(Chukwuma Ifeanyi, student JSS2)

I pay attention and listen so that I can hear what they are saying and I don't like missing any part of the programme.
(Anita John, student JSS3)

Q 4. Are there specific time for secondary students to view television programs?

Yes, as it is now, I only allow my children to view programs during the weekends after they are done with their assignments and other house work. They are prohibited from viewing television when they have other works to do.
(Mrs. Sarah Samuel. Parent of SS1 student)

My parents only allow us to watch television in the evening after we wake up from siesta.
(Sanga Paul, student SS1)

In my house we watch television only on Saturdays and Sundays
(Chioma Ezeoke, student JSS2)

Q 5. What are the favorite television programs viewed by secondary school students?
From a close observation of the way my students behave and Interact with their peers, is easy to conclude that their favorite television program are movies, especially foreign movies such as Indian movies, Philippines movies, and musical videos. I always hear them talk about a new musical song released by an artist and the kind of clothes and material things used in the video
(Dan Sambo teacher SS1)

My favorites programs are Kindred Heart and Mehek from Bollywood, as well as Philippine movies.
(Joe Simon, student SS2)

I prefer action movies. I don't like slow movies. I love American movies.
(Eunice Samson, student SS1)

Q 6. Should secondary school students be restricted from some television programmes?
There is a limit to everything. Of course they have to be restricted so that they don't form bad habits. We should not allow our children to be trained by the television, it our duty as parents to ensure that our children should are brought up with good values. As a parent, I urge parents to monitor what their children view on television and sanction wrong behaviors. Secondary school students are teenagers and would copy whatever crosses their way, so we need to safeguard their future by restricting access to contents they view.
(Mrs. Shola Owoye Parent SS1 student)

We should be restricted so as to regulate how we watch programs and when we watch them.
(Patricia Nnamani, student SS3)

Sometime it is good but not all the time. Parent should allow us to be free sometimes.
(Evelyn Sheyin, student JSS3)

Q 7. Do secondary school students exhibit what they see from television?
I have seen my children practicing martial acts such as karate with their peers. This is as a result of the influence of watching their favorite characters displaying such moves and techniques on television. The type of programs they watch affects their behavior. For instance, after watching a particular program my children practice what they watch as they are always ready to engage themselves in a fight. Another issue is that of dressing which they copy from television, you see boys spoiling there trousers reducing it to pencil and they call it fashion, girls wearing clothes that expose parts of their body. This behavior prompted me to restrict the type of television programs they watch.
(Mrs. Grace Ituk. Parent of SS2 student)

Several cases of injuries as a result of incessant rough play among our students have been reported to the school management. It became a serious concern because many of the students involved in such playful acts do not even differentiate between the type of play and what they play with. This attitude influences their relationship with their peers. At times, we have to go about strip-searching our students to recover harmful instruments they used to threaten and even engage in a fight with their peers. Hence, such violent behaviors could bring about social vices.
(Mrs. Joel Shagaya. teacher SS3)

As for me I learn so many things like dressing and the way popular artists talk.
(Mary Chioma, student SS3)

Sometimes when I am walking on the street, I will subconsciously start kicking and fighting karate moves. One day, my friend and I were practicing karate from the movie we watched and he accidentally fell and sustained hand fracture.
(Bala Sani, student SS1)

Q 8. How long do secondary school students watch television programmes?
Most programs last for two hours but if you allow them, they will spend the whole day in front of the television from one program to the other. So I only grant them permission to watch just a single program which is being aired in the evening, from 6pm to 8pm, during weekends.
(Mrs. Maryam Sale. Parent of SS2 student)

In my home we can only watch one program which last for at most 2hours
(Jummai Isyaku, student SS3)

If my parents are not home, I can watch programs for 6 hours.
(Gloria Abraham, student SS1)

The findings of this study therefore reveal that:

(i) Television viewing is prevalent among secondary school students of Essence, and probably applicable to other students in Kaduna metropolis. Students watch television daily for relaxation, enlightenment and entertainment purpose

(ii) The students prefer watching foreign channels, films/movies more frequently than local ones. Thus, they are exposed to certain foreign television contents that are alien to local values and traditions.

(iii) Some are exposed to viewing unsupervised and unrestricted television programs that portray contents that are unsuitable for young minds, and have negative influence on habit formation of secondary school students. Such viewing pattern of television has been linked to incidents of anti-social behaviors such as, open violence, conflict and poor academic performance.

(iv) Indiscipline displayed amongst students included, language misuse, rudeness to teachers, absenteeism from schools. This implies that secondary school students who watch movie stars on the television screen are likely to experiment with such habits among themselves.

(v) Students in early years of secondary school may not have the ability to make a distinction between reality and fantasy.

6. Conclusion

From study, it is concluded that secondary school students are familiar with television set, and use them much. The teachers, parents and students appear to be in agreement to that statement, as described in the focus group interview. Some parents seem to be less concerned about students' exposure to the television programs. The available data analyzed from the study indicated that different television programs are viewed by the students "based on their preferences, which ranked films/movies as their most viewed programs and frequent viewership of foreign television channels. Some of the program contents seemed to influence the habit formation of the students negatively, as expressed by both parents and teachers, such vices as violence, aggression and poor academic performance. Hence, the implications of this study establish that there is a correlation between television viewing and negative habit formation among secondary school students of essence in Kaduna. As such the findings of this study support the views of scholars who argue that television exposure appear harmful to the cognitive development of young people.

Recommendations

The following recommendations have been formulated:

- Parents and guardians should endeavor to control or minimize access to television sets and reduce the frequency of television viewing by their children. This will enable them concentrate more in their education.
- Parents and adults should be active in monitoring and scrutinizing the type of channels and programs viewed by children, especially foreign television channels and programs.
- National film and Video Censors Board (NFVCB) should ensure strict rules and regulations on the films and television programs that contain violence, illicit acts, and drug abuse. Hence, bans and penalties should be strictly levied on any television station(s) and channel(s) that deviates from the set down rules and regulation
- Close attention should be given to determine the influence of television on habits formation of students in public and private secondary schools.
- Parents and teachers need to bring to bring to light the influence of television programs on subcategories such as urban secondary schools and rural secondary schools.

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Epistemic Significance of Emotivism

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Abstract. This paper examines the epistemic significance of emotivism, emotivism is an important breakthrough in the exposition of ethics and its subject matter. Emotivism embraces a number of different views. The best known expression of the theory could be found in the writings of the American philosopher C.L.Stevenson, and it is with his version of emotivism and his ideas on the nature of moral judgements that we shall base our argument. The paper deploys the critical tool of academic philosophy to the epistemic significance of emotivism. While acknowledging the fact that emotivism has paved a new way for looking at ethical issues, the paper defends the thesis that by emphasizing the roles of reasons, Stevenson offers an account which, despite making attitudes the primary element of ethical language, it is compatible with the existence of ethical reasoning. Our moral opinions and the evidence we have for them, are analogous to the opinions and evidence we have concerning non moral matters, it is possible to know or be justified in believing moral propositions in the very same sense as factual propositions, and we have good reason to believe that some of our moral opinions are true.

Keywords: C.L. Stevenson**,** Emotivism, Ethics, Moral judgment, Moral knowledge.

1. Introduction

Emotivism can be defined as an "ethical theory which holds that moral judgements are simply expressions of one's emotions, one's feelings or one's attitude towards an action" (Omoregbe, 1993:261). The emotivists do not see moral statements as factual statements that convey any information about actions, but rather they see it as an attitude which the person who makes the statement has adopted towards the action in question. The attitude or feelings or emotions may be favourable or unfavourable, negative or positive, and that is what he expresses when he makes a moral judgement about the action. The "first to propose the theory were I.A.Richards and C.K.Ogden (1873) in their *The Meaning of Meaning*" (Tsinorema, 1988:613).The consensus of the emotivist is that moral judgements and ethical concepts such as good, right, bad, and other moral values have emotive meanings. Moral judgements about whether something is good or bad in its right are contained wholly in the field of ethics. One of the leading exponents of this theory is C.L.Stevenson. Stevenson's book tilted, *Ethics and Language* presents a detailed analysis of ethical statements. The task of this paper is to discuss the epistemic significance of those central or fundamental parts of Stevenson's emotive theory and his ideas on the nature of moral judgements. We show how defensible or indefensible, coherent or incoherent, meaningful or meaningless, the emotive theories are. In other words, we provide the grounds for objection, inconsistencies and limitations to and within the claims of C.L.Stevenson's ethical theory.

2. The Emotive Theory of C.L.Stevenson

Charles Leslie Stevenson was born in "Cincinnati, Ohio. He studied at Yale University as an undergraduate, later at Cambridge, England, and took Ph.D. at Havard in 1935" (Kurtz, 1966:434). Stevenson is the author of essays in ethics, aesthetics, and linguistic philosophy. His best known publication is his book *Ethics and Language* published in 1944. Stevenson worked out in great detail an emotive theory similar to that espoused by Ayer, Carnap, and other logical positivist. To him the task of ethics is that of metaethics i.e. the analysis of ethical terms. And the way we resolve ethical terms are used to fulfill two functions (1) To express ones feelings about something and (2) To evoke similar feelings in others.

Stevenson claims that for us to know the meaning of a piece of language we have to know what particular use is made of it in discourse. Following the decline of the verifications theory, it became obvious that a sentence could be meaningful without being analytic or empirically verifiable. In his causal or psychological theory of meaning, Stevenson maintains that “the meaning of a linguistic sign is a dispositional property of the sign to cause or be caused by certain psychological process in the hearers and speakers respectively. Its meaning is constituted by the dispositional as been caused by and would not have developed without, an absolute process of conditioning which has attended the signs use in communication” (Ross, 1930:54). While distinguishing between descriptive and emotive meaning, he maintains that the descriptive meaning is the disposition of a sign to affect cognition, mental activities such as thinking, supposing. Stevenson defines emotive meaning as ‘‘the power that the word acquires, on account of its history in emotional situations, to evoke or directly express attitudes, as distinct from describing them’’ (1944:33). He takes moral language to have primarily emotive meaning; hence moral judgements for example express the attitudes of the speaker and may also be intended to evoke similar attitudes in the hearer.

If a person says ‘A is good’, he is using this ethical statement to express his positive feelings about ‘A’ and at the same time he is also trying, by means of this statement to evoke similar positive feelings about ‘A’. In other words, what the person who says ‘A’ is good is actually saying is that: ‘I approve of ‘A’: Do as well, Stevenson also use the term ‘magnetism’ to express moral judgements by saying that: A person who recognizes B to be good must *ipso facto* acquire a stronger tendency to act in its favour than he otherwise would have had. Ethical judgements evoke the sentiments of the person expressing them.

In his psychological method, Stevenson claims that “ethical statements are both emotive and descriptive: This is good has the meaning of this has a quality or relations x, y, z……. ‘Except that ‘good’ has as well a laudatory emotive meaning which permits it to express the speaker’s approval of the hearer” (1944:34). He further differentiates two kinds of agreement or disagreement in morals, one in belief, and the other in attitude. Disagreement in attitude rests on disagreement in belief, hence, setting matters of facts and securing agreement in belief may lead to agreement in attitude. But it is possible for two people to agree on the relevant facts but still disagree in their attitude towards them.

Stevenson argues that no factual or logical considerations can compel us to adopt certain attitudes rather than others. No factual statement is logically more relevant to a moral evaluation than any other factual statement. There is need for evaluation in our choice of factual statements to adopt as reason for value judgements. Though, Stevenson does not deny that moral judgements can have descriptive meaning but rather he says there is always an emotive element in their meaning which differentiates them from mere statements of fact and gives them their distinctive function in language.

When a moral judgement is delivered, a distinction is drawn between a factual state of affairs in the judgement and the positive or negative evaluation which is passed on that state of affairs. “The former is factual belief and it constitutes the descriptive meaning while the latter is an expression of attitude towards what is said to be the case and constitutes the emotive meaning of the judgement” (Tsinorema, 1988:616). He went further to say that belief and attitude, though distinct they are causally related and interwoven in that believe can influence attitude and cause them to change.

3. The Weaknesses of Emotivism

When we argue, we seem to be doing more than just expressing feelings. Moral views are to be consistent and coherent, but this would not be expected if they were mere feelings which are beyond the reach of reason. Emotivism seems to reduce ethical debate to emotional manipulation. We do not necessarily become emotional when discussing moral issues; we can recognize the immorality of certain actions without being moved emotionally. If ethical statements were contingent on emotions, they would change as emotions change. They cannot be universal because emotions vary between individuals, even when moral statements are carried by weight of public emotions, it does not make them right, nor should they be adopted. There have been, as a matter of fact a great many different moral standards both in the past and at present day. But it is difficult for us to say that one is better than the other.

When we look at Ayer’s and Stevenson’s form of emotivism we discovered that they are based on two different theories of meaning. Ayer’s form of emotivism is different from the subjective theory of ethics. While the subjectivist maintains that ethical statements are expressions and excitants of feeling which do not necessarily involve any assertions. A.J.Ayer is of the opinion that since moral judgements does not assert anything, it is impossible to argue about genuine questions of moral value, because if nothing is asserted nothing can be denied. From this analysis we can say that Ayer puts moral values beyond reason and view morality as fundamentally non rational. Ayer disagree with the intuitionist belief in the existence of mysterious 'non natural properties', he argues that moral judgement should not be viewed as mysterious as the intuitionist make us belief.

In his analysis of the methodology of moral argument Stevenson distinguishes between logical and psychological. The logical way of solving disagreement has to do with the consistency of the reasons, i.e. factual beliefs, that is given in moral judgements. Stevenson claims that this meant only for the exception not the rule. He went further and distinguished between the rational and non rational methods. The 'rational' methods test the truth and comprehensiveness of the supporting beliefs, and by changing people's beliefs they effect a change in their attitudes. "Both the rational and non rational methods aim at creating an influence". (Tsinomera, 1988:618). The consequence of this is that if I say 'B is good' according to Stevenson, I am only expressing my own feelings about B and at the same time evoke similar feelings in others. Emotivism presents moral discourse as a standard setting and not a standard using. But how reasonable is this theory of emotivism? Omoregbe writes:

Emotivism is untenable. Moral standards could not be so easily explained as expression of inner feelings; that make no assertions about actions. Nor is Stevenson's explanation as to why there are moral disagreements satisfactory. When a person says that murder is bad, he makes an assertion concerning the nature (the moral nature) of the action of murder. And if another person comes along and says that murder is good, he too has made an assertion concerning the nature (the moral nature) of the action of murder (1991:135).

Both Ayer and Stevenson argued that moral judgements is mainly expressive. We have moral judgements that emanates from objective moral principles. The good reason for anything we do should not be seen in the light of the agent but rather, it should conform to the objective meaning of goodness based on rationality. If for example we set out to create an influence by delivering moral judgement, we must bear in mind that the hearers do not already have the attitude which the judgement wish to produce. We must equally assume that our uttering the judgement will produce the adoption of a relevant attitude. But the truth of the matter is that moral judgements are often delivered without any of the aforementioned conditions. In most cases when we utter moral judgement, it may be that our hearers already share the same attitude with us.

On the other hand, we may not really want our hearer to share the same attitudes with us; as a result we do not bother whether the judgement will change our hearer's opinion. In question of factual belief emotivist accept distinction between good and bad evidence, but when it comes to moral attitudes they do not think that there could be a distinction. Emotivist argues that moral arguments are judged only by their capacity to produce the desired effect but not in terms of good or bad reasons. If the main function of a moral judgement is to produce a psychological effect, it may achieve the desired result with being understood or being intelligible. "Emotively effective may not necessarily be intelligible, we can achieve an influence effectively through non rational means e.g. bribery or threats" (Tsinorema, 1988:619), even though we disapprove both methods morally no matter how they give us desired result. To Stevenson it is not necessary to have reasons in morals; he argues that reasons support moral judgements psychologically and not morally. He conceives the reasons character of moral language in causal terms and argued that the rules of moral discourse can only be effective or ineffective. From this analysis Stevenson presents "morality to us not as a form of rational communication but as a form of manipulation and propaganda" (Tsinorema, 1988: 619).

Stevenson mistakenly takes disagreement in moral attitude and disagreement about the method of moral argument to be the same. Questions pertaining to morals and rational discourse can only be solved by the logical structure of the discourse and not by the attitude. Ozumba declares that

It does not make sense to perceive morality as involving only evocation and persuasion. Emotivism accepts the fact that agreements and disagreement are genuine occurrences in ethical disagreements. For instance when one says 'K' is good' he is expressing the view that 'K' is good', is it because the agent like 'K' or is it because 'K' POSSESSES certain qualities. Which make it good? In what sense are we using the word good here? Is it as something we have interest in or something that should be desirable? But should the meaning of good be found in interest and desirability? And not in right and universability? (2001:110).

If we follow the emotivist patterns of argument it means that everyone will be on the lookout for his own selfish motive, this can culminate into conflict.

Emotions should not be the basis of our judgements, emotions are bound to change, and the validity should be based not on emotions but on objective ground.

4. Epistemic Significance: In Defense of Moral Judgements

What does it mean to say that someone knows, or fail to know something? How much do we or can we know? How can we use our reason, our senses, the testimony of others, or others and other sources to acquire knowledge? Are there limits to what we can know? Are some things unknowable? Is it possible that we do not know nearly as much as we think we do? On the other hand, why do people argue, disagree and even quarrel over the rightness or wrongness of certain actions? Why do we have moral disputes and disagreements? What causes moral disputes? When men make moral judgements, what exactly are they doing? When our conscience tells us that an action is good or right, what is implied in the statement that we make? Or better still when the ordinary man makes such judgements, what is it that he intends to say, rightly or wrongly, from the moral point of view when we use the terms 'right' and 'wrong ' we have one implication or the other in mind, for example, when we talk about 'right' we are referring to moral fittingness.

Epistemology is considered one of the major branches of philosophy, it is the philosophical analysis of the nature of knowledge and the conditions required for a belief to constitute knowledge, such as truth and justification. One possesses moral knowledge when one's moral opinions are true and held justifiably. "Justification is a matter of how one's beliefs fit together. A person belief stands as justified and in light of the relations it bears to the person's other beliefs. If this is right, then defending the possibility of our moral beliefs being justified requires showing that they might actually stand in the relations that are required either to each other or to our other beliefs" (White, 2019:12). Different theories of justification, and different models of knowledge, go with different accounts of what counts as evidence for, or justification of, our moral views and with different accounts of when and how we might acquire moral knowledge. Since moral epistemology is the study of what would be involved in knowing, or in having justified in, moral propositions, Kailton argues that "it is possible to hold that what we know when we have moral knowledge is some empirically accessible fact". (2020:15). Cognitivism implies that moral propositions can be known, in the same very sense as ordinary factual propositions. When we view the nature of moral judgements from the perspective of value, a person who, for example says 'The action of good' is giving us information about the worth of the action, or telling us that the action has some value. The same thing applies when we say alms giving is good, or that a character is good. Here, the ethical meaning of good agrees with the other meaning of good that we studied in Axiology. In this aspect of value, we usually use the term 'good' and 'bad' and not 'right' and 'wrong'.

"The structure of justification requires an unshakeable foundation. Epistemic foundationalists hold that we cannot be justified in believing anything unless at least some of our beliefs are certain, indubitable, or infallible and self evident". (Huemer, 2018: 10). Defending the possibility of our moral beliefs being justified requires showing either that some such beliefs enjoy the required privileged status or that they are properly related to beliefs that do. It is important to say that it is not in all cases that the term 'right' means something that produces good results. "While the teleological school of thought maintains that we cannot pass any moral judgement on an action without taking into consideration the intention, the deontological school claims otherwise, to them certain actions are intrinsically wrong irrespective of the intention, circumstances and the consequences of the actions" (Omoregbe,1993:73). Examples of this type of actions include adultery, abortion, and masturbation.

The deontological school view moral judgement from the *a priori*, and the teleological school from the *a posteriori* . We must say that the advocates of deontologism are wrong, there is no way we can view an action ontologically to consider their moral worth, good or bad. To say that an action is morally wrong without taking into consideration the intention, the circumstances, and the expected results is untenable. It is only when we can provide an answer to the intended and anticipated results that we can tell whether it is good or bad. Very often moral judgement comes with the force of an order; Kant sees moral law as an imperative. In judging a piece of conduct morally, we say that somebody ought to do certain actions. In analyzing this we use the phrases 'we ought to do' something or it is 'our duty' to do something. Morality to Omoregbe is highly subjective; to "when we make a moral judgement about any action what we are doing is just expressing our personal attitudes or feelings" (1993:75). According to Stevenson, for example if I say 'This action is good' what I am saying is that I like this action do so as well. On the other hand if I say 'An action is wrong' and someone else says 'it is right' each of us is only making an assertion about his own feelings or if I say 'I like chocolate' and a friend of mine answered 'I don't like chocolate' there is no disagreement over the morality of our actions. As a matter of fact we disagree with the emotive theory, because we all know that moral judgement is a factual statement which makes an assertion that could be true or false.

Many people claim that rightness of an action like speaking the truth consists not merely in its producing good results; they believe that it is still right if it produced bad results. Its rightness, they believe that it is still right if it produced bad results. Its rightness depends on its being morally fitting thing to do in most circumstances, although not in all. In the words of Lillie:

An action's rightness depends on its moral, or its moral suitability, and the mental attitude of the agent is the dominating factor in determining its suitability, the spirit in which help is giving is more important for the rightness of the action than the nature of the help. It is certainly the case that mental conditions must be taken into account, but there is also an objective moral fittingness. There is moral fittingness in a man attempting to save a drowning child, even although his inability to swim makes his action useless. (2018:84).

When the ordinary man says an action is good or right, it means that he is saying something which is true, it is of course possible that he is mistaken in this. We judge a 'will', a 'motive', an 'intention', a 'purpose', and even a 'character', to be good in so far as each of these may be normally expected to produce a good action. In speaking of good action, we must be careful not to limit the term 'action' to the simple bodily movement of the agent, the motive, intention, purpose, hence speaking the truth in malice is not really the same action as speaking the truth in love. Human behaviour appears as the proper object of all those personal and moral reactions, judgments and attitudes to which, as social beings, we are naturally prone; or, to put the same point differently, human actions and human agents appear to be the bearers of objective moral properties.

The non-cognitive argues that there is no such thing as moral knowledge that there are no place within evaluative discourse for terms such as fact, truth, reality and such like, is commonly referred to as moral cognitive. Most of the non-cognitivist interpret moral disagreement in terms of disagreement in attitudes towards non-moral facts and refuse to concede the possibility of a moral reality that can be described. The truth of the matter is that moral knowledge cannot be reduced to something merely propositional. The quest for knowledge in the moral realm is more than an enquiry into what to believe, it is equally concerned with what is require. Mackie denies that there is any such thing as moral reality he argues "that the argument from relativity has as its premise the well known variation in moral codes from one society to another and from one period to another, and also the differences in moral beliefs between different groups and classes within a complex community. Such variation is in itself merely a truth of descriptive morality, a fact of anthropology, all of which makes it difficult to treat moral judgments as apprehension of objective truths" (1977:36). Even though moral disagreement may well suggest a prima facie reason to be skeptical about the possibility of moral realism and the existence of objective moral judgements, but before jumping into such a conclusion, it is worth remembering that commitment to moral realism whilst is not the possibility that all moral disputes should be resolvable, it certainly allows for such a possibility, the mere existence of disagreement does nothing to invalidate moral realism. Most of such disputes are resolvable in principle. This is because a great deal of moral disagreement relates to the fact of matter in disputes, that is to say non-moral facts. It follows that we should not conclude that disagreement over factual matters is never subject to resolution and with it a corresponding agreement over the moral disputes like the nature and relevant of personal responsibility. On the other hand, moral disagreement is also as a result of insufficient attention to the facts, such as ignorant, insensitivity or lack of imagination and when these are overcome, there is at least a measure of hope that the disputing parties stand a greater chance of reaching some kind of agreement is never resolvable because people's opposing commitments to what is seen as having ultimate significance. This lack of disagreement is an inevitable consequences of moral pluralism, but this need not force us into becoming moral skeptics, as will more readily be appreciated after the case for objective moral judgements has been made.

Ethics also serves as a "moral guides or principles of behavior for deciding what is right and wrong" (Quirk, 1955:466). Frankena takes ethics to be primarily concerned with "providing the general outlines of normative theory to help us in answering problems about what is right or wrong, or ought to be done, and as being interested in meta – ethical questions mainly because it seems necessary to answer such questions before one can be entirely satisfied with one's normative theory" (1993:5).

Ethics has no universally acceptable definition; it can be and has been defined in various ways. It can be defined primarily as a part of the “quest for truth and the motive for studying; it is the desire for knowledge” (Lillie, 2018:18). The analytic schools sees the task of ethics as mainly the analysis and clarification of moral terms, such as ‘good’, ‘bad’, ‘duty’, but the truth of the matter is that the task of ethics is more than the analysis and clarification of moral terms. We all want to know the truth about things, and ethics aims at finding out the truth about something: hence a mere knowledge of ethical principles is not enough to keep us in the paths of virtue. Omoregbe’s view in this regard is correct, when he says that:

The analysis and clarification of moral terms is a means to the end of ethics. When we study ethics, we are studying the principles of morality and the purpose of studying these principles is not just to know them but to conform our conduct to them. If the function of moral principles is to guide conduct, the purpose of studying them must be to know them in order to conform to them. (1993:9).

The two sub branches of ethics are (1) Meta ethics and (2) Normative ethics (Ozumba, 2001:6). Metaethics is concerned with the analysis of ethical terms such as ‘good’, ‘bad’, ‘duty’, etc. hence metaethics asks the question what do we mean when we say that an action is good or bad. Emotivism is an example of metaethical theory. Normative ethics on the other hand centres on the norms, standards or principles of human behavior. There are several terms that is usually used in judging human actions by ethical standards, for example, we say that an action is ‘good’ or ‘bad’, ‘right’, or ‘wrong’, ‘moral’, or ‘immoral’. At times we say that we ‘ought’ to do an action, that we ‘should’ do it, we ‘should not’ do it, or it is our ‘duty’ not to do it. From the foregoing the word ‘good’ indicates an attitudes of mind in favour of the object or event to which the term good is applied, such that almost anything may be termed good if anyone finds himself in favour of its existence, hence there is a great deal of ambiguity.
By and large, our business in ethics is to try to reach meanings which will be generally accepted and free from ambiguity and inconsistency, but unfortunately we are not likely to attain this in ethics because ethical terms are words in common use on men’s lips and are liable to constant change in meaning.

5. Conclusion

Epistemology deals with the study of knowledge, specifically with what we know and how we know it. This has to do with justifying our knowledge; it is also associated with the notion of truth. Stevenson’s theory is in our ordinary speech, we make moral judgments’ on a great many different kinds of objects. We speak of a good motive, goodwill, good intentions, good character, high moral purpose, good actions. If I say ‘Joke is evil’, I mean that Joke has violated or upset an objective moral order and destroyed a value. This assertion can be true or false; it is not just an expression of my attitude or feelings, but an assertion that can be challenged that can be contradicted, and that can be justified. While we recognize the fact that there are subjective elements in morality e.g. intention, motive, and psychological states. It is of course necessary to say that what make up the morality of an action may be described as a product of the joint operations between the objective elements and the subjective elements.

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Personality Traits as Determinant of Institutional Misdemeanor Behaviour among Officer Cadets of Nigerian Defence Academy Kaduna

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Abstract. The aim of this research is investigating the personality traits as determinant of institutional misdemeanor behaviour among officer cadets of Nigerian Defence Academy Kaduna**.** The study used both Survey and Experimental Design. A total of two hundred participants (200 officer cadets) were selected for the study through Purposive & simple convenient sampling method. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised Short Version was used to collect Data from participants. Data collected for this research were analyzed qualitatively through simple percentage for demographic and mean of standard deviation was used for the research questions. Independent t-test was used in testing hypothesis, the result reveal that: *i. There was a significant difference between* Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record *ii. There was a significant difference between* Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record. *iii. There was a significant difference between* Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record. In conclusion, the findings show that Personality is a major factor in many kinds of behavior, one of which is criminal behavior. To determine what makes a criminal "a criminal," we must understand his/her personality. This study tries to identify different personality traits which link crim inals to their personality. Further researches are expected and encouraged in the area to include larger sample and variables.

Keywords: Personality Traits, Determinant, Misdemeanor, Cadet and Behaviour

1. Introduction

Misdemeanor or Criminal behaviour is any behaviour or act that is in violation of the criminal law, whereas crime is the particular action representing such behaviour (Kamaluddin, Shariff, Othman, Ismail, & Ayu, 2015). "It is not itself, or criminality that is innate; it is certain peculiarities of the central and autonomic nervous system that react with the environment, with upbringing, and many other environmental factors to increase the probability that a given person would act in a certain antisocial manner" (Eysenck & Gudjonsson, 1989)

Kamaluddin, el-tal (2015) offered four general definitions of criminal behavior that will fit all the types of it. These four (4) areas include the following types act (1). Prohibited by law and are punished by the state

(2).Considered to be violation moral or religious code and is believed to be punishable by a supreme spiritual being such as God.

(3). Violate norms of society or traditions and are believed to be punishable by community
(4). Acts causing serious psychological stress or mental damage to a victim, but as from that affordable for offender (referred as a psychological criminal behavior)

Following what has been stated above, then the general definition of criminal behavior can be stated as "any kind of misdemeanor or antisocial behavior which is punishable by law or norms, stated by community", therefore it is very difficult to define it because the act can be considered as a violation of some rules and regulations at one point in time, but can be accepted by other communities. It is important to distinguish between delinquencies from criminal act. The first one refers to act that are prohibited by social norms, while the second one is violation of existing laws defined by a state.
This field Includes studying of risks factor and measuring crime in order to assist in the prevention of Criminal behavior which is usually measured by arrests and changes, self-reported offences (which is believed by some to be more accurate), actual crime rates, which are usually obtained by governmental organs by using this kind of information crime reports are generated which help to generally categorize crime by types and offender characteristics such as Gender, Age, Race and Location.

The study is interested in determining if significant relationship could occur between officer cadets personality factors/traits and misdemeanor/criminal behavior while undergoing training in NDA.

1.1 Statement of Problem

In reference to the Academy Routine Order (ARO) for January-December 2017, where over 800 Officer Cadets of the Nigerian Defence Academy (NDA) Kaduna from different departments and Battalions were involved in different misdemeanor/criminal behavior which includes AWOL (absence without official leave), Absenteeism, Examination malpractice, Use of Handset, Theft, Brutality etc. Some of the cadets involved in these misdemeanor/criminal behaviors have over time been subjected to different disciplinary and punitive measures which include Struck off Strength (SOS), Restriction with no Pay, Relegation, Withdrawal and Dismissal from the Nigerian Defence Academy Kaduna. In spite of these measures taken by the Academy authority to correct these misdemeanor behaviors, prevalence rate has persisted.

1.2 Objectives of Study

Objectives of Study are:

- To find out if there will be a significant relationship between personality factors of Extraversion of Officer Cadets of NDA who have misdemeanor/criminal record compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.
- To investigate if there will be a significant relationship between personality factor of Neuroticism of Officer Cadets of NDA who have misdemeanor/criminal record compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.
- To determine if there will be a significant relationship between personality factors of Psychoticism of Officer Cadets of NDA who have misdemeanor/criminal record compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

1.3 Hypotheses

H_1. Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.
H_2. Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.
H_3. Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1 Concept of Personality

The term of "rescue personality" emerged from the study of Mitchell and Bray (1990) to describe the traits observed in individuals working in emergency occupations, such as the paramedics. According to them, rescue personnel are portrayed as sociable, active, goal-oriented, dedicated and obsessed with achievement (Wagner, Marting, & McFee, 2009). Despite that police belongs to the "rescue workers" category; personality scientists are still trying to explore the nature of police personality (Wagner, et. al., 2009). Twersky-Glasner (2005) identified two perspectives to explain whether police personality is constructed by innate traits individuals have (psychological perspective) or shaped by the experiences gained while being on duty (sociological perspective). Various studies revealed that police officers may well be a homogeneous group as they seem to display common personality characteristics compared to the general population (Twersky-Glasner, 2005).

Personality traits

Since decades, personality traits influenced a large number of scientists to develop a variety of theoretical perspectives and, further, to construct models applicable to individuals and study their relation to different aspects in life. The studies started to be performed from the early 90s and confirmed the scientists' interest and their systematic efforts to understand personality by classifying those characteristics that make individuals different and unique. However, struggling with definitions and language interpretations, personality scientists and practitioners faced difficulties in developing a specific taxonomy in common language and understood by everyone to describe personality. Consequently, this led to a number of models regarding personality domains.

3. Theories of Criminal Behaviour

In order to find the best way to handle and prevent crime and examine why people commit crime is very important. Many theories have appeared and appearing since beginning of this study seeking to find the best solution for this problem. Those theories will always influence forensic criminal psychologists work.

There are three (3) broad models of criminal behavior. It is difficult to completely separate them and it is severally accepted, that all of them may be in the interpretation of behavior. Through psychological principle can be applied across all the three models, they have some specific ones which would help in implementing across different crime control policies.

3.1 Psychological Approach

There are several fundamental assumptions that are common for all the psychological approaches to criminal behavior. These are the following:

- The individual is the primary unit of analysis (individual human being is considered to be responsible for acts he/she conducted).
- Personality drives behavior within individuals because it is the major motivational element.
- Crimes can result from abnormal dysfunctional or inappropriate mental processes within the individual's personality.
- An individual may have purpose of criminal behavior if it addresses certain felt needs.

Normality is generally defined by social consensus that is what is considered as "typical" "normal" or "acceptable" by majority of individuals in a certain social group.

Defective or abnormal, mental processes may be cause by a variety of factors such as diseased mind, appropriate learning or improper conditioning , the emulation of inappropriate role models and adjustment to inner conflicts.

In short crime control policy based on psychological principles targets individuals and tries to prevent criminal behavior from this point. Any policy aimed at preventing crime by targeting person such as training , education promotion of self-awareness , rehabilitation , re socialization , or identification risks of criminal behavior and psychological in nature .In addition psychologists have long recognized that the best predictor of future behavior is past behavior from the sociological point of view.

3.2 Sociological Theory

The majority of sociological theorists believe that the criminal behavior mainly is influenced by combination of social surrounding, political, and economic factors. Offenders are not necessarily viewed as bad people , these theories tend to look at social context of a person 's situation in examining his race , neighborhood , intelligence , education ,family , political and media influence , income level , job and career, childhood history to determine why did he/she become criminal . There are many different theories severally to explain criminal behavior such as social structure theory (which itself consists of disorganization, strain and cultural deviance theories) differential association, theory of anomie, neutralization theory, social control theory, and many others.

The key idea of differential association created by Edwin H. Sutherland is that, criminal behavior is learned through communication with other people. Though that interaction values, techniques and attitude to things is learned, that motivates future behavior and in the following case it is criminal act indeed. The more a person sees delinquent acts which are not criticized by surrounding community, the higher is the chance of their attachment to others.

3.3 Biological Approaches

Biological theories propose that criminal behavior is caused by some flaw in individual's biological make up. According to Rayne study, the causes may be heredity, neurotransmitter dysfunction and brain abnormalities, which could be caused either by the first law or trauma. Many theories, are sharing biological approaches such as trait and psychodynamic trait theories, Lombroso's theory, Chromosome theory and others. There are several types of crime control which involves artificial interference in human biology such as psychosurgery, chemical methods of control, brain stimulation and others.

3.4 Psychodyanamic Theory

Psychodynamic theory was developed by Sigmund Freud in the late 1800's and has then become a significant theory in the history of criminality (Siegel,2005).

Freud believed that every individual carries "residue of the most emotional attachments of our childhood, which then guides our future interpersonal relationship (Seigel,2005). The theory is three part structure consisting of the Id, Ego and Super ego. The Id is considered the underdeveloped primitive part of our Makeup. It controls need for food, sleep, and other basic instinct. This part is purely focused on instant gratification. The Ego controls Id by setting up boundaries. The super ego is the change of judging the situation through morality (Seigel, 2005).

Psychodynamic theories believed that personality of offenders is Id dominated, which means that when they lose control of the ego there Id instant gratification takes over. Other problem causing control of the ego are poor social skill, excessive dependence on others immaturity etc. Others believed that offenders are moved by unconscious need to be punished by their previous sins consequently "crime is manifestation of feelings of oppression and people's inability to develop the proper psychological defense and rationales to keep these feelings under control (Seigel, 2005).

4. Psychological Factors

Psychological factors encompass processes that take place at the individual-level as well as the meanings that one attributes to a particular situation which in turn affects our mental state (Upton, 2013). Cesare Lombroso (1810) viewed criminality as a product of abnormal psychological traits. This view was elaborated further by Hans Eysenck. Traits are more deterministic in nature as they are "dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions (Kamainddin, Sheriff, Othman, Ismail, Ayu,2015).

Eysenck in his theory of criminality proposed that personality factors like extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism are the prime causes of criminal behavior and only "systematic method" available for the investigation of such behavior. Personality trait contribute to one's tendency to engage in criminal behavior (Levine Jackson,2014; Egan, Mcmurran, Richardson, Rlair. 2000;Listwan 2001). He proposed that high neuroticism leads to higher persistence in people which make crime a matter of routine that is continuously reinforced. The combined effects of high extraversion and neuroticism interferes with learning social rules and concentrating, increasing the likelihood of criminal behavior (Levine Efackson). Psychoticism is believe to increase the rigidity of thought in a person and reduce sensitivity to guilt

The traits that correlate to form this super ordinate trait include aggressive, cold, ego center, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, un-empathetic, create and tough minded (Ruch, N.D). Additional evidence of the role of underlying personality factors in criminal behavior is provided by this five (5) factor model proposed by McCrae and Costa (1998) which represents a continuum between two extremes of these traits. It was found that neuroticism has shown positive correlation with criminal acts which is consistent with the finding of Eysenck Pen model.

Meccrae and Costa found that Eysenck "measure of Personality was related to the five factors, Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism, Conscientiousness as well as agreeableness (Zukerman, Kuhlman, Joircman, Teta Kraft, 1993). In addition to personality factors, other individual variable like intelligence, emotional behavior and academic achievements also determine the chances of an individual to indulge in criminal behavior (Clarbour, Roger, Miles Monaghan, 2009; Koolh , Loerber Wei Pardini,2007).

Listwan (2001) in her research supported the motion that personality is an important risk factor and can assist our understanding of offenders both theoretically as an explanation for behavioral and practically for the application of treatment. Despites the firm theoretical base of Eysenck theory in understanding criminal behavior, situation list theorists have often targeted its reliability , Theorists argue that behavior varies not because of personality traits but due to the situation one is in and the characteristics of that situation (Smallbone & Cale, N.D). Knowing the various circumstances, then, which may foster criminal behaviour is essential to be cognizant of. The reason behind criminal behavior

can vary a lot in each particular case but still they can be grouped in two main categories:
(1) Genetics and
(2) Environment.

Where in the mid 19th century the question about the causes of criminal behavior was raised, a lot a psychologists where insisting that the only reason is genetics. They even considered that a person's inclination to criminal could be measure according to the parents mental condition, i.e. if they have some even minor mental problem theirs sons/daughters was more likely to become a criminal. The scientist has their version of solving a problem but is it fair if the people with higher risks of committing a crime would not be allowed by the state and society to live normally and have children?

As the time passed more and more researches and experiments were held and modern approach to this question is that of cause genetics is really important reasons behind criminal behavior, but environment is also as important as it. These include the family, The child is born and raised in the examples parents and family can give them, social status they have educated etc.

Nowadays the psychologist and criminalists have agreed that what drives a person to criminal behavior is really complex and complicated mechanism involving a lot of factors. We can imaging a child, was born in a" criminal" family (mother is schizophrenic, father is rapist and murderer) but after he got an education and a job there is nothing antisocial in his behaviors. It proves that solely genetics can't determine one's inclination to be criminal. So it is impossible to predict a person's "criminality "according some specific factors, but we can still highlight some circumstances and apply a person to a "relatively higher criminal risks group".

Financial problems or starvation - This is especially common problem in third world countries .when a person has to struggle every day just to get food to survive, the probability that they become thieves is high.
Low social status - when one is bullied because of it, they may easily become aggressors and fight back against the whole society.
Genetics - some genetically mental disorders, itself includes increase aggression.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Design

Design is Embedded mixed design which combined both Survey and Experimental Design. For Survey Design, Section A, shall comprise of Demographic variable/Data of Officer Cadets e.g. gender age department
Section B will comprise of Eysenck Personality Questionnaire revised short version.

The Experimental Design involved selecting 100 officer cadets with Misdemeanor record in both Military and Academic training. Note: Misdemeanor record like AWOL, Skipping of first period, Brutality, Malingering, absent from fire alarm, charging through, Absent from lectures, Sleeping in class. And selecting another 100 Officer Cadets with no misdemeanor record, they were selected through PURPOSIVE and SIMPLE RANDOM Sampling technique (only 100 of those with misdemeanor record and 100 of those with no misdemeanor record were selected).
The method used is a mixture research design (Experimental and the administration of Eysenck questionnaire). For the experimental design, two hundred participants (200 cadets) were divided into two groups of 100 on the basis of Misdemeanor record or NO Misdemeanor record. The Independent variable is 100 Officer Cadets with Misdemeanor records and 100 Officer Cadets with NO Misdemeanor records while the Dependent variable is the scores on the Domains of Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism from the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire.

5.2 Participants

A total of two hundred participants (200 officer cadets) across the three Faculties (Art & Social Sciences, Engineering, Sciences & cyber security) were selected for the study through Purposive & simple convenient sampling method. One hundred (100) participants (officer cadets) with Misdemeanor record and another one hundred (100) participants (officer cadets) with NO Misdemeanor record were selected. Ethical consideration of well informed consent and willingness to participation and confidentiality were enforced.

5.3 Instrument

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised short version was used to collect Data from participants. It is a self-report inventory which measures personality. It contains 10 items, with each trait of Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Psychoticism. The coefficient of reliability was found to be 0.766 for extraversion subscale; 0.772 for the neuroticism subscale and

0.238 for the psychoticism subscale. The corrected item-total correlation ranged from 0.201 to 0.538 for extraversion, from 0.196 to 0.556 for neuroticism and from 0.020 to 0.284 for psychoticism subscale of EPQR-S (Tiwari, Singh, & Singh, 2009).

5.4 Procedure

An advocacy visit of the Academic branch and four faculties was carried out in other to obtain official permission from the Academy Registrar and Deans of faculties on the nature of research and the involvement of officer cadets in the collection of data. The study commenced with a pilot study to validate the instruments for use in the Nigerian socio-cultural and environmental context. Significant psychometric values indicated their relevance for use in the study. In conducting the main study, permission and ethical approval were sought from the hospital authority highlighting key ethical considerations of the study. Once granted the Human Resource Department were approached for the selection of prospective participants for the study using the systematic random sampling approach described earlier. Sample size was determined by the Yamane's formula to ensure representativeness. Those selected were invited for briefing on the study by the researcher through the department to confidence and consent. They were adequately informed about the study and given the option of voluntary participation or withdrawal at any time. Officer Cadets were briefed on the nature of the research. And Officer Cadets with Misdemeanor record and those with no Misdemeanor record were selected through Purposive and convenient sampling technique. After successfully selecting 100 participants each, those with Misdemeanor record and those with NO Misdemeanor record then EYSENCK Personality Questionnaire (Revised short version) was administered in a class situation through Informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity was ensured.

5.5 Techniques for the Data Analysis

For the purpose of effective data analysis all the information secured from the interview and data collected for this research were analyzed qualitatively through simple percentage for demographic and mean of standard deviation was used for the research questions. While Independent t-test was use in testing hypothesis 1-3, used statistical package for social science (SPSS) to get the result.

6. Result

The data collected from the study using the instruments were analyzed, the result obtained were used to answer the research questions and testing the hypotheses. This section is divided into two: answers to research questions and testing of hypotheses.

Data Presentation

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristic of the participants

Socio-demographic characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Distribution of participant base on Sex		
Male	153	76.5%
Female	047	23.5%
Total	**200**	**100**
Distribution of participant by Age		
17-20 years	080	40%
21-24 years	120	60%
Total	**200**	**100**
Distribution of participant on level of study		
100	25	12.5%
200	30	15%
300	63	31.5%
400	82	41%
Total	**200**	**100**

Source: *Field Survey 2020*

Table 1 above presents the analysis of the socio-demographic characteristic of the respondents with reference to their sex, age and level of study. It is clearly shows that out of the total respondent, (76.5%) were male, while the remaining (23.5%) were female.

From the table above, it indicate that age 17-20 who responded to the questionnaire were 80(40%), and age 21-24 respondents are 120(60%),respectively. It was also revealed that (12.5%) are in 100 level, (15 %) are in 200 level, (31.5%) are in 300 level and (41%) of respondent are in 400 level respectively

Test of Hypotheses

This section presented the testing of the hypotheses stated in section at P < 0.05 level of significance. The analysis of the result is presented as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record

Table 5: Independent t-test for significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

Group	N	Mean	SD	Df	T-value	P-value	Decision
Misdemeanor record	**100**	**65.52**	**11.56**	**142**	**14.81**	**0.001***	**Significant**
No Misdemeanor record	**100**	**36.44**	**10.65**				

* Significant at P< 0.05

From Table 5, the t-value of 14.81 has a corresponding P-value of 0.001 at 142 degrees of freedom, which was less than P-value of 0.05 level of significance. This meant that there was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor record. The result therefore showed that we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis since results clearly revealed that there is a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor record.

Hypothesis 2: Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

Table 6: Independent t-test for significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

Group	N	Mean	SD	Df	T-value	P-value	Decision
Misdemeanor record	**100**	**66.52**	**12.66**	**70**	**0.759***	**0.31***	**Significant**
No Misdemeanor record	**100**	**36.25**	**10.22**				

* **Significant at P< 0.05**

Table 6 revealed that P-value of 0.759 was obtained from the t-value of 0.308 at 70 degrees of freedom. This value is significant since P = 0.759 is greater than P = 0.05 level of significance. This implied that there was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor record. With this result we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis since result clearly indicated that there is a significant difference between officers cadets with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire compared with those with no misdemeanor record.

Hypothesis 3: Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record

Table 7: Independent t-test for significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record will score higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record.

Group	N	Mean	SD	Df	T-value	P-value	Decision
Misdemeanor record	100	38.33	9.56	3	10.55	0.001*	Significant
No Misdemeanor record	100	34.78	6.65				

* Significant at P< 0.05

From Table 7, the t-value of 10.55 has a corresponding P-value of 0.001 at 3 degrees of freedom, which was less than P-value of 0.00 level of significance. This meant that there was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor record. The result therefore showed that there is a clear significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor record. We therefore accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant difference between officer cadets of NDA with misdemeanor record who scored higher on psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire compared with those with no misdemeanor record.

7. Summary of the Result

- There was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Extraversion on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record
- There was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Neuroticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record
- There was a significant difference between Officer Cadets of NDA with misdemeanor/criminal record who scored higher on Psychoticism on the Eysenck personality questionnaire revised compared to those who do not have misdemeanor/criminal record

8. Discussion on the Findings

Personality is a major factor in many kinds of behavior, one of which is criminal behavior. To determine what makes a criminal “a criminal,” we must understand his/her personality. This study tries to identify different personality traits which link criminals to their personality. Eysenck in his theory of criminality proposed that personality factors like extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism are the prime causes of criminal behavior and only “systematic method” available for the investigation of such behavior. Personality trait contribute to one’s tendency to engage in criminal behavior (Levine 2014; Egan, Mcmurran, Richardson, Rlair. 2000;Listwan 2001). He proposed that high neuroticism leads to higher persistence in people which make crime a matter of routine that is continuously reinforced. The combined effects of high extraversion and neuroticism interferes with learning social rules and concentrating, increasing the likelihood of criminal behavior (Levine,2014). Psychoticism is believe to increase the rigidity of thought in a person and reduce sensitivity to guilt

The traits that correlate to form this super ordinate trait include aggressive, cold, ego center, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, un-empathetic, create and tough minded (Ruch, N.D). Additional evidence of the role of underlying personality factors in criminal behavior is provided by this five (5) factor model proposed by McCrae and Costa (1998) which represents a continuum between two extremes of these traits.

It was found that neuroticism has shown positive correlation with criminal acts which is consistent with the finding of Eysenck Pen model. This support some of the most studied researches into the origins of crime and personality have been done by Professor Hans Eysenck, who spent years defining whether criminal behavior had any relationship with personality. He identified that personalities have three dimensions. First, psychoticism describes people as being aggressive, egocentric, and impulsive. Second, neuroticism describes people with low self-esteem, anxiety, and wide mood swings. The third is extroversion, which describes the personality of an individual who is sensation-seeking, dominant, and assertive. A majority of these traits are found in criminals, which have been studied and classified.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study examined personality traits as determinant of institutional misdemeanor behaviour among officer cadets of Nigerian defence academy Kaduna. The finding shows that Personality is a major factor in many kinds of behavior, one of which is criminal behavior. To determine what makes a criminal “a criminal,” we must understand his/her personality. This study tries to identify different personality traits which link criminals to their personality. Further researches are expected and encouraged in the area to include larger sample and variables.

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Ethical Concerns and Risk Perceptions Associated with the Application of Genetic Engineering

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Abstract. Genetics and ethics have had numerous convergences and divergences over time. One major area where genetics and ethics have connection is the application of genetic engineering research. Genetic engineering has increased significantly in recent years. The advocates of this biotechnology portrayed it as a major scientific and technological revolution in the contemporary world. Howbeit, the application of genetic engineering brings with it ethical issues. Therefore, this study examines the ethical concerns and risk perceptions associated with the application of genetic engineering with a view to ascertain the dangers and usefulness of this biotechnological advancement to the wellbeing of humanity. Data for this study was generated through secondary sources and subjected to historical, critical, content and constructive analyses. The research discovered that genetic engineering have some major problems relating to technical complexity and ethical dilemma that call for public concerns. The paper maintains that despite the aforementioned problems, there are indications that genetic engineering has the potential to improve the quality of life. Howbeit, the application of genetic engineering must be seriously guided by laws and standard ethical systems so that man will not be a victim of his own creations. Therefore, biotechnologists, medical scientists, Legal experts, social and religious ethicists and other relevant stakeholders need to engage in sincere, fruitful and meaningful dialogue to resolve the pending, technical, legal and ethical dilemma inherent in the application of genetic engineering in order to advance the moral and scientific wellbeing of humanity.

Keywords: Genetics, Ethics, Genetic Engineering, Ethical Concerns, Moral and scientific wellbeing

1. Introduction

Genetics and ethics have had numerous convergences and divergences over time. One major area where genetics and ethics have connection is the application of genetic engineering research. Genetic engineering has increased significantly in recent years. The advocates of genetic engineering portrayed it as a major scientific and technological revolution in the contemporary world, which is what makes it legitimate in the eyes of its supporters. However, the use of this biotechnology brings with it ethical issues. These issues need to be considered by all stakeholders to ensure that all parties are aware of the ethical dilemma and can make a valid contribution to the current debate regarding the creation and use of genetically engineered organisms. Also, it is imperative for stakeholders to reflect societal values within the context of scientific practices and emerging biotechnologies that may be deemed ethically contentious. As a result of the ethical challenges and potential risks that genetic engineering bring, some governing bodies have started to develop relevant policies, often calling for increased vigilance and monitoring of potential dangers inherent in the application of this biotechnological advancement (Veerhong 1992.; Larrère, 2003). According to (Glenn, 2013):

Genetic engineering and transgenics continue to present intriguing and difficult challenges for 21st century scientists and ethicists, and education, meaningful and respectful discourse are just the beginning of what is required to tackle such complex ethical issues. Until we as a society or, perhaps, as a global entity can agree on what beings—human or otherwise—are worthy of moral and legal status and respect, we can expect intense cross-disciplinary

debate and discussion as new life forms are created through science and medicine (n.p.**)**.
Critical examination of the scientific and ethical controversies and debate on the subject of genetic modification of organisms shows that genetic engineering is sophisticated but nonetheless tinkering with uncertain results, and far from unnaturally meddling with life, it actually has to do with controlling (albeit inefficiently) natural processes. Moreover, exponents of genetic engineering posit that the 'irrational' fears of people concerning this biotechnology stand in the way of progress. They equally observe that the reason members of the public are so scared of consuming genetically modified organisms is because they do not understand what they are all about. Closer scrutiny reveals that they are not so much worried about GMOs, as about the inability of the authorities in charge of monitoring this new technology to resist the powerful interests of multinational corporations. It is believed that public hostility towards genetic engineering of organisms is more the product of reasoned skepticism than of irrational fear (Larrère, 2003).

It is pertinent to note that the characteristics of genetic engineering possess both vast promise and potential threat to human kind. Due to its potential to give humanity unprecedented power over life itself, the research and application of genetic engineering has continued to generate much debate and controversies among scientists, ethicists, and religious adherents in recent times (Zheng, 2003). Therefore, this study examines the ethical concerns and risk perceptions associated with the application of genetic engineering with a view to ascertain the dangers and usefulness of this biotechnological advancement to the wellbeing of humanity. Data for this study was generated through secondary sources and subjected to historical, critical, content and constructive analyses.

2. Understanding Genetic Engineering

Genetic engineering is the designation for a group of techniques used for direct genetic modification of organisms or population of organisms using recombination of DNA. These procedures are used to identify, replicate, modify and transfer the genetic material of cells, tissues or complete organisms (Izquierdo, 2001; Karp, 2002; Montaldo, 2006). Genetic engineering, or genetic modification, uses a variety of tools and techniques from biotechnology and bioengineering to modify an organism's genetic makeup (Glenn, 2013**)**. Coates et.al gives what we may call a functional definition of genetic engineering to mean 'the alteration of an organism's hereditary material, commonly used to increase plant and animal food production, diagnose diseases, and improve medical treatment'(2008). In this light, Benjamin and Familusi (2020) contend that genetic engineering embraces the deliberate adaptation of an organism's genetic or hereditary material to eliminate undesirable characteristics or to produce desirable new ones. Several terms are used to describe genetically engineered organisms; genetically modified, genetically altered, genetically manipulated, transgenic and biotechnology derived, among others (Hampton, 2016). This technology may be called 'biotechnology,' 'bioengineering,' 'recombinant DNA technology', among others. Most techniques of genetic engineering are related to the direct manipulation of DNA oriented to the expression of particular genes. In a broader sense, genetic engineering involves the incorporation of DNA markers for selection (marker-assisted selection, MAS), to increase the efficiency of the so called 'traditional' methods of breeding based on phenotypic information (Montaldo, 2006; Benjamin and Familusi, 2020).

It is pertinent to state at this point that the term genetic engineering initially referred to various techniques used for the modification or manipulation of organisms through the processes of heredity and reproduction. It is argued that Mother Nature has been carrying out genetic manipulations over the years, long before the primate ancestors of humans were even introduced on earth as distinct species. This argument is used to explain the phenomena of evolution, natural selection and selective breeding. When repeated over several generations, this process led to dramatic changes in the species (Benjamin and Familusi, 2020). In the early stages of genetic engineering, the primary technology used was trans-genesis literally meaning the transfer of genetic material from one organism to another (Hampton, 2016). However, over the years, new technologies emerged which did not necessarily require trans-genesis. Benjamin and Familusi observe that at a point in time, the term genetic engineering came to refer more specifically to methods of recombinant DNA technology or gene cloning, in which DNA molecules from two or more sources are combined either within cells or in vitro, and are then inserted into host organisms in which they are able to propagate (Encyclopedia Britannica cited in Benjamin and Familusi, 2020).

In recent times, genetic engineering embraces both artificial selection and all the interventions of biomedical techniques, among them are: artificial insemination, in vitro fertilization, cloning, and gene manipulation. Recent applications allow for the creation of genetically engineered organisms via the deletion of genes, or the manipulation of genes already present. According to Benjamin and Familusi (2020), modern biotechnology has made it easier and faster to target a specific gene for more precise alteration of the organism through genetic engineering. It is imperative to state that the most accepted purpose of genetic engineering is focused on the direct manipulation of DNA sequences. These techniques involve the capacity to isolate, cut and transfer specific DNA pieces, corresponding to specific genes (Lewin, 1999; Klug and Cummings, 2002; Montaldo, 2006). Gene splicing, that is, direct altering of genetic material to form recombinant DNA, and cloning are vital techniques used for recombinant DNA production. Cloning techniques have been applied to both plants and animals. Benjamin and Familusi (2020) note that the copies produced through cloning have identical genetic makeup and are known as clones. Scientists have combined genetic engineering with cloning to quickly and economically produce thousands of plants and animals with preferred qualities. It is important to state here that genetic engineering technology is applied to humans, animals and plants.

3. Ethical Considerations

A lot of social and religious ethical concerns have been expressed with regards to genetic engineering and issues associated with the application of this biotechnological advancement. In this regard, Benjamin and Familusi, (2020) maintain that there is no technology without accompanying challenges provoking moral questions and necessitating ethical considerations. According to them, every novel breakthrough in science requires cross-disciplinary debate and discussion lest man becomes a victim of his own creations. They further observe that as this technology unleashes its power to impact our daily life, it will also bring challenges to our ethical system and core religious beliefs. The hope of human enhancement and selective breeding is not without its social horrors and moral concerns. Some individuals have continued to argue that crossing species boundaries is unnatural, immoral, and in violation of God's laws, which presumes that species boundaries are fixed and readily delineated (Glenn, 2013.**).** There is also confusion as to the rights and protection to be given to genetically modified organisms. In this light, Glenn raised the following fundamental questions: if the blending of animal and human DNA results, intentionally or not, in chimeric entities possessing degrees of intelligence or sentience never before seen in nonhuman animals, should these entities be given rights and special protections? In others words, If we create a being that has the ability to speak and perhaps even reason, but looks like a dog or a chimp, should that creation be given all the rights and protection traditionally bestowed upon a person? Will transgenic interventions in humans create physical or behavioral traits that may or may not be readily distinguished from what is usually perceived to be "human"? (Glenn, 2013**).** As a matter of fact, these questions have raised serious ethical concern with regards to the application of genetic engineering in contemporary times.

One major aspect of genetic engineering that has raised so many ethical and safety concerns among bioethicists and researchers is human genome editing. Bioethicists and researchers generally believe that human genome editing for reproductive purposes, should not be attempted at this time, but that studies that would make gene therapy safe and effective should continue (Hampton, 2016). Most stakeholders agree that it is important to have continuing public deliberation and debate to allow the public to decide whether or not germ-line editing should be permissible. As of 2014, there were about 40 countries that discouraged or banned research on germ-line editing, including 15 nations in Western Europe, because of ethical and safety concerns. There is also an international effort led by the US, UK, and China to harmonize regulation of the application of genome editing technologies. This effort was officially launched in December, 2015 with the international summit on Human Gene Editing in Washington D.C Safety. Due to possibility of off-target effects (edits in the wrong place) and Mosaicism, safety is of primary concern. Researchers and ethicists who have written and spoken about genetic engineering such as those present at the international summit on Human Gene Editing generally agree that until germ-line genome editing is deemed safe through research, it should not be used for clinical reproductive purposes, the risk cannot be justified by the potential benefit. Some researchers argue that there may never be a time when genome editing in embryos will offer a benefit greater than that of existing technologies, such as Pre-Implantation Genetic Diagnosis (PGD) and In vitro Fertilization (IVF) (Araki, and Ishii, 2014).

Moreover, some people worry that it is impossible to obtain informed consent for germ-line therapy because the patients affected by the edits are the embryo and future generations. The counter argument is that parents already make any decisions that affect their future children, including similarly complicated decisions such as PGD with IVF. Researchers and bioethicists also worry about the possibility of obtaining truly informed consent from prospective parents as long as the risks of germ-line therapy are unknown. Also, there is concern that genome editing will only be accessible to the wealthy and will increase existing disparities in access to health care and other interventions. Some worry that taken to its extreme; germ-line editing could create classes of individuals defined for the quality of their generated genome (National Academics of Sciences, 2017). According to Benjamin and Familusi (2020), what should be kept in mind is to consistently ask if these therapies will finally exclude the disadvantaged and exacerbate already existing domestic and global socio-economic inequalities, especially in very corrupt nations. Man can then anticipate intense cross-disciplinary debate and discussion as new life forms are emanating through science and medicine (Powledge, 2002).

Furthermore, many people have religious ethical objections to the use of human embryos for genetic engineering research (National Academics of Sciences, 2017). Benjamin and Familusi (2020) are of the view that religion still acts as a sure ethical guide to the use of scientific knowledge. To them, science does not have the mechanism to determine what is moral, nor should we expect value judgment from it. Soon after the cloning of the first human embryos, there has been widespread condemnation from several religious quarters. Theologians view some aspects of genetic engineering as thorny issues, an example of the ongoing tension between faith and science. Benjamin and Familusi further contend that:

Every scientific attempt that downgrades the image of God in man to the level of brute beast is an aberration. For man is more than just a being with blood and tissues, but a soul as well. ... Thus, religious people on the basis of value of human life argue against unnecessary genetic intercourse with lower animals and plants. As more human genes are being used in non-human organisms to create new forms of life that are genetically partly human, new ethical questions arise. It is either we are trying to raise animal and plant lives to the level of man or we are lowering ours to the level of non-human species (2020:42-43).

Some religious adherents believe that the principle of the dignity and sanctity of life covers all human life from the embryo stage. Life begins at conception and there is no justification to use embryos even if the research leads to medical breakthroughs. In this religious parlance, research cloning, where embryos are destroyed is unethical. According to Roman Catholic Church's bioethical teachings in *Dignitas Personae*, 'to create embryos with the intention of destroying them, even with the intention of helping the sick, is completely incompatible with human dignity.' The biomedical interest of procuring embryos must never be allowed to negatively affect the dignity and sanctity of human life (Benjamin and Familusi (2020).

It is pertinent to state at this juncture that playing God has become the strongest religious ethical objection against genetic engineering in recent times. According to Benjamin and Familusi (2020), playing God simply means performing tasks that are reserved for God and God alone. Bohlin (2000) observes that for some religious believers, the notion of playing God carries a pietistic view of God's realm of activity versus that of the human race. Benjamin and Familusi (2020) contend that if the above assertion of Bohlin is what genetic technology does, then the concerns about playing God are justified. They however, raise the following questions and observations:

What if God's intention was to transmit his creative sparks into man in order that man might become co-creators with the divine? If this is accepted, at what point can we say man has voyaged beyond his borderline into the realm of the divine? If concerns about 'playing God' are legitimate, are they meant to protect man from self-destruction or a sympathetic crusade to prevent human usurpation of God's glory? Why is it any more plausible to imagine God erecting electric fences around certain areas of knowledge than to imagine God watching with delight and parental pride as human beings use their divinely designed brains to decipher the code of life? It is therefore likely that this 'playing God' thing is more of saving man from his arrogance rather than saving God from losing his reserved-creator status (Benjamin and Familusi (2020:42).

Different bioethicists, environmentalists, and animal rights activists have continue to contend that it is absolutely wrong to create animals that would suffer as a result of genetic alteration (for example, a pig with no legs) and that such experimentation should be banned. The opponents of genetic engineering express concern that such technologies could be used to create a slave race—that is, a race of sub-humans that could be exploited. They contend that by allowing this genetic manipulation, we run the risk of creating a race of super-humans, changing what it means to be "normal" and increasing the ever-widening gap between the haves and the have-nots (Glenn, 2013**)**.

4. Risks Associated with Genetic Engineering

Several known risks are associated with the application of genetic engineering, especially when it involves the transplantation of cells or organs from animals to humans. For example, there is the risk of the transmission of fatal zoonotic diseases, such as bovine spongiform encephalopathy (aka “mad cow disease”), porcine endogenous retroviruses (PERVs) and Nipah encephalitis. It is said that the introduction of these diseases to the human population could have devastating consequences. The risk of creating new diseases by combining animal DNA or human DNA with plant DNA for which there is no treatment calls for serious concern about genetic engineering technological advancement (Glenn, 2013**)**.

There is the argument that the production of transgenic animals threatens and weakens the genetic diversity of other animals and thereby make them more susceptible to new strains of infectious disease. According to Benjamin and Familusi (2020), a particular disease or virus may wipe off the whole herd sharing the same genetic characteristics. Others argue that transgenic farm animals are far more likely to endure greater suffering than what is already experienced on factory farms. Citing Comstock, Benjamin and Familusi observe that when human growth hormone was implanted into a pig, the unfortunate result was pigs that ended up with bowlegs, cross-eyes, arthritis, and dysfunctional immune systems that made them susceptible to pneumonia. Likewise, dairy cows which are commonly injected with bovine growth hormone to increase their rate of milk production, are much more likely to suffer from udder disease, and it also makes cows more susceptible to infertility and lameness. They further assert that the intercourse between human genes and nonhuman organisms seem to be taken too far even when there may be beneficial outcomes. Obsession with breakthroughs in gene manipulation could lead to a blurred relationship between animals and human beings. Thus, the deliberate germ-line genetic engineering in humans where the DNA changes will be inherited by successive generations is by far the biggest and most profound risk in genetic engineering. Moreover, to force the body to accept foreign organs, doctors administer immunosuppressive drugs which turn out to put patients at greater risks for sickness and tumors in the future. Again, there are cases of infections (Benjamin and Familusi (2020). Some abnormalities that occur in genetically modified animals suggest that more information is required on the consequences of such practices in both humans and animals, before its routine use (Montaldo 2006).
Furthermore, Hagedorn (2000) categorizes risks associated with genetic engineering into two; potential harms to health and potential environmental harms. According to him, potential harms to health include new allergens in the food supply, antibiotic resistance, production of new toxins, concentration of toxic metals, enhancement of the environment for toxic fungi and unknown harms to health. Potential environmental harms according to Hagedorn include cross contamination, increased weediness, gene transfer to wild or weedy relatives, change in herbicide use patterns, squandering of valuable pest susceptibility genes, poisoned wildlife, and creation of new or worse viruses. Similarly, Benjamin and Familusi (2020) declare that new organisms created by genetic engineering could present an ecological problem. One cannot predict the changes that a genetically engineered species would make on the environment. An accident in engineering the genetics of a virus or bacteria for example could result in a stronger type, which could cause a serious epidemic when released. This could be fatal in human genetic engineering creating problems ranging from minor medical problems to death (Mercer et.al, 1999). The release of genetically altered organisms into the environment can increase human suffering when medical measures are concerned, decrease animal welfare in experiments or through the use of recombinant DNA – technique in breeding, and lead to ecological disasters (Harry, 1994). The containment of biotechnological material in laboratories and industrial plants involves two types of risk. The first is the possibility of an accidental release in and by itself. The second layer of risk becomes visible in the case of accidental release, and is the increased probability with which this can produce them. These are matters which have traditionally been dealt with by systematic risk assessment (Thompson, 1986).

A risk that lies between the scientifically controllable dangers of release and containment and the more indirect political hazards of technology is the probability of the inadequate handling and irresponsible use of genetically altered material, prompted by the economic self-interest of research groups and industrial cooperation. The purely social and political dangers of genetic engineering include the possibility of increased economic inequality accompanied by an increase in human suffering and the possibility of large scale eugenic programs and totalitarian control over human lives. The risk in this case is clearly moral rather than technical. If multinational corporations choose to supersede the national products of third world countries by their own biotechnological substances, millions of workers will in a few years' time be unemployed. If governments decide to develop racial programs and surveillance systems based upon the achievements of genetic engineering, the undesired outcome is certain, not possible or probable. The danger is that the decision makers act immorally, not that they have miscalculated the consequences of their actions (Rachels, 1975). In debates concerning the risks of biotechnology, the social and political dangers are not discussed as often as the hazards of responsible and irresponsible containment and releases. A partial reason for this can be that economic inequality and totalitarian measures are not seen by all as unwanted, undesired, or evil. Another partial explanation could be that the possibility of these outcomes is small, especially in the assessment of particular biotechnological innovations or products. It is difficult to see a connection between, say a technological process designed to produce expensive pharmaceuticals on the one hand and the emergence of an unjust totalitarian political order on the other. The risks at hand can be defined not only by scientific evidence but also in relation to public concern (whether perceived or real) that exists in some people. Some individuals contend that genetic engineering is a dangerous technological adventure and unnatural interference in living processes (Larrère 2003).

5. Benefits of Genetic Engineering

There has been a strong argument that despite the various risks associated with the application of genetic engineering; this biotechnological advancement has the ability to solve a number of agricultural, industrial, environmental and health problems. There is no gainsaying that several works have been done on genetic engineering with major focus on its importance; ranging from increasing plant and animal food production, diagnosing disease condition, medical treatment, improvement, as well as production of vaccines and other useful drugs (Benjamin and Familusi 2020). According to Glenn (2013**),** transgenic biotechnology presents an exciting range of possibilities, from feeding the hungry to preventing and treating diseases. The advocates of genetic modification argued that many deadly human inherited diseases, such as cystic fibrosis, diabetes, Down syndrome, fragile X syndrome, Huntington's disease, muscular dystrophy, sickle-cell anemia, Tay-Sachs disease, "bubble boy" disease (Severe Combined Immunodeficiency), among others, can be treated with genetic engineering. They further argued that health professionals can now detect, treat and prevent 4,000 or more genetic diseases that humans are vulnerable to. Somatic cell engineering and germ-line engineering are used in gene therapy for correcting defective genes and for preventing the transmission of hereditary diseases from one generation to subsequent generations (Benjamin and Familusi 2020). Walter (1998) declares that diseases, such as hypertension, AIDS, Alzheimers' disease, high cholesterol, anemia and hepatitis B, are currently being studied through the use of genetically engineered animal models. The use of transgenic animal models for the study of gene regulation and expression has become commonplace in the biological sciences (Montaldo 2006).

Moreover, Majzoub and Muglia (1996) posit that genetically engineered animals such as the 'knockout mouse', in which one specific gene is 'turned off' are used to model genetic diseases in humans and to discover the function of specific sites of the genome. Genetically modified animals such as pigs will probably be used to produce organs for transplant to humans—xenotransplantation (Murray et al. 1999; Prather et al. 2003). This biotechnology is equally beneficial because it is used for the production of specific therapeutic human proteins such as insulin in the mammary gland of genetically modified milking animals like goats (transgenic animals, bioreactors) (Murray et al. 1999; Wall, 1999). According to Montaldo (2006), genetic engineering may be used to increase disease resistance and productivity in agriculturally important animals by increasing the frequency of the desired alleles in the populations used in food production. With regards to the agricultural industry, experts are of the opinion that transgenic farm animals can be created, that are better able to resist disease, grow faster, and more efficiently reproduce than current species of animals. Advocates of genetic engineering technology contend that transgenic animals (animals that have been genetically altered through the introduction of another plant's or animal's genes), may one day help solve many of our modern day problems in life, from starvation and ill health, to environmental degradation and the modern extinction crisis (Benjamin and Familusi 2020). Benjamin and Familusi also observe that:

Genetic engineering can be used to increase growth, shorten gestation and enhance nutritional value. Equally, transgenic animals, sharing the genes of two or more species, may be created to withstand rough environments. Genetically engineered plants are created to resist pests in some ways possible. Genetically modified plants are expected to give higher yields and be more resistant to disease, frost, drought, and stress. They will have higher protein, lower oil and more efficient photosynthesis rates than ever before. Natural processes such as ripening can also be enhanced and controlled (2020:39).

Furthermore, genetic engineering makes it possible to use human growth hormone for more than its original intent as a treatment for dwarfism. In a similar view, parents deficient in mathematical skills may literally shop for genes that predispose their offspring to mathematical excellence and have these genes inserted into their children during the prenatal or postnatal period. Some other parents may select traits such as artistic ability, musical talent or athletic prowess for their children. Also, with germ-line engineering, scientists would assist parents decide their children's capabilities, eye colours, heights or even genders before birth (Coates et al, 2008; Benjamin and Familusi 2020).

6. Conclusion

This paper has investigated the ethical concerns and risk perceptions associated with the application of genetic engineering in the contemporary society, and it was discovered that this biotechnology have some major problems relating to technical complexity and ethical dilemma that call for public concerns. The authors further observe that despite all the aforementioned problems, there are indications that genetic engineering has the potential to improve the quality of life and allow for longer life span and even transmit quality to successive generations (Benjamin and Familusi 2020). However, the processes involved in the application of genetic engineering must be seriously guided by laws and standard ethical systems so that man will not be a victim of his own creations. There is the need to employ proper safeguards and develop coherent and unified regulations for genetic engineering technology. A reasonable degree of regulation, open information on the issues of genetic modification from the academic world and the involvement of the whole society in the developments of laws and ethical systems concerning genetic engineering, seems to be the best way to avoid or reduce unethical or abusive use of biotechnologies in the contemporary world (Fukuyama and Stock, 2002; Montaldo, 2006). Moreover, there is the need for concern agencies to educate the general public on the perceived dangers and benefits of genetic engineering for proper understanding in order to reduce the impact of conspiracy theories regarding this biotechnology on the members of the public. There is no doubt that genetic engineering will continue to generate serious controversies in the social and religious terrain because of the unresolved ethical dilemma. In this light, biotechnologists, social and religious ethicists and other relevant stakeholders need to engage in sincere, fruitful and meaningful dialogue to resolve the pending ethical dilemma in order to advance the moral and scientific wellbeing of humanity.

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Perceived Correctional Officers' Power Sources and Compliance among Correctional Facility Inmates in Osun State, Nigeria

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Abstract. The continued crisis in correctional facilities which has led to jail breaks and avoidable deaths has been a serious problem for correctional officers and governments. Understanding the application of power sources which could have been used in gaining compliance in these facilities have been ignored by researchers in Nigeria and Africa in general. Therefore, the present study was out to investigate the influence of perceived power sources and compliance among correctional facilities inmates. 150 inmates selected from two correctional facilities in Ilesa and Ile-Ife, Osun State were used in the study. A questionnaire measuring their demographic data and perceived power sources and compliance was used for data collection. The results of the study indicated that correctional officers' power sources (expert, rewards, legitimate, coercive, and referent) significantly jointly influenced inmates compliance to rules and assigned duties (F (5,149), = 12.026, P < .05). Also no significant difference existed between male and female inmates' compliance based on perceived correctional officers power sources (t= (148); = -.483, P>.05). While years of incarceration of inmates significantly influenced inmates level of compliance based on perceived correctional officer's power sources (F (4, 149) = 1.183, P<.05). The study recommended that, the managements of correctional facilities should train their officers to acquire skills that would enable them handle inmates, promote and assigned officers legally to positions of authority and also make available certain rewards into the officers in order to provide same to inmates who comply to rules, assigned duties and responsibilities.

Keywords: Power Sources, Compliance, Perception, Correctional, Duties, Responsibilities, Inmates

1. Introduction

In Nigeria and other parts of the world, there exist correctional facilities previously known as prisons. These facilities are located in different states of the Nigeria federation, in forms of local, state and federal correctional facilities. The correctional officers serve as the voice of authority within these facilities ensuring safety and welfare of the inmates. These courageous enforcement professional disrupt violence confrontations, ensures order, and also work to help rehabilitate the inmates. Correctional officers have multidimensional roles in facility operations, regardless of their assignments, be it to oversee general population inmates or to supervise inmates on death row. A correctional officer is required to perform some task and at the same time ensure peace and order in the facility and provide dignified and safe living conditions. Failure on the part of the correctional officers to undertake the above could result in irreversible consequences that impact an entire community and endanger innocent lives and property.

The roles of correctional officers in the correctional facilities are crucial and so, for them to continually achieve their goals, the understanding and application of power is needed here. Aslanargun (2011) noted that behaviour of people in any society reflects some kinds of powers shaped by power relations. Power is an intangible force in organizations, yet the concept of power is so complex that each person conceives it differently. According to Bass & Bass, (2008), power is seen as a force while Rahim (1989) posited that power is a capacity. However, both definitions are concerned about the exercise of influence to fulfill or achieve a goal. In this research, the term power is defined as the capacity of an individual agent to influence the behaviour or attitude of one or more designated target person(s) (Rahim, 1988). This definition explains the fact that, this study is limited to the influence of one individual (correctional officer) over other individuals (correctional facilities inmate)

Power is an individual's capacity to move others, to entice others, to persuade and encourage others to attain specific goals or to engage in specific behaviour, it is the capacity to influence and motivate others (Cangemi, 1992). Power is the ability of someone to influence someone else (Nelson & Quick, 2012). The study of power has been classified according to the style of people, their communicative competence, organization climate, interpersonal relations in the society such as teacher-student, Principal-teacher, doctor-patient, commander-soldier, employer-employee which reflects some degree of power based relations. When considered in this direction, power is a process of removing the obstacles that would have hindered organizations from achieving their goal.

Power is defined contextually and in meaning with control, ability, influence and authority. Power can be seen as authority or a means of getting work done (Nesley Quigley, Aguinis, Leeve & Tedeshi, 1999). Etzioni (1961) noted that, power is the actual process of an agent to influence others, for anyone having power in a society is only possible to influences and activates others for their wishes. Within organizations, power, authority, and influence could be substituted each for another. Power is sometimes seen as source of capacity but most times confused with influence. Influence often is defined as power. Power is noted to be a process of activating sources while authority is identified as formally constructed power or legitimacy (Hales, 1997). Therefore, power is merely seen as an informal authority while authority is seen as legitimate power (Luthans, 1992).

Within organizations, influence or influence strategies are generally used as transformative form of power to make subordinate to do assign duties and responsibilities. Influence here is interchangeable used according to object, influential act and alterations over the subject and are derived from concepts such as control, power and authority (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002). Power is also an exchange relationship that affects the organizational culture in correctional facility, thereby allowing maintenance of order to be achieved even in the absence or physical presence of correctional staff (Gordon & Stichman, 2015).

In this study, emphasis is not on power itself, but on the sources of power as resources to be harnessed by the correctional officers to influence inmate and gain cooperation or compliance to request and or assigned duties and responsibilities. Previous researchers like Cloward (1968); Hepburn (1985); Stojkovic (1986); Sykes & Messinger (1960) found that, in order for correctional officers to succeed in their tasks, they must enforce authority by using power. Our study adopted French and Raven sources of social power in order to discover those types of power that inmates in correctional facilities may perceive as influencing them more to comply and or cooperate with correctional officers on assigned duties and request.

The study of Hepburn (1985) found that expert, coercive, referent, legitimate and reward power are the power sources that correctional officers may adopt in getting inmate to comply and that each of these sources of power depends on the perception of the person who has influence applied against him or her. In other words, when a correctional officer has one of these power sources, the inmates perceive him or her as having that power. Social power refers to the repertoire of power available to an individual to an individual whereas influence tactics refers to the actual usage of specific behavior in situation (Podsakoff & Schrishein, 1985; Stahelski & Payntton, 1995). Thus an inmate in a correctional facility may comply with the correctional officer's request because of the imagined or perceived social power repertoire available to the correctional officers or due to an actual tactics like the use of specific coercion, such as giving undesirable work assignment.

Firstly, rewards power source is based on the established fact that a power holder has the ability either to reward a target or subordinate compliance with something positive or to remove something negative. This type of power is based on the power holder's authority in the position. This source of power is an important instrument in rewarding effective performers. Reward power acts as reinforcement for subordinates presented by power holder. Reward power depends on the target's belief that the agent can provide them some desired rewards. When this type of power source is perceived, it may indicate a temporary change in the behaviour of the target. This therefore, produces compliance temporarily and the continued compliance using this power source is based on successful surveillance of the target by the agent. The correctional officer has reward power when inmates perceive them to have authority to issue rewards. However, correctional officers are limited in formal rewards but can give informal rewards in form of overlooking inmates' minor rule breaking or violation in exchange for compliance with major rule or assisting to control other inmates (Lombardo, 1989).

Secondly, coercive power source is based on a subordinates' perception that a supervisor has the ability to punish him or her for failure to conform to the superiors influence attempt. The correctional officer has coercive power when the correctional facility inmates perceive them to have the right to punish them or give them undesirable assignments. Also, like reward power source, coercive power source is disadvantages because it depends on observability by others (French & Raven, 1959). In other words, the inmates' reacts only in certain ways when the correctional officer is available to hand out the punishment
Thirdly, referent power is a source of power that subordinates attributes or desires to identify with a superior because of their admiration or personal liking of the superior. This power leads to private acceptance of targets by enabling him or her to maintain satisfactory relationship with agent and see himself or herself as similar to the agent on certain relevant dimensions (Gibson, Veegerleri, 2003). Referent power represents attraction that correctional officer has with his or her characteristics as perceived by the inmates. Most times the power holders are not aware of these characteristics or charisma of theirs but the subordinate compliance to request made by the power holder.

Fourthly, expert power refers to a perception by the subordinate of his or her superior having job experience and special knowledge or expertise in a given field or area of discipline. This is a common form of power and the bases of a very large proportion of human collaboration including most institutions, company or organizations where the principle of specialization allows large and complex organizations to be undertaken. Leaders or supervisors expertise can contribute to the level of power in organizations and it can provide equal, entreating and motivating relationship with subordinate. Expert power is dependent on an individual having expertise or knowledge in specific domain. If an inmate perceives a correctional officer as an expert in his or her service delivery, it therefore result in that correctional officer's acceptance by the inmate. This power may be more evident among correctional officers in handling conflicts among inmates and human relations issues that may require the correctional officer's attention.

Finally, legitimate power is based on the belief of the subordinate's that a superior has the night to prescribe and control their behavior. Legitimate power is that which is invested in a role. Legitimacy can come from a higher power which usually results in acceptance behaviour. In this study, a correctional officer has a legitimate right to make request of the inmates and an obligation to comply. This source results in the correctional officer's acceptance that comes from within the inmate as it is socially dependent on the correctional officer, but however does not require any surveillance of inmates in order to be successful. Legitimate power source is different from tyrannical use of power source since it depends on legitimacy and hierarchy (Elias & Loomis, 2004). Today's organizational theory attributes high importance on legitimate authority that flows down through the organizational hierarchy and formal rules established and enforced by those in authority to ensure that organizational behavior is directed at the attainment of goals. (Shafit & Ott, 1987). Legitimate power however, can be influenced by other factors such as experience and age. For example, correctional officers with more experience tended to see legitimate power as less important (Hepburn, 1985). Bachman, Bowers & Marcus (1968) reviewed these power sources to determine why people comply with the request of superiors in their workplace and how each power source linked to organizational effectiveness.

Compliance therefore, means the inmates is willing to carry out the correctional officers wishes as long as doing so will not require extra effort. That is, the inmates will respond to reasonable and or normal request that are perceived to clearly be within the normal boundaries of their job.

The justice system for more than four decades now, have experienced serious issues in correctional facilities and researchers have studied some of these issues, such as violence in prisons, jail breaks, adjustment and coping with prison life. However, Smith, Applegate, Sitren, & Springer (2009) remarked that, researchers have conducted studies using social power base in varieties of academic discipline, probation and other organizational context. While Steiner, Hester, Makarios & Travis (2012) studied inmates on parole. But Symkovych (2019) concluded that, only Gordon & Stichman (2014); Gordon & Stichman (2015); Hepburn (1985);

Stojkovic (1986); Stichman (2003); & Stojkovic (1984) have conducted studies using correctional officers and inmates in correctional facilities.

Wooldredge & Steiner (2016) study found that, Correctional officers' claims to legitimate authority can only be valid when the organizational rules and the enforcers of those rules are proper and just—not just in particular instances, but consistently and over time. The continuity of interactions between officers and inmates that involve respectful treatment and preserve the dignity of inmates is necessary for establishing correctional officials as individuals who deserve the right to govern.

This then leads to the question of what constitutes the legitimate and illegitimate use of correctional officers' power sources and it is, in line with this that such differences in the power sources requires this distinction. For instance, when officers rely more on coercion to gain compliance from inmates, they weaken their legitimate authority because inmates are not willing to follow their directives. On the other hand, if they rely more on their expertise, they may gain the respect of inmates from doing so. However, if the officers are not skilled to use their power sources appropriately, they stand the risk of the inmates not recognizing their right to rule or control them.

Limited studies however exist in Africa in general and in Nigeria in particular on how correctional officers' powers sources can influence compliance of inmates to their assigned duties and responsibilities. For example, Benjamin (2018) examined criminal justice administration and panic of prison correction in Nigeria while Akoeni (2016) examined conditions on which prison officers are seen as power base holders based on legitimacy claims in Ghana respectively. It is against this background that this study tends to examine the influence of perceived correctional officers' power sources on compliance among correctional facility inmates in South-Western Nigeria with emphasis on the following specific objectives: to examine whether inmates who perceive their correctional officers to have either expert, referent, reward, coercive or legitimate power source will comply with rules and assigned duties, whether perceived correctional officers power sources by inmates will significantly independently and jointly influence their compliance, whether there is a significant difference between male and female inmates' compliance based on their perceived power sources of the correctional officers, and whether the inmates' years of incarceration will significantly influence their compliance to rules and assigned duties.

In order to achieve the goal of this study, answers are sought for the following research questions:

- Will inmates who perceive their correctional officer to have expert, reward referent, coercive and legitimate power sources influence their compliance with rules and assigned duties?
- Will perceived correctional officers' power sources significantly independent and jointly influence inmates' compliance?
- Will there be a significant difference in the compliance of male and female inmates?
- Will the years of incarceration of the inmates significantly influence their level of compliance to rules and assigned duties?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Power Sources and Inmate Compliance

It was stated earlier that there is paucity of research in Nigeria and Africa in general in this area of study, but studies in other parts of the world, for example; Stichman (2003) study reported that, inmates of correctional facility accept the fact that officers have the right to be obeyed. He went further to explain that, the inmate's acceptance of both the institutionalization of authority and the officers' right to occupy the office they do, indicates support for legitimate and referent power. Hepburn (1985) study also found that, legitimate and expert power source of officers was the reasons for inmates' compliance. The officers' exercise of powers over inmates can influence inmate's perception regarding the legitimacy of their authority, not to mention regarding the legitimacy of prison rules (Bottons 1999; Lambardo, 1989; Wooddriege & Steiner, 2016). Therefore, because of officers legal authority they are more seen as the representatives of formal rules of conduct and determinant on how rules are enforced (Liebling, Price & Shefer, 2011) The study of Gordon *et al*. (2015) which examined correctional orientation and compliance in respect to three dimensions of power (expert, referent and legitimate) which relied on informal control and relationship indicated in their results, officers believing in rehabilitation ideals that was consistently related to the dimensions of legitimate, referent and expert power source control. Gordon *et al*. (2014) in their earlier study of a preliminary investigation of the effect of correctional officers bases of power and their fear and risk of victimization showed that expert and legitimate power were negatively related to fear and expert and referent power were negatively related to victimization. The study however concluded that, officers who relied more on internal power base are less fearful and believed in themselves to be at a lower risk of victimization when compared to officers who relied more on external power bases.

But in another study by Gordon *et al*. (2015), their results indicated that inmates' compliance to rules was as a result of the fact that, they perceived officers as using expert, referent and legitimate power. Their study further indicated that, the rehabilitative philosophies of correctional officers on legitimate, expert and referent power sources were the means used by the officers to gain compliance from inmates. According to Ferdik & Smith (2016) study which investigated maximum security correctional officers' social bases of power relied upon in influencing inmates as well as their antecedents in decision making. This study showed that, referent and legitimate power source were ranked the highest in use for controlling inmates, while measures of officers risk perception and work-related attitude significantly predicted the reliance of power sources. These researchers noticed an interesting dichotomy in the findings for perception of inmates' compliance. They discovered that, officers who perceived greater compliance by inmates were significantly influenced by expert, referent and positional power and the reliance on coercive power. Their study further showed that coercive power of correctional officers could reflect inmates' reaction to the use of force that enhanced their compliance to order and rules. The study revealed further that, correctional officers depended on coercive power the same way they depended on referent and expert power. These researchers were however surprised that, coercive power source was perceived in relation to referent and expert source given the less desirable information about it. According to Stojkovic (1986), prison guards rejected the idea that inmates are controlled by them through coercion and reward. They however noted that, inmates ranked legitimate and expert power as most important reason why they comply with orders and directives by officers. In the same vein, Stichman (2003) & Gordon (2015) sum up that, coercive and reward power were the weakest source of power used in correctional facilities by officers. But Steiner, Makorios, Hester & Travis (2012) were of the view that the ratings of legitimate and expert powers of the officers were negatively related to officers interest in pursuing parole revocation, which suggested that, the type of power parole officers adopted must have in one way or another made the inmates to comply to directives.

Steiner & Wooldredge (2018) in their study found that, inmates' perception of officer's legitimacy had an inverse relationship with both violent and non-violent rule violation while non-violation rule infraction was statistically significant when the inmates perceived officers to be fair and just, thus, making the inmates to be less involved in non-violent rule infractions. They also found that, perceived positional power of officers on each type of misconduct had an inverse predictive direction which was statistically significant. Expert power in their study predicted a non-violent infraction to rules, while perceived referent power of officers was also a significant predictor of non-violent infraction to rules. This study however indicated that, the greater use of each reward power and coercive power had significant higher rates of violent infractions. In contrast to Steiner *et al*. (2018) submission, Sparks, Settons & Hay (1996) study indicated that, when officers rely less on coercive power and treat inmates with respect and fairness, they tend to experience less violence in correctional facilities that are concerned with the use of coercive power.

However, Hepburn (1985) study reported that, in a custody oriented facility also known as correctional facility, the officers therein may see their ability to resolve dispute among the inmate as expert power. But Stichman (2003) negated this view noting that inmates might be reluctant to accept correctional officer's expertise in controlling them. But Hepburn (1985), sum up with the fact that, conformity can be achieved through officers power over inmates as a resu lt of their reputation for competence and good judgment. A fundamental question most be asked and given an answer to in this current study. That is, within a correctional facility, which gender (male or female) among the inmates comply more with rules and regulations? According to Toman (2017) study on female incarceration and prison order with emphasis on gender differences in prison misconduct and in-prison punishments indicated that, male inmates receive more formal rule infraction than female with about 42 percent for males and 32 percent for females. Also, Jang & Fisher-Giolando (2005); Clone & Dehart (2014) studies showed that female inmates display less misconduct than male inmates and cope in correctional facilities conveniently. But Toman (2017) concluded that misconduct patterns of inmates whether male or female results from or are influenced by common predictors of behaviour such as prior incarceration and age of inmates. This submission is to the fact that in criminal justice system when an accused person has been sentenced, he or she is sent into a correctional facility to serve the term of the sentence. During this period, all rules and regulations must be obeyed by the inmates. Wooldredge (1994) opined that, deviation from the formal rules by inmates in the prison is considered as crimes.

3. Method

The design for the study is a cross sectional survey design. The researchers adopted this design because the study does not involve the manipulation of variables, it allowed us to assess certain characteristics of the inmates at a given point in time, and the analysis of prevailing characteristics of the inmates. The study was conducted at two (2) correctional facilities at Ile-Ife and Ilesa in Osun State, South-West. Nigeria. The targeted population of the inmates in the two (2) correctional facilities was seven hundred and seventy- five (775) inmates. The sample size for this study was one hundred and fifty (150) respondents from the inmate’s population in Ile-Ife and Ilesa Correctional facilities. There were more male inmates participants (129) than female inmates (21). However, the study strictly focused on inmates who were sentenced, awaiting trials and those who had spent more than six (6) months in the facility.

A non-probability sampling technique was used, specifically convenience sampling was employed. The study used a set of questionnaire for data gathering. The questionnaire was divided into two different sections. Section A, measured basic demographic information of the inmates, and self-reported criminal history (sentence length, conviction offence(s), and previous prison confinement). Section B, measured inmates perceived power sources of correctional officers and their compliance to rules and assigned responsibilities using Stichman (2003) perceived power bases scale of fifteen (15) items, tapping each of the original power sources of Raven (1959). In order to determine the psychometric property of the scale and suitability for use in Nigeria, the instrument was subjected to initial standardization process conducted among facility inmates in Ijebu-ode, Ogun State in the same geo-political zone with Ilesa and Ile-Ife in Osun State correctional facilities. The fifteen (15) items scale with five (5) Likert response style of Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree after standardization indicated a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.832.

Before the commencement of the study, the researchers sought and obtained permission to conduct the study using the inmates from these facilities, from the management of these facilities as participants. The copies of questionnaires were administered during the day and within forty-five (45) minutes with the assistance of the social workers (correctional officers within each facility) to the sampled inmates who were gathered at their vocational units and were expected back into their cells after the stipulated time. The inmates were however, assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

4. Results

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics and self-reported Criminal History of Respondents

Variables	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	129	86.0%
	Female	21	14.0%
	Total	150	100.0%
Age Group	20-29 years	54	36.0%
	30-39 years	58	38.7%
	40-49 years	19	12.7%
	50-59 years	10	6.7%
	60 years above	9	6.0%
	Total	150	100.0%
Marital Status	Single	76	50.7%
	Married	47	31.3%
	Separated/ Divorce	17	11.3%
	Widowed	10	6.7%
	Total	150	100.0%
Sentence Length	1-5 years	59	39.3%
	6-10 years	57	38.0%
	11-15 years	21	14.0
	16-20 years	5	3.3%
	21 years above	8	5.3%
	Total	150	100.0%
Conviction Offence	Homicide	19	12.7%
	Robbery	33	22.0%
	Burglary	17	11.3%
	Rape	14	9.3%
	Aggravated Assault	16	10.7%
	Drug Offenses	12	8.0%
	Probation/Parole Violation	3	2.0%

	Theft	16	10.7%
	Others	20	13.3%
	Total	150	100.0%
Previous Prison Confinement	None	111	74.0%
	One other time	24	16.0%
	Two other times	9	6.0%
	Three or more times	6	4.0%
	Total	150	100.0%

Source: *Authors' Computation*

The above (Table 1) showed the socio-demographic characteristics and self-reported criminal history of respondent and the percentage distributions. A total of two Hundred (200) inmates were given the questionnaires but only one hundred and fifty (150) were appropriately filled out (a 75 percent response rate). From this completed number, it was indicated that 129 (86.0%) were male, while 21 (14.0%) were female. The table showed that their ages ranged from 20-29 (36.0%), 30-39 (38.7%), 40-49 (12.7%), 50-59 (6.7%) and 60-and above (9.0%) The table also indicated that 76 (50.7 %) were single, 47 (31.3 %) were married, while 17 (11.3 %) were either separated or divorced, and 10 (6.7) were widowed. The sentence length of the inmates were 59 (39.0%), for a sentenced between 1 and 5 years, 57 (38.0%), for those sentenced for between 6-10 years, 21 (14.0%), were sentenced within the sentenced length of 11-15 years, 5(2.3%) were sentenced for between 16 and 20 years, while 8(5.3%0 were sentenced for more than 21 years. The table also depicted the conviction offense of the respondents as 19 (12.7%), 33 (22.0%), 17 (11.3%), 14 (9.3%), 16 (10.7%), 12 (8.0%), 3 (2.0%), (16) 10.7% and 20 (13.3%) for homicide, robbery, burglary, rape, aggravated assault, drug offence, probation/ parole violation, theft, and other categories of offences respectively.

Research Hypotheses

- Perceived correctional officers' expert, referent, reward, coercive, or legitimate power sources by inmates will significantly influence their compliance with rules and assigned duties.
- Perceived correctional officers' power sources will significantly independently and jointly influence inmates' compliance to rules and assigned duties.
- There is a significant difference in male and female inmates' compliance based on perceived correctional officers' power sources.
- Years of incarceration of inmate will significantly influence their level of compliance based on perceived correctional officers' power sources.

Hypothesis One: Regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis which states that perceived correctional officers' expert, reward, legitimate, coercive, and referent power sources will significantly influence inmates' compliance to rules and assigned duties. This is shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Summary of Hypothesis 1 Result

Variable	N	Mean	Sd	Df	Beta(β)	T	Sig	P
expert	150	3.99	1.28	149	.207	2.434	.016	<.05
reward	150	1022	3.51	149	.330	4.294	.001	<.05
legitimate	150	7.71	1.78	149	.249	2.741	.007	<.05
coercive	150	6.39	2.14	149	.001	-.066	.995	>.05
Referent	150	8.01	1.95	149	-.133	-1.343	.181	>.05

Source: *Authors' Computation*

The result of the analysis presented in the table above revealed that perceived correctional officer's expert, reward, legitimate, coercive, and referent power sources significantly influenced inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties, with expert (t (149) = 2.434, P<.05), rewards (t (149) = 4.294, P<.05), and legitimate (t (149) = 2.741, P<.05), showing positive influence on inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties. While coercive (t (149) = -.066, P>.05) and referent power sources (t (149) = -1.343, P>.05) showed negative influence on inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties. Therefore, the result was partially confirmed and accepted.

Hypothesis Two: Regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis which states that perceived correctional officer's power sources (expert, rewards, legitimate, coercive, and referent) will significantly independent and jointly influence inmates' compliance to rules and assigned duties. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of Hypothesis 2 Result

Variables	Beta (β)	T	P	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig	P
expert	.207	2.434	<.05						
reward	.330	4.294	<.05						
legitimate	.249	2.741	<.05	.543	.295	.270	12.026	.001	<.05
coercive	.001	-.066	>.05						
Referent	-.133	-1.343	>.05						

Source: *Authors' Computation*

The result of the analysis presented on the table above revealed that expert (β = .207, t =2.434, P<.05), rewards (β = .330, t =4.294, P<.05), and legitimate power sources expert (β = -.249, t = 2.741, P<.05), significantly and independently influence inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties. The table also revealed that coercive (β =.001, t = -.066, P.>05) and referent power sources (β = -.133, t = -1.343, P.> 05) did not significantly and independently influence the inmates compliance to rules and assigned duties.

Furthermore, it revealed that the correctional officers' power sources (expert, rewards, legitimate, coercive, and referent) significantly jointly influenced inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties (F (5,149), = 12.026, P < .05) and this accounted for 29% variance in the dependent variable of inmates compliance (R^2=.295). Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis Three: The T-test of independent measures was used to test the hypothesis which states that there will be a significant difference between male and female inmates' compliance based on perceived correctional officers' power sources. This is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of Hypothesis 3 Result

Variable	N	Mean	Sd	Df	Sig	T	P
Male	129	18.24	3.86	148	.200	-.483	> .05
Female	21	18.67	2.92				

Source: *Authors' Computation*

The result presented revealed that there is no significant difference between male (X=18.24, SD=3.86) and female (X=18.67, SD=2.92) on perceived correctional officers power sources (t= (148); = -.483, P>.05). Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis Four: One way ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis which states that years of incarceration of inmates will significantly influence their level of compliance based on perceived correctional officers' power sources. This is shown in Table 5 and 6.

Table 5: Summary table of descriptive analysis showing the mean and standard deviation of the years of incarcerations

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1-5 years	57	19.05	3.45
6-10 years	21	17.48	4.20
11-15 years	5	17.40	4.03
21 years and Above	8	17.00	4.24
Others	59	18.12	3.74

Source: *Authors' Computation*

Table 6: Summary of Hypothesis 4 Result

Variables	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Squares	F	Sig	P
Between group	66.050	4	16.513			
Within groups	2023.450	145	13.955	1.183	.032	<.05
Total	2089.500	149				

Source: *Authors' Computation*

The result presented revealed that years of incarceration of inmates significantly influenced inmates level of compliance based on perceived correctional officer's power sources (F (4, 149) = 1.183, P<.05). Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

5. Discussion of Findings

Power is the ability of someone to influence someone else (Nelson *et al*., 2012). Researchers in the area of power source in correctional facilities over the years have submitted evidences that suggested how these authorities (correctional officers) exercise their power over inmates and their subsequent compliance (Hepburn, 1985; Stichman, 2003; Steiner *et al*., 2015 & Steiner *et al*., 2016). We assessed these information in a correctional facility by examining the influence of correctional officers' power sources and inmates' compliance to duties and responsibilities in Ile-Ife and Ilesha correctional facilities in Osun State, Nigeria.

From the results of the study, hypothesis one which stated that perceived correctional officers' expert, reward, legitimate, coercive and referent power sources will significantly influence inmates compliance to rules and assigned duties was supported partially, in the sense that only expert, reward and legitimate power sources significantly influenced compliance of inmates to rules and assigned duties. From our result, it showed that when inmates in these correctional facilities perceived their correctional officers to have either reward, legitimate or expert power sources they are motivated to comply with rules and assigned duties. This findings collaborates to a large extent the results of Gordon & Stichman (2015) whose results indicated that inmates' compliance to rules was as a result of the fact that, they perceived officers as using expert, referent and legitimate power. Their study further indicated that, the rehabilitative philosophies of correctional officers on legitimate, expert and referent power sources were the means used by the officers to gain compliance from inmates. The slight difference observed in our study, is the fact that reward power of correctional officers was found to significantly influence inmates compliance which is at variance with most studies as it is noted to be a weak source. This result thereby provides motivational interest for future researchers to examine the constituent of rewards that officers grant to inmates in Nigerian correctional facilities.

Hypothesis two which stated that perceived correctional officer's power source (expert, reward, coercive, legitimate and referent power sources) will significantly and jointly influence inmate compliance to rules and assigned duties was supported. This means that when the inmates perceive correctional officers to have a positive combination of expert, reward, legitimate, coercive and referent powers sources, they systematically comply with rules and assigned duties. This study could not be corroborated since there are no literature in power sources study examining both the independent and joint influence of power sources and compliance in a single hypothesis. But Hepburn (1985) study which reported that legitimate and expert power source of officers was the reasons for inmates' compliance could be regarded as a study that lay credence to this study to a great extent. Hepburn study implied that inmates complied with rules and regulations when the officers are seen to control them based on their combined position and reputation for competence and good judgment which to us is regarded as joint influence.

The study of Rahim (1989) supported the result of our analysis. His study revealed that out of the five power sources, legitimate, expert and referent power sources were significantly related to compliance. The study of Bachman, Bower & Marcus (1968) examining why people comply with the request of their organization superior indicated that legitimate and expert power were the most important reasons for complying also supported this study.

Hypothesis three stated that, there will be a significant difference between male and female inmate compliance based on perceived correctional officers power sources. The result of the study was not confirmed. This means that being a male or female inmate in a correctional facility does not relate to compliance to rule or duties when perceiving correctional sources of power. The result of our study is at variance with the result of Toman (2017) study on gender differences in prison misconduct indicating that male inmates receive more formal rule infraction than female inmate indicating 42 percent for males and 32 percent for females. Also, Jang & Fisher-Giolando (2005) & Clone Dehart (2014) studies did not support the result of our study, noting that female inmates display less misconducts than male inmate and that the female inmates cope conveniently in correctional facilities. The results of these studies by these researchers by implication is that, their observed lower level of misconducts recorded by female inmates indicates that, they complied more to rules and assigned duties and responsibilities than their male counterpart. This result should also be further researched into to uncover why there was no significant difference in gender compliance among inmates in correctional facilities in Nigeria as found in other countries of the world.

Hypothesis four which stated that, age of incarceration of inmates will significant influence their level of compliance based on perceived correctional officer's power sources was supported. This means that the length of years of incarceration of inmates afforded them the opportunity to understand the workings of correctional facilities in the areas of rules obedience, respect for officers and inmates and even their reason(s) for incarceration. The study of Stichman (2003) collaborate the findings of this present study. In his study on the sources and impact of inmates' perception of correctional officers bases of power, he reported that length of sentence was positively and significantly related to personal offenses and those inmates who committed personal offenses perceived correctional officers to have legitimate and expert power sources as the highest.

Aslanargun (2011) study on the power sources that principal handle in school administration also lay credence to the present study. He reported a significant positive relationship between teachers teaching years and perceived power sources (expert, reward, coercive, legitimate and referent) of their principal.

6. Conclusion

The study conducted shows clearly that inmates perception of their correctional officers experts, reward and legitimate power has direct influence on their compliance to assigned duties, responsibilities and rules while coercive and referent power sources of correctional officers perceived by inmates does not. Inmates' perception of their correctional officers' experts, reward, referent, legitimate and coercive power sources has direct and joint influence on inmates' compliance to assigned duties and responsibilities. The study in addition indicated no difference in compliance to assigned duties and responsibilities by inmates whether male or females and also a difference in compliance to rule and assigned duties by inmates based on age of incarceration.

7. Recommendations

The following recommendations are hereby made as a result of the finding from the study:

The major findings of this study is the fact that only three (3) out of five (5) of the power sources, that is, experts, reward and legitimate power sources were found to have significant influence on inmates compliance to assigned duties and responsibilities. This result indicates that the management of correctional facilities should train their officers to acquire skills that can handle inmates, promote and assigned officers legally to positions of authority and also make available certain rewards into the officers in order for them to provide same to inmates who comply to rules assigned duties and responsibilities.

Secondly, power sources of experts, legitimate, reward referent and coercive were seen to jointly influence inmates compliance. Based on these results, the correctional officers should be educated on using a combination of these sources when making a request or seeking compliance from inmates in correctional facility. Thirdly, the result of the study also indicated no difference in compliance between male and female inmates. Organizations, management of correctional facilities should focus on training, motivating and or providing equal treatment to both male and females' inmates since sentence served by them are not given differently but based on crimes committed.

Primarily, the study showed a difference in compliance to rules and assigned duties by inmates. Following this inference, the management of the correctional facilities should provide to inmates from the first day of entrant into the facility orientation on rules based on age of incarceration and regulations within the facility.

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